A SYNOPTICAL HISTORY of ENGLAND

LLEWELYN G. BURT
A
SYNOPTICAL HISTORY OF ENGLAND,
WITH THE
CONTEMPORANEOUS SOVEREIGNS AND EVENTS OF GENERAL HISTORY,
FROM THE EARLIEST RECORDS TO THE PRESENT TIME.

BY
LLEWELYN C. BURT,
BARRISTER-AT-LAW.
SECOND EDITION.

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BRADBURY, AGNEW, & CO., PRINTERS, WHITEFRIARS.
PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

A new Edition of this Work having been called for, the Author has taken the opportunity thus afforded to him, to make some additions and corrections which will, he hopes, add to its usefulness.

As the publication of this History coincided with the accession to power of Mr. Gladstone in 1868, so it has happened that its revision for the purpose of re-publication was undertaken at the epoch of the election which terminated his five years’ government in 1874. It seemed, therefore, desirable to add some account of that period, memorable alike for legislation at home and for the great war upon the continent. The publication has been delayed in order to embrace the formation of Mr. Disraeli’s government and the first acts of the new Parliament.

The form of the original work has made the introduction of these additions a matter of some difficulty. To accomplish this with the least disturbance of the type, the annals of 1869 to April, 1874, have been made a supplementary addition, instead of a simple continuation; and these—as well as the “Synopsis of Contemporaneous History from A.D. 454 to 827”—are so numbered as not to alter the original paging. Some of the
new matter, which would have come properly under the "Remarks on the House of Hanover," is inserted in the second column (of "Observations") in the supplemental pages.

The Author has to thank the Reviewers for the favourable terms in which they have noticed his undertaking, which, as he has reason to believe, has been found useful in our Schools, Public as well as private, and in the preparation for Civil and Military examinations.
PREFACE.

It has been the design of the Author, in this Volume, to present to the reader the events of English and General History in a form hitherto unattempted in this country. By the method which he has employed, the eye is called to the aid of the memory, in accordance with the principle expressed in the well-known lines of Horace:—

"Segnius irritant animos demissa per aurem
Quam quae sunt oculis subjecta fidelibus, et quae
Ipse sibi tradit spectator."

There are Tables and Epitomes of English History in abundance; but the Author has felt the want of a work combining the interest of a continuous narrative with the clearness of the tabular form; and thus equally suitable for the general reader, the higher classes in schools, and the student preparing for examination.

This want the Author has endeavoured to supply by the publication of the present volume. The first column in each page contains, in chronological order, a brief abstract of the leading events of the period under review. In the second column fuller details are given with reference to those points which require a more lengthened notice. The third column is occupied by a summary of the principal occurrences in contemporaneous History. By this classification, it is believed that the student will not only be assisted in remembering the order of our Sovereigns, and the chief characteristics of their reigns, but be enabled readily to trace the connection between the events of each epoch of English History, and those of the corresponding periods in the history of other nations.
PREFACE.

At the end of each Line of Kings a rapid sketch is given of important constitutional and legal changes. The last of these summaries exhibits a complete view of the present state of the British Empire and of the condition of its people. The Genealogies of the several lines are also given, and Tables of the Battles of the Civil Wars, and of the principal Treaties and Statutes, are appended to the Volume.

In a work so elementary in its character, professing to treat only of subjects which belong to the common stock of History, it is unnecessary to refer to authorities. It is sufficient to say that no pains have been spared to render the narrative accurate. It is hoped that this volume will not only be found serviceable for the instruction of the young, but that it will prove a useful book of reference to the more advanced student.

The health of the Author has precluded him from continuing the History beyond the reign of William IV. He is indebted to the kindness of a literary friend for the narrative of the events which have occurred during the reign of Queen Victoria, and for the "Remarks on the Hanoverian Line."
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BRITAIN UNDER THE ROMANS.

FROM B.C. 55 TO A.D. 455.

The early inhabitants of Britain were a branch of that great Celtic or Gallic tribe, which had overspread the west of Europe at a period long anterior to that of authentic history.

The term "Cymri," the name of a portion of the Celtic tribe which peopled Britain, is still preserved by their descendants, the inhabitants of Wales, (whence is formed the word "Cambria"), while their affinity to the natives of Gaul is shown by the name still given in the French language to the Principality of Wales, Le Pays des Gaules—"the country of the Gauls."

The original name of our island, Albion,—still kept in the native tongue of the Highlanders,—is met with in Aristotle. It is supposed to owe its origin to a word found in the early languages of Europe, signifying "white," and of which we meet with traces in the Latin silva, and in the names, Alps and Apennines. It was, probably, given to Great Britain from the white cliffs of its south-eastern coast.

The term "Britan," the name of the inhabitants, whence comes the Roman name Britannia, is thought by some to be derived from the Celtic word "Brit," signifying divided or separated. It implied, therefore, that those to whom it was given had emigrated or removed from the rest of their countrymen on the Continent.

B.C. 55. Julius Caesar, after the conquest of Gaul, passed over into Britain, to punish the natives for the assistance which they had given to a kindred tribe, the Veneti, inhabiting Gaul.

54. He defeated the Britons under their chief, Cassibelaunus, and advanced as far as Hertfordshire, where he concluded a peace.

The principal tribes of Britain mentioned by Roman writers were,—the Cantii, or men of Kent, to the south; the Belgae and the Daunonii beyond the Ex; the Iceni and Coritani to the east; the Silures to the west; the Trinobantes, whose capital was London; the Dobunii and Cassii on the left of the Thames; and, to the north, the Brigantes, the most powerful of all.

A.D. 44. An expedition against the Britons was undertaken by the Emperor Claudius. He was opposed unsuccessfally by Caradoc, called in Latin Caractacus, who was taken prisoner to Rome.

58. Suetonius, who had been appointed to the command in Britain, pursued the Druids to the sacred island of Anglesea, where they were massacred.

61. Queen Boadicea gained some advantage over the Romans, but was at length defeated.

78. Agricola, who held the command in Britain under the Emperor Vespasian, was the great civiliser, as well as the conqueror of the country. He introduced the language and customs of Rome, appointing a Prefect or Governor, and a Procurator or collector of taxes.

Christianity was, probably, introduced into Britain before the end of the first century.

Claudia, a British lady, married to the Roman senator Pudens, in the reign of Claudius, is believed to be the Claudia mentioned by St. Paul. King Lucius sent to Rome, in the time of Eleutherus, requesting Christian instructors.

117. Irruptions of the Picts, in the reign of the Emperor Adrian, who visited Britain, and, to secure its northern frontiers, erected a rampart from the mouth of the Tyne to the Solway Firth.

140. In the reign of Antoninus, the Romans extended their frontier northwards, and built a wall between the Firth of Forth and the Clyde, called Vallum Antonini, since known as Graham's Dyke.

203. The incursions of the Picts were renewed under the Emperor Severus, who visited England in person, strengthened the rampart of Adrian, and died at York.

306. Constantius, who governed Gaul, and made Britain his residence, died at York, leaving by Helena, supposed to be a native of Britain, a son, Constantine the Great, who succeeded to the empire.

Britain was divided by the Romans into five provinces:—

I. Britannia Prima, including all the country south of the Thames.
II. Flavia Caesariensis, or the central Counties.
III. Britannia Secunda, corresponding in its limits with Wales.
IV. Maxima Caesariensis, including the northern Counties to the wall of Adrian.
V. Valentia, the country between the walls of Adrian and Antoninus.

410. Departure of the Romans, who, exposed to the invasion of the Goths and other northern tribes, were unable any longer to keep possession of Britain.

446. With the Gepids, or, as he is called by Geoffrey of Monmouth, Vortigern, a British king, unable to resist the incursions of the Picts, invites the assistance of the Saxons, who had already repeatedly annoyed the eastern coast of England.

Kent is obtained by the Saxons, who, attempting the conquest of England, receive a temporary check from a Roman, Ambrosius by name, and afterwards from Arthur, a British chieftain.

Several of the natives proceeding, under the conduct of their bishops and chiefs, to the west of Armorica, in Gaul, gave to the tract of country which they acquired, the name by which it is still called—Bretagne or Brittany.

Continued arrival of the Saxons, until the establishment of what is generally known as the Heptarchy. It should, however, rather be named the Octarchy, as it consisted of eight independent provinces, although two, Bernicia and Deira, were frequently merged into one kingdom, known under the collective name of Northumbria.
The Octarchy.

From A.D. 455 to A.D. 827.

Kantia or Kent.

Founded A.D. 455, by the Jutes under Hengist. It included Kent and the isles of Thanet and Sheppey.

This state, the first founded by the Saxon tribe, is also memorable as being the first into which Christianity was introduced. Ethelbert, its fifth king, whose accession took place A.D. 560, had married Bertha, a Christian princess, daughter of Caribert, King of France. The seal of her father had secured for her the free exercise of her religion. In the year 696 occurred the landing of Augustine and his companions, who had brought with them interpreters from France. Notwithstanding the accounts which they had received of the fierce manners of the Saxons, they sought an interview with Ethelbert. He received them seated under an oak—a precaution taken by the advice of his priests, who had assured him that, in the open air, the magical arts of the foreigners would lose their influence. Augustine and his companions walked in procession, bearing a silver cross and a picture of our Saviour. Ethelbert, listening to their words, said that, as their teaching was new to him, he should not at once forsake the gods of his fathers, but that they might preach the doctrines which they believed to be true without hindrance. Guided, probably, by the advice of Bertha, he gave them a residence in Canterbury, the chief city of Kent, whither they proceeded, chanting, as they went, solemn litanies for the salvation of themselves and of those to whom they came.

Ethelbert soon afterwards renounced idolatry, an event which was followed by the spread of Christianity among the other states of the Octarchy, and the appointment of Canterbury as the seat of an Archbishop.

Aric, who died in the year 794, was the last of the kings of the royal line of Kent, who from their descent from Ess, the son of Hengist, were styled Essingar. Aric was succeeded by three princes of various families, the last of whom, Halred, was subdued by Egbert (A.D. 823).

Kings of Kent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>King</th>
<th>Accession A.D.</th>
<th>Eduie</th>
<th>Accession A.D.</th>
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<td>455</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ess</td>
<td>468</td>
<td>Withred</td>
<td>794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ocie</td>
<td>612</td>
<td>Eadward I.</td>
<td>729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ercwin</td>
<td>642</td>
<td>Ethelbert II.</td>
<td>744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethelbert</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>Arie</td>
<td>700</td>
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<tr>
<td>Eadvald</td>
<td>616</td>
<td>Eadward II.</td>
<td>794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earconert</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>Cuthred</td>
<td>796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egbert</td>
<td>664</td>
<td>Baldred.</td>
<td>805</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lothaire</td>
<td>673</td>
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South Saxony or Sussex.

Founded A.D. 490, by the Saxons under Egill. It included Sussex and part of Surrey.

Though the second settlement effected by the invaders, this was the last of the states of the Octarchy, which forsok idolatry. Corresponding almost in its limits with the present county of Sussex, it contained little more than seven thousand families. In this small state, cut off from communication with the rest of the island by downs and marshes, the people continued in the rudest barbarism till Wilfrid, Archbishop of York, while exiled by Egfrid from Northumbria, visited them, (A.D. 681). Kindly received, he re-paid their hospitality by teaching them some of the arts of civilised life, and making known to them the truths of Christianity. He induced the king, Edilwalch, his queen and many of the chiefs to renounce idolatry, whose example was soon followed by the rest of the population. Wilfrid at length received from Edilwalch a grant of land at Selsey, or the Island of Selsey, a district nearly surrounded by the sea. On this spot he founded a Bishop's See, which was afterwards transferred to Chichester.

Egill, the founder of this state, was the first of the kings of the Octarchy who acquired the Saxon title of Breafeld, or Chief Ruler. As Sussex was the smallest of the kingdoms founded by the Saxons, it is unknown by what means he gained the superiority which entitled him to this distinction. The six other Saxon princes who bore the title of Breafeld before the accession of Egbert were, Coelwin of Wessex, Ethelbert of Kent, Redvald of East Anglia, and Edwin, Oswald, and Osy of Northumbria.

The last prince of the family of Egill fell in battle with Eadwalh of Wessex, (A.D. 866). His two infant sons were murdered by the conqueror, after which this small province fell into almost total dependence upon Wessex.

Kings of Sussex.

<table>
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<th>Eduie</th>
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<tr>
<td>Egill</td>
<td>490</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coelwin</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethelbert</td>
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<tr>
<td>Eadwalh</td>
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<td>Berthun</td>
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* Sussex is subject to Wessex from A.D. 884 to A.D. 984.
THE OCTARCHY.
FROM A.D. 455 TO A.D. 827.

WEST SAXONY, OR WESSEX.
Founded A.D. 619, by the Saxons under Cerdic. It included Hants, Berks, Wilts, Dorset, Somerset, Devon, and part of Surrey.

Christianity was introduced into this state in the reign of Cynewald. Birinus, sent by Pope Honorius to assist in spreading the faith in England, landed in Essex, in the year 634. His efforts were aided by Oswald of Northumbria, who about the same time sought the hand of the daughter of the King of Wessex in marriage. Cynewald was induced to renounce paganism, and a residence was given to Birinus at Doric in Oxfordshire, where he settled his See, which was afterwards removed to Lincoln, (A.D. 1088).

The influence of Wessex was extended by Ina, who was equally famous as a warrior and as a legislator. The immediate successors of Ina were of a younger branch of the family of Cerdic. The line, however, of the elder branch was not extinct, and Egbert, who inherited its rights, was the true heir to the throne of Wessex. As the order of succession was not exact, it will be well to add the direct descent of this prince, the sole representative, at the time of his accession, of the early Saxon chieftains, and through whom our present Sovereign, Queen Victoria, traces her descent from the house of Cerdic.

Kings of Wessex.

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<td>Cædric</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ina</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ethelbert</td>
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<td>Cuthred</td>
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Line of descent of Robert.

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<td>Ecgwealh</td>
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<td>Elmond, or Ethelred</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

EAST SAXONY, OR ESSEX.
Founded A.D. 627, by the Saxons under Ecgwine. It included Essex, Middlesex, and the southern part of Hertfordshire.

This was the last of the three states, Sussex, Wessex, and Essex, founded by the Saxons proper. Christianity was introduced into it by Mellitus, one of the companions of Augustine, by whose teaching Sebert, the nephew of Ethelbert of Kent, was led to embrace the Christian faith, A.D. 604. On a marshy spot north of the Thames, then known as Thorny Island, Sebert built a church on the site of an ancient Roman temple consecrated to Apollo. This church is now Westminster Abbey. The sons of Sebert, who were still pagan, succeeding him, the province again fell into idolatry until the year 663. In that year Sigebert, its king, paying a visit to Oswy of Northumbria, was led to embrace Christianity, when he requested the aid of missionaries to spread the faith in Essex. Cedd, to whom the mission was entrusted, was, at a later period, appointed bishop of the East Saxons, and fixed his See near London.

The end of the pious prince Sigebert was mournful. He was murdered by two of his kindred, who, we are informed by Bede, on being questioned what had moved them to the deed, had nothing else to answer, but that they hated him, because he was too apt to spare his enemies, and too easily to forgive the wrongs of those who had injured him.

The last king of this state descended from Ecgwine was Seired. His successors were three chiefs of Essex, the last of whom, Sigred, was forced to submit to the victorious arms of Egbert, who ultimately united all the provinces of the Octarchy. It is proper to add, however, that the kingdom of Essex appears to have been always dependent upon some one of its more powerful neighbours.

Kings of Essex.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Accession A.D.</th>
<th>Succeeded by</th>
<th>Accession A.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ecgwine</td>
<td>627</td>
<td>Sighere</td>
<td>653</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sledda</td>
<td>657</td>
<td>Sebbia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sebert</td>
<td>697</td>
<td>Sigherd</td>
<td>694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saxred</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sigherd</td>
<td>694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seward</td>
<td>616</td>
<td>Offa</td>
<td>700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sigebert</td>
<td>623</td>
<td>Seired</td>
<td>707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sigebert (the Little)</td>
<td>623</td>
<td>Swithred</td>
<td>733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sigebert (the Good)</td>
<td>663</td>
<td>Sigeric</td>
<td>792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swithhelm</td>
<td>665</td>
<td>Sigred</td>
<td>799</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE OCTARCHY.

FROM A.D. 455 TO A.D. 827.

BERNICIA.

Founded by the Angles under Ida, A.D. 547. It included Northumberland and part of the south-eastern counties of Scotland.

The name of Bernicia was formed by the early chroniclers from the original name Brynech, as that of Deira was formed from the ancient British term Deifyn. So complete was the change effected by the invasion of the Saxons, that these two provinces and the state of Kent were the only districts of the kingdom which were allowed to retain their ancient British names.

The two kingdoms of Bernicia and Deira were frequently merged into one, and were first united under Edilfrid, grandson of Ida, who married Aesa, daughter of Aella, and excluding her brother Edwin, the rightful heir, from the throne of Deira, governed both provinces under the title of Northumbria. A sketch of the history of this state, after the death of Edilfrid, is given below.

DEIRA.

Founded by the Angles under Aella, A.D. 560. It included York, Durham, Lancaster and Westmoreland.

We have already mentioned the mission of Augustine. As the incident which gave rise to it was connected with the province of Deira, it may be related here. Walking through the slave market at Rome, a monk, Gregory by name, afterwards Gregory the Great, was struck by the beauty of some fair-haired youths. Enquiring the name of their nation, he was told that they were Angli. "Angeli, (Angela) rather," he said, "they should be; if they were Christians, they would be co-heirs with them." Questioning further from what province they came, he was told that it was from that of Deira. "That is well," said Gregory, "they must be called Deiri, from the ire to the mercy of God." Pursuing his questions still further, he enquired who was their king, and Aella being the answer, "It is fit, then," said he, "that Alleluia should be sung in his land to the Most High." Forged, by the entreaties of his countrymen, to forego his intention of himself converting the English, he sent Augustine to our island.

NORTHUMBRIA.

Edilfrid was succeeded by Edwin, who was restored by the arms of Redwald of North Anglia, and who became the most powerful prince of the Octarchy. Marrying Ethelburga, the daughter of Ethelbert of Kent, who was accompanied to York by Bishop Paulinus, he was led to embrace Christianity, which was followed by its general reception in the north. His reign was remarkable for the justice and order that prevailed. After his death in battle with Penda, the pagan chief of Mercia, the province was for a short time divided, but were again united by Oswald, the nephew of Edwin, who is known as Oswald of "the Bounteous Hand." This prince, whose piety is recorded by Bede, also fell a victim to the ambition of Penda, (A.D. 642). The throne was then divided between Oswy, the brother of Oswald, and Oswin, a prince of the royal line of Deira. The latter prince, finding himself exiled, rose in rebellion, and married Ethelburga, the daughter of Oswin, the brother of Oswald, and Oswin, a prince of the royal line of Deira. The latter prince, finding himself exiled, rose in rebellion, and married Ethelburga, the daughter of Oswald, who was a prince of the royal line of Deira.

Oswy, who ruled with vigor, was the last of the princes of the Octarchy who bore the title of Bretwald. His immediate successors were Egfrid and Aelfred. The former of these princes attempted the conquest of the ancient Britons who had retired to Cumberland, and was defeated and slain by the Cymri of Strathclyde. The subsequent history of Northumbria presents little but a detail of civil strife.

The eye turns with pleasure to the prospect presented by the ecclesiastical and literary history of Northumbria. Here was the See of York, famous for its bishops Paulinus, Chad, Wilfrid and John of Beverley; and its monastic school, founded by Abbot Egbert, brother of the reigning king, to which youths of the highest rank were attracted, and in which was reared the celebrated scholar Alcuin, whose fame was so great that he was invited by Charlemagne to Rome, to diffuse the knowledge of literature in that country.

In Northumbria was the celebrated monastery of Yarrow, founded by Benedict Biscop in 684, who, on its completion, travelled, for the fifth time, to Rome to procure volumes for its library, and who had for its pupil the venerable Bede. Here, also, was Lindesfarne, famous for its bishop, St. Cuthbert, (A.D. 685), whose name is connected with the copy of the Gospels, which is still preserved in the British Museum. The See of Lindesfarne, after it had been filled by twenty-four prelates, was transferred to Durham.

Nor must we omit to mention the monastery of Whithby, founded by Hilda, the niece of King Edwin, who set an illustrious example of piety and virtue; and to whose encouragement of Caedman we owe the production of the first Anglo-Saxon poetry.
THE OCTARCHY.

FROM A.D. 455 TO A.D. 827.

EAST ANGLIA.

Founded by the Angles under Uffa, A.D. 571. It included Norfolk, Suffolc, Cambridge and part of Bedfordshire.

This state, as well as Bernicia, Deira, and Mercia, was founded by the Angles, whose name was gradually extended to the whole of the conquered country, and, slightly altered, has been preserved to the present day,—Anglo-land—Engle-land—England.

We have every reason to believe that the whole tribe of the Angles left their ancient home and established themselves in Britain, as their original country remained long afterwards uninhabited. It was as pagans of the most barbarous class, that all the Saxon tribes left their continental home. It is to this circumstance, and to the complete removal of the native race, that we must attribute the disappearance of Christianity from a country in which it had been previously spread. The native Britons retired into the remote districts of Wales, Cumberland, and Cornwall, and, even when invited by Augustine to aid him in the task, would take no part in instructing the invaders in the Christian faith. The old British and Roman names of towns and districts were replaced by names of Saxon origin. Wansworth, Wanstead, Wansdeke are corrupted from Wodnesborough, Wodnested, and Wodnesdeke. Even the names given to the days of the week preserve to the present time the traces of the early Saxon belief in Woden, Thor, and Freya.

Eorwulf was the first prince of this state who embraced Christianity, but his death occurring soon afterwards, East Anglia remained pagan till the accession of the good king Sigebert, his half-brother, who had sought refuge in France, and had there received instruction in the Christian faith. Having used every effort to spread it among his subjects, he followed the example of many of his brother princes of the Octarchy, and resigned his crown to follow the religious practices more congenial to his feelings. More than twenty of the early Saxon princes and princesses retired into religious solitude.

Ethelbert, the last prince of this state, was murdered by Offa, (A.D. 792), when East Anglia became united with Mercia.

MERCIA.

Founded by the Angles under Cridda, A.D. 686. It included all the interior of the island, as far as the mountains of Wales. It derived its name from the word Mærc or March, a Border, being originally a border territory.

This was the last of the states founded by the invaders. From the arrival of Hengist till the constitution of the eight independent kingdoms which formed the Octarchy, a period of nearly a century and a half had elapsed. By the conquest of Mercia, all England was re-plunged into the state of barbarism from which it had been emerging during the latter years of the Roman occupation. The old Roman cities were abandoned by the conquerors, who employed only trunks of trees, boards, and rafters in the construction of their dwellings, till their conversion to Christianity. The improvement in architecture, as in letters and the arts, was connected with its reception. The first buildings among them erected with stone hewn and cemented, and with glazed windows, were churches, which, though devoid of beauty, were sometimes of great size. At Mochampsted, (the Home in the Meadow), in the country of the "Girovi," or the "Feamani," afterwards called Burg St. Peter, (now Peterborough), the foundation stones were so large that eight oxen could scarcely draw one of them.

The early history of this state is stained with the crimes of Penda, (A.D. 625). It was during the reign of this prince that his son, Peada, paid a visit to Northumbria as a suitor for the hand of Aelhild, the daughter of Oswin, where he became a convert to Christianity. On his return, he was accompanied by Cedd and other missionaries, who settled at Repton, in Derbyshire, and made it the seat of the first Mercian bishopric.

At a later period the power of Mercia was greatly extended by Offa, the able and ambitious ally of Charlemagne. He subdued Kent, East Anglia, and Essex, and, to extend his influence over Wessex, gave his daughter Edgburg in marriage to Britiric, the prince of that state. It is supposed that remorse for the murder of Ethelbert of East Anglia, who was treacherously seized during a visit at his court, led Offa to resign his crown.

KINGS OF EAST ANGLIA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>King</th>
<th>Accession A.D.</th>
<th>Successor</th>
<th>Accession A.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uffa</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>Ethelberht</td>
<td>629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eorwald</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>Aidolf</td>
<td>613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eorwald</td>
<td>628</td>
<td>Alfolf</td>
<td>704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skegbert</td>
<td>629</td>
<td>Eorwald</td>
<td>749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eorad</td>
<td>632</td>
<td>Ethelberht</td>
<td>761</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ana</td>
<td>636</td>
<td>Ethelberht</td>
<td>790</td>
</tr>
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</table>

KINGS OF MERCIA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>King</th>
<th>Accession A.D.</th>
<th>Successor</th>
<th>Accession A.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Credel</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>Ealred</td>
<td>709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wibba</td>
<td>697</td>
<td>Ethelbad</td>
<td>716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceori</td>
<td>615</td>
<td>Offa</td>
<td>756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penda</td>
<td>626</td>
<td>Eberht</td>
<td>796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peada</td>
<td>655</td>
<td>Canwulf</td>
<td>795</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woleare</td>
<td>667</td>
<td>Canelm</td>
<td>819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethelberht</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>Coolwolf</td>
<td>821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cunred</td>
<td>704</td>
<td>Beornwulf</td>
<td>821</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SYNOPSIS OF CONTEMPORARY HISTORY FROM A.D. 455 TO A.D. 827.

Italy, having been overrun by the Goths under Alaric (401, 408), and the Huns under Attila (409), is invaded by Genseric, on his return from Carthage, who, at the head of the Vandals, takes and pillages Rome (455).

Ricimer, a Goth, rules in Rome, without a title, from 455 to 472. He bestows the title of Emperor on Anthemiun (467), who is slain in 472.

The last of the possessions still held in Spain by the Romans conquered by the Visigoths under Euric (489).

The Roman Empire of the West is overthrown by Odosacer, chief of the Heruli, who deposess Augustulus, and takes the title of King of Italy (476).

Odosacer is defeated and slain by Theodoric the Great, who finds in Italy the Kingdom of the Ostrogoths (493).

Prosperity of Italy under Theodoric.

The Franks under Clovis extend their conquests in Gaul, and found the Frankish Monarchy (500).

The use of the Christian Era introduced in chronology (527).

Benedict founds his monastic order at Monte Cassino in Campania (529).

Belisarius, a general of Justinian, Emperor of the East, recovers Africa from the Vandals (434).

Rome taken by Totila (557).

The rule of the Ostrogoths in Italy is terminated by Narses, a general of Justinian, who defeats and kills Totila, their king. Italy becomes a province of the Empire of the East (552).

The Fifth General Council is held at Constantinople (553).

The Bulgarians advance towards Constantinople, and are defeated. The last victory of Belisarius (561).

Disgrace of Belisarius (561).

The Allemanni give the name of Alamannia to Germany.

The Avars, or Huns, from Asia settle in Pannonia, modern Hungary (565).

The Langobards, or Lombards, under Alboin, their first king, gain the northern part of Italy (568). Pavia is their capital.

Appointment of the Exarchs of Ravenna, who govern the provinces of Italy still held by the Emperor of the East (568).

Birth of Mahomet at Mecca (571).

Revolts of Phocas against Maurice, who is put to death; Phocas becomes Emperor (602).

Gregory the Great elected Pope (604).

Heraclius puts an end to the misgovernment of Phocas and becomes Emperor (610).

Mahomet is forced by the Korans to flee to Medina (622); establishment of the Mahometan era, called the Hegira (a word signifying flight).

Death of Mahomet, at the age of 63. He is succeeded by Abu Bakr as Caliph (632).

Jerusalem is taken by the Saracens (637), who retain possession of it for 463 years.

With Clovis II. commences the Frankish kings called, in later French, Poitevins; the Mayors of the Palace acquire power (638).

The Saracens under Amanu invade Egypt (469) and take Alexandria. Supposed destruction of the celebrated Library (640).

Moawiya, a descendant of Ommiyya, uncle of Mahomet, obtains the Caliphat, which remains in his family for 96 years (661).

The Saracens reduce Numidia (677), ravage Sicily, and take Syracuse.

Invention of the Greek fire, which is successfully employed by the Greeks in defending Constantinople against the Saracens (673).

The Sixth General Council is held at Constantinople (680).

Appointment of the Doges of Venice (695).

The Saracens extend their conquests over the north of Africa (707).

Tarik lands at Gibraltar, and at the battle of Xeres defeats Roderic, the last of the Goths (711). The Saracens become masters of the whole of Spain, except Leon or Asturias, where Pelagius retains an independent sovereignty.

Eedit of the Emperor Leo against the use of images. It is resisted by the Patriarch of Constantinople (726).

The Iconoclasts condemned by a Council at Rome (731).

Charles Martel defeats the Saracens of Spain in a great battle at Poitiers (731).

The Caliphate is wrested from the Ommiyyes by the family of Abbas (750). The Abbasides retain the Caliphate for 500 years, and transfer the seat of the Empire from Damascus to Bagdad.

With Childeric III. ends the First or Merovingian Line of Frankish kings, which had lasted 330 years. Accession of Pepin, the first of the Carolingian Line (752).

Pepin defeats Astolphus, king of the Lombards, who had seized the Exarchate of Ravenna (755).

Charles the Great (Carolus Magnus, called in later French, Charlemagne) succeeds with his brother to the Frankish Monarchy (768). He becomes sole ruler (775); begins a sanguinary war with the Saxons which lasts 33 years (772—805); deposes Desiderius, and puts an end to the kingdom of Lombardy (773); defeats the Saracens of Spain, and establishes the Spanish March (778); loses his nephew Roland at Roncesvalles; annexes Bavaria, defeating its Duke Tasiolo (788); subdues the Huns, and extends his dominions to the river Rhône in Hungary (791); is crowned Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire at Rome, by Pope Leo III. (800); concludes a treaty with Nicephorus, defining the limits of the Eastern and Western Empires (803); publishes the Capitulaires of Aix-la-Chapelle (805); encourages learning; arranges the future division of his dominions among his sons (813); dies (814).

Navarre becomes independent under its Count, Itxigo (827).
KINGS OF ENGLAND BEFORE THE CONQUEST.
# KINGS OF ENGLAND BEFORE THE CONQUEST.

**From Egbert, A.D. 827, to Harold II, A.D. 1066.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Century</th>
<th>Accession</th>
<th>Kings</th>
<th>Descendent</th>
<th>Reign</th>
<th>Place of Burial</th>
<th>Marriage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IX.</td>
<td>A.D. 827</td>
<td>Egbert</td>
<td>Son of Elchmond</td>
<td>9 years</td>
<td>Winchester</td>
<td>Redberge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>836</td>
<td>Ethelwolf</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Steyning, Sussex</td>
<td>1st. Osberge; 2nd. Judith, daughter of Charles the Bald of France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>857</td>
<td>Ethelbald</td>
<td>Sons</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Sherborne</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>866</td>
<td>Ethelbert</td>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Sherborne</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>871</td>
<td>Ethelred I.</td>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Winborne</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X.</td>
<td>901</td>
<td>Alfred (the Great)</td>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Winchester</td>
<td>Alsitrhe, daughter of Ethelfrid, a Mercian noble</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>925</td>
<td>Edward I. (the Elder)</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Winchester</td>
<td>1st. Egwine; 2nd. Edgiva</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>941</td>
<td>Athelstan</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Malmesbury</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>946</td>
<td>Edmund I.</td>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Glastonbury</td>
<td>1st. Elfgive; 2nd. Elfrida</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>956</td>
<td>Edred</td>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Winchester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>968</td>
<td>Edwy, or Edwin</td>
<td>Son of Edmund I.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Winchester</td>
<td>Elfgive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>975</td>
<td>Edgar</td>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Glastonbury</td>
<td>1st. Elfgive; 2nd. Elfrida</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>978</td>
<td>Edward II. (the Martyr)</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Abingdon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1017</td>
<td>Edmund II. (Ironside)</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>7 mths.</td>
<td>Glastonbury</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1017</td>
<td>Canute</td>
<td>Son of Sweyn</td>
<td>19 years</td>
<td>Winchester</td>
<td>1st. Elfgive, daughter of Elfdelm; 2nd. Emma, widow of Ethelred II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Danish</td>
<td>1036</td>
<td>Harold I. (Harefoot)</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Winchester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line</td>
<td>1040</td>
<td>Hardicanute</td>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Winchester</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1041</td>
<td>Edward III. (the Confessor)</td>
<td>Son of Ethelred II</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td>Edith, daughter of Earl Godwin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1066</td>
<td>Harold II.</td>
<td>Son of Godwin</td>
<td>9 mths.</td>
<td>Waltham Abbey</td>
<td>Algitha, daughter of Earl Algar, and widow of Griffyths of Wales</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. EGBERT.

**Principal Events.**
Beginning to reign in Wessex in the year 800, he subdued Kent in 823, Mercia in 825, and brought the rest of the Octarchy under his authority in 827—thus becoming the first Bretwalda, or Monarch of England, who transmits his power to his successor.

In the latter year, he is crowned at Winchester, then regarded as the capital of England.

832. The Danes land, for the first time during this reign, in the Isle of Sheppy.

833. A second descent upon the west of England is made by the Danes, who are unsuccessfully attacked by Egbert at Charmouth, in Dorsetshire.

835. Egbert defeats the Danes at Hengstone Hill, in Cornwall.

836. After a prosperous reign, Egbert leaves the kingdom to his son Ethelwulf, who had already received the sovereignty of Kent.

**Observations.**

Before the accession of Egbert, Mercia was the most powerful state of the Octarchy. Beornwulf, who in 819 usurped the crown of this state, had been, shortly afterwards, defeated by Egbert.

The death of Britrice, which led to the rise of Egbert, the true heir, to the throne of Wessex, was caused by his accidentally drinking a poisoned cup prepared by his queen, Eadburg, for one of his courtiers.

Egbert had, in his youth, been driven into exile by the intrigues of Eadburg, and had been kindly received by Charlemagne. The knowledge gained by him during his residence for fourteen years at the court of that able monarch aided him, doubtless, in his subsequent efforts to extend his power in England.

It is important to remember that Egbert was not the first who bore the title of Bretwalda, or Sovereign of England. The seven predecessors of Egbert in this office had not, however, sufficiently established their power to transmit it to their successors. It must be added, that, in some of the states which had formed the Octarchy, especially in Mercia and East Anglia, the succession of vassal or dependent kings continued until, at least, the close of the ninth century. The successors of Egbert, even to the time of Alfred, were contented to style themselves "Kings of the West Saxons."

No idea of territorial possessions seems, at first, to have been connected with the title of king. Hence we read of the kings of the Mercians or of the East Anglians, rather than of the kings of Mercia or of East Anglia.

The Britons in Wales and Cumberland still maintained their independence. The former received from the Saxons the name of Welsh, (or Waliaeth,) a term signifying foreigners, and the country that of Walialand.

Before the accession of Egbert, we read of only three descents upon the English coasts, of those Scandinavian adventurers, or Vikings, (Saxians,) as they called themselves, who are commonly spoken of in history as Danes, although, coming from the North generally, they were more properly named by the Franks, Northmen or Nor-men. Their first landing in England occurred in the year 787. They were originally of the same race as the English themselves: but while the latter had become Christian, the former still remained pagan.

**Contemporary Events.**

**KING OF FRANCE.**

Louis I. (le Debonnaire), the son and successor of Charlemagne, who also succeeded his father in the title of Emperor of the West, restored in the person of that monarch, (A.D. 806).

Louis I., (le Debonnaire), son and successor of Charlemagne, who also succeeded his father in the title of Emperor of the West, restored in the person of that monarch, (A.D. 806).

Conquest of Sicily by the Saracens, who retain possession of it for 200 years, (A.D. 827).

Tuscany is erected into a Marquisate, which is conferred on Boniface, (A.D. 828).

Christianity is introduced into Sweden by Ansgar, a monk of Corvey, (A.D. 830).

Successors of Alphonso II. of Leon over the Saracens, who, by the defeat of Roderick at the battle of Xeras, (A.D. 711), had become masters of the greater part of Spain.

Married, REDREGE.  Issue, ETHELWOLF.
2. ETHELWOLF,

Principal Events.
The eldest surviving son of Egbert, succeeds to the kingdom.

841. He associates with himself on the throne his son, Athelstan.

845—851. The Danes are successively defeated at Porrel, in Somersetshire, at Weymouth, near Plymouth, and at sea, near Sandwich, in Kent.

852. Ethelwolf is victorious over the Danes in a great battle at Okeley, in Surrey, in which Athelstan falls.

854. In a meeting of the Witan, or Great Council, Ethelwolf confirms the grants made by his predecessors to the Church.

855. He visits Rome, and, on his return to England, surrenders Wessex to his son Ethelbald, who had conspired against him.

Observations.

ETHELWOLF, is said to have been originally designed for the ecclesiastical life. He was educated by Swithun, bishop of Winchester, by whose counsels, after his accession to the throne, he was chiefly guided. He was a prince of peaceful disposition, of which the Danes took advantage, and renewed their ravages almost yearly.

Ethelwolf, accompanied by his youngest son, afterwards the great Alfred, visited Rome in the year 855. On his return through France, he married Judith, the daughter of Charles the Bald, the reigning king of that country. This princess was only in the twelfth year of her age. The marriage ceremony was performed by the celebrated Hincmar, Archbishop of Rheims. All the children, however, of Ethelwolf who occupied the throne during the next four reigns, were born of his first wife, Oseberge, the daughter of Osace, his cupbearer, a West Saxon of noble descent.

During Saxon times the intercourse between England and Rome was frequent. We have seen that in the seventh century, Benedict Bishop travelled to Rome five times, and Wilfrid, Bishop of York, paid three visits to that city. In the Saxon Chronicle mention is made of the Anglo-Saxon School or Borough, a quarter of the city where the English visitors at Rome resided. As early as the year 816, we find an entry in those annals:—"This year the English School at Rome was burned." This school Ethelwolf rebuilt.

In consequence of the crime of Eadbub, a law had been passed in Wessex, forbidding the title of queen, or the honours of royalty, to be given to the wife of the king, who hitherto bore only the title of "The Lady." The discontent of the Saxons at Ethelwolf's placing his young bride, Judith, by his side upon the throne, is said to have been the pretext for Ethelbald's revolt.

In the Saxon Chronicle we find an entry under the year 855:—"The heathen men for the first time remained this year over winter at Sheppy." From this period, we must date the more permanent occupation of the country by the Danes.

Married, 1st, Osberge. Issue, Athelstan. ETHELBAID. ETHELBERT. ETHLEBED. ALFRED. Married, 2nd, Judith.
3. ETHELBALD & ETHELBERT.

**Principal Events.**

Shake between them the sovereignty—Ethelbald retaining Wessex, and Kent, Essex, Surrey and Sussex being assigned to Ethelbert, under the name of the Kingdom of Kent.

Ethelbald, a prodigal prince, marries Judith, his step-mother, but, at the remonstrance of Swithin, Bishop of Winchester, he consents at length to a separation.

860. On the death of Ethelbald, after little more than two years, Ethelbert, the survivor, assumes the entire sovereignty.

He governs wisely, but is engaged in almost incessant contests with the Danes, who pillage Winchester, but are repulsed by the Ealdormen Osecio and Ethelwolf.

**Obervations.**

After her separation from Ethelbald, Judith retired to the French court, where she became the wife of Baldwin, Forester of France, who was afterwards made Count of Flanders, (A.D. 862).

One of the unhappy results of the inroads of the Danes was the destruction of many of the monasteries, which, as we learn by the narrative of Bede, had been, during the period of the Octarchy, the chief instruments in the diffusion of civilization and the knowledge of arts and letters as well as of religion. To the larger monasteries, as well as to the Cathedrals, schools were attached, in which were taught gratuitously all the branches of knowledge studied at the time. Libraries also were collected in them, surprising us, when we consider the disadvantages under which they were formed, with the number of their volumes. The portion of an old catalogue of the library of Ramsey, which has been preserved, though only a fragment, contains the titles of more than 1100 books. In the preface to one of his writings, Alfred says,—"I saw, before all were spilt and burned, how the churches throughout Britain were filled with treasures and books."

To the monastic bodies we owe the preservation of the literature of antiquity. Many of their members were employed in the transcription of the works of ancient authors, as well as of numerous copies of the Bible,—the latter of which were often beautifully illuminated, and covered with bindings of the richest description. The art of agriculture was, at the same time, preserved by them. Settling generally in waste lands, they brought the surrounding districts into a state of cultivation. The following cities are built on what had once been absolute solitudes around the monasteries which gave them birth,—Durham, Peterborough, Ely, Crowland, and Amehurth. From the universal respect in which they were held, the monastic institutions had always been spared by the Saxons in their internal commotions. Many of their inmates, however, were murdered by the Danes, or obliged to save their lives by flight, so that, on the accession of Alfred, but few learned men could be found in a country, which, a century or two before, had produced such eminent scholars as Bede, Aldehelm, Benedict Biscop, Archbishop Egbert, and Alcuin.

**Reign 2 Years.**

**Contemporary Events.**

**Kings of Scotland.**

Kenneth II. . . . died A.D. 860
Donald II. . . . . 864
Constantine II.

**KING OF FRANCE.**

Charles II. (the Bald).

**EMPEROR OF THE WEST.**

Louis II.

The Duchy of France, comprised between the Seine and the Loire, conferred by Charles the Bald on Robert le Fort, ancestor of Hugh Capet, on condition of his defending it against the Normans, (860).

Garcia Ximines, first King of Navarre, (860).

Pannonia, (Hungary,) after being traversed by the Goths, Avars, and other tribes, is occupied by the Ungri, (862), who are joined by the Magyars, (889).

Ruric the Northman, (or Varangian,) founds Novgorod, and becomes the first Duke of Russia, (862).

**Names of Note.**

Swithin, Bishop . . . . died A.D. 861
Asgar, Archbishop . . . . 865
4. ETHELRED I.

Principal Events.
The son of Ethelwulf, succeeds to the throne on the death of his brother, in accordance with his father's will.

In consequence of the inroads of the Danes, he is unable to repress the disturbances caused by the rivalry of two chieftains, Oesbert and Aella, for the province of Northumbria.

866. The Danes, under Hingmar and Hubba, after wintering in East Anglia, cross the Humber, reduce York, (867), and, marching south of the Tyne, massacre the inhabitants of the monasteries of Lindsey, Croxland, Modelshamstead (Peterborough) and Ely.

870. The Danes re-enter East Anglia, and occupy Thetford.

871. Ethelred, after defeating the Danes at Assendon, is mortally wounded in battle at Merton in Berkshire.

Observations.
Ethelred is said to have employed his brother Alfred as his principal adviser in the government of the country and in the command of his army. On his death, he left rather the name of a king than the real possession of a kingdom to Alfred.

About this time we find the term "Earl," borrowed from the Danish "Yarl," substituted for the Saxon "Ealdorman." This title, however, appears at first to have been given only to the Etheling, or prince of the blood, heir to the crown.

The motive for the invasion of England during this reign by Hingmar and Hubba was, probably, revenge for the death of their ancestor, Ragnar Lodbrok, a powerful Danish chieftain, who, towards the close of the eighth century, had invaded Northumbria, and pillaged the monastery of Lindisfarne. On his capture by the Northumbrians, Lodbrok had been stung to death by serpents. (A.D. 794). The "Death Song" attributed to him on this occasion was long popular among his countrymen, and is still preserved among the ballad literature of the North.

During the invasion of East Anglia, Edmund, the tributary king of the province, was defeated and made prisoner by the Danes. An offer was made that his life should be spared, on condition of his renouncing Christianity, and holding East Anglia under the conquerors. The constancy with which he suffered death rather than access to this proposal, led to his being regarded as a martyr. The place of burial of this prince has since been known as St. Edmund's Bury.

Contemporary Events.
King of Scotland.
Constantine II.

KING OF FRANCE.
Charles II. (the Bald).

EMPEROR OF THE WEST.
Louis II.

Separation of the Greek from the Latin Church, by Photius, Patriarch of Constantinople, under the Emperor Basil the Macedonian, (867).

Boon, brother-in-law of Charles the Bald, founds the kingdom of Aries or Provence, called Burgundy Cisjurane, (869).
5. ALFRED

Principal Events.
Succeeds to the throne, at the age of twenty-two.

He is defeated at Wilton by the Danes, from whom, after numerous encounters, he purchases terms of peace.

878. He is forced by Guthrum, a Danish leader, to retire to Athelney, in Somersetshire, the only county which remains faithful to him.

After an interval of some months he defeats the Danes at Ethandune, treating them with generosity, and ceding to Guthrum, who embraced Christianity, a portion of East Anglia,—hence called the Danelagh.

880—893. He enjoys several years of peace, during which he restores order to the state, strengthens the defences of his country, repairs London and other cities which had been burnt by the Danes, and attends to the administration of justice.

893. The Danes, after having ravaged the Continent for several years, return under Hastings, a celebrated Northern leader, and fortify Milton in Kent.

894—97. Alfred successively defeats the Danes at Farnham and Bemfleck, at Exeter, and off the Isle of Wight, and finally puts a stop to their incursions.

Contemporary Events.

KINGS OF SCOTLAND.

Constantine II. ... died A.D. 879
Etb. ... ... ... ... ... ... ... 874
Gregory ... ... ... ... ... ... 893
Donald III.

KINGS OF FRANCE.

Charles II. (the Bald) died A.D. 877
Louis II. (the Stammerer) ... 879
Louis III. and Carloman ... 884
Charles (the Fat). ... ... ... 887
Eudes ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... 896
Charle III. (the Simple).

EMPERORS OF THE WEST.

Louis II. ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... 876
Charles (the Bald) ... ... ... 877
Carloman ... ... ... ... ... ... ... 880
Charles (the Fat). ... ... ... 887
Interregnum for 70 years.

Harald Harfager unites the provinces of Norway, and conquers the Orkneys, Shetland, and the Hebrides, (876.)

Feudal tenures are made hereditary by Charles the Bald, at the Diet of Kiessy, (877.)

Paris is valiantly defended against the Northmen by Eudes and Bishop Goselin, (886.)

Final separation of Germany and Italy from France on the death of Charles le Gros, the last descendant of Charlemagne, who bore the title of Emperor of the West. Arnold, son of Carloman, is elected King of Germany, (887.)

Foundation by Rudolf I. of the kingdom of Burgundy Transjurana, comprising Switzerland, (888.)

Bohemia is first organised by its Duke Borivoi, who embraces Christianity, (894.)

NAME OF NOTE.

Boscor of Bremen, Theologian died A.D. 882
John Saurus Erigens, Philosopher ... 883

6. EDWARD I

Principal Events.
The eldest son of Alfred, is the first who exchanges the title of King of the West Saxons for that of King of the English.

905. He is opposed by his cousin Ethelwald, son of Ethelbald, the elder brother of Alfred, who, aided by the Northumbrian Danes, disputes with him the succession to the crown, but is defeated and killed in battle near Bury.

910. Successful over the Danes at Wodenfield, in Staffordshire, Edward forces them to become tributary to him.

924. He receives the homage of Constantine of Scotland, and of Leofin or Llewellyn of Wales.

He carries on with vigour the plans of his father for the defence of the country, and, after a prosperous reign, leaves the kingdom to Athelstan, his son by Egwine, a shepherd's daughter.

Observations.

At this time the power of the kings of the West Saxons may be said to have been fully established over the other states of the Octarchy.

Edward was much aided in the government by his brother Ethelfrith, who was remarkable for his talents, and who received the title of "Lady," or tributary queen of the Mercians.

The vigorous measures adopted by Alfred and his immediate successors checked the incursions of the Danes, till they were renewed with success under Sweyn, in the reign of Ethelred.

Another cause, probably, of the respite of England from the ravages of the North-men, was their invasion, about this time, of the coast of France. After a fruitless resistance, Charles the Simple, the reigning king of that country, ceded to their leader, Rollo, the province which has since received the name of Normandy. Rollo, who was led to embrace Christianity by the teaching of the Bishop of Rouen, obtained in marriage Gisla, the daughter of Charles. The succession of the Duke of Normandy to the time of the Conquest was as follows:

1. Rollo . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . A.D. 911—A.D. 917
2. William . . . . . . . . . . . . . . " 943
3. Richard I . . . . . . . . . . . . . . " 996
4. Richard II . . . . . . . . . . . . . " 1016
5. Richard III . . . . . . . . . . . . . " 1028
6. Robert . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . " 1035
7. William (the Conqueror)

It may be added, that the valour shown at a later period by a few Norman pilgrims, in repelling the attack of Saracen pirates upon Salerno, (A.D. 1016), led to a successful attempt on the part of some of their countrymen to obtain a settlement in Italy, and to effect the conquest of Sicily, which was, for some time, governed by Norman princes.

To complete the sketch of the settlements effected by the North-men, we may here mention that, already, another band of these adventurers, under the name of Varangier, (Sea-rovers,) or Varangians, had settled in Russia, where their chief, Ruric, founded a state, out of which has arisen the Russian monarchy.

The ancient historians used indifferently the titles of Duke, Count, and Earl.

7. ATHELSTAN.

ACCESSION A.D. 925.  
DEATH . . . 941.  
REIGN 16 YEARS.

Principal Events.

Sucesses his father at the age of thirty, and is crowned at Kingston by Athelme, Archbishop of Canterbury.

He suppresses a revolt caused by one of the nobles, named Alfred.

926. He gives his sister Edith in marriage to Sithric, a Danish leader, with part of Northumbria, which on the death of Sithric soon afterwards he resumes.

The Northumbrian Danes, aided by Anlaf of Ireland, and Constantine of Scotland, throw off their allegiance to Athelstan.

934. He reduces to submission, Voel, or Howel of Wales, who becomes tributary to the English crown.

937. Athelstan defeats the confederate Northumbrians, Scots, Irish and Cumbrians, in a great battle at Brunanburh.

He assists, in his efforts to obtain the crown of Norway, Haco, one of the first princes who introduced Christianity into that country.

Observations.

Athelstan promoted the welfare of his country both by his skill in war, and by his laws, which are still extant.

In the battle of Brunanburh,—long celebrated in Saxon poetry,—the life of Athelstan was at one time in great danger. Adopting a stratagem frequently ascribed, though upon too slight evidence, to Alfred, the Danish chief before the battle visited the English camp, disguised as a minstrel. He learned the position of the royal tent. But he was not unobserved. A Saxon soldier, who had at one time been in the service of the Danes, recognised him; but, as he had once sworn fealty to Anlaf, he would not disclose the circumstance, till his former chief had reached a place of safety. He then went to Athelstan, and counselled him to remove his tent. The advice was followed. Another tent was before evening raised upon the spot thus left vacant, and, when the attack of the Danes commenced in the following night, its occupants were surprised and slain.

Such was the renown gained by Athelstan by the victory at Brunanburh, that four continental princes formed alliances with his sisters. These princes were the Emperor Otho of Germany, Charles the Simple of France, Louis of Aquitaine, and Hugh the Great, Count of Paris, ancestor of the Capetian line of French kings. With one exception, history records the uniform kindness shown by Athelstan to his younger brothers and sisters. It is stated by a Norman writer, that, crediting a charge against his brother, Edwin, of having joined in the conspiracy of Alfred, he exposed him in an open boat at sea, but afterwards unceasingly lamented the deed.

Three foreign princes were educated under the care of Athelstan. Of these one was Haco, who succeeded his brother Eric on the throne of Norway, and who is still remembered there as Hako “the Good;” the second was Alan, of Brittany, who, driven into exile by the rising power of the Normans, at length regained his duchy by the aid of Athelstan; while the third was Louis, son of Charles III, the Simple and Edgiva, who was called, from his long residence in England, D’Outremer, (Transmarine). After an exile of fourteen years, Louis was invited by a mission from the states of France to return to his kingdom.

One of the laws of Athelstan bespoke great foresight. To encourage commerce he decreed that a merchant who should make three voyages with a ship and cargo of his own, should gain the rank of a “thane,” or noble. He was also careful in protecting the poor, rendering his estates subject to certain yearly charges for their relief, and for the purchase of the liberty of one criminal, condemned for his offences to slavery.

Athelstan was a promoter of learning, and caused portions of the Scriptures to be translated into Saxon for the benefit of his subjects.

Contemporary Events.

KING OF SCOTLAND.

Constantine III.

KING OF FRANCE.

Charles III. (the Simple) died A.D. 936
Louis IV. (Transmarine).

Alan of Brittany recovers his Duchy from the Normans, (931).

The kingdom of Arles, or Provence, ceded by Hugh to Rodolph II. of Burgundy Transjurana, who thus unites the two Burgundias, (932).

Rise of the republic of Pisa.

Louis, surnamed D’Outremer, son of Charles the Simple, is recalled from England to the throne of France, (936).

Eric, King of Norway, is dethroned for his cruelty, and is succeeded by Hako the Good.
8. EDMUND I.

Principal Events.
Succeeds his brother at the age of nineteen, and is crowned at Kingston.

Rebellion of the Britons of Cumberland, and of the Northumbrian Danes, under Anlaf.

Defeated by Anlaf, Edmund surrenders to him that part of England north of Watling Street.

944. On the death of Anlaf, Edmund regains the sovereignty of Northumbria.

945. Aided by Malcolm of Scotland, he finally subdues the Britons of Cumberland, and confines that province on Malcolm, to be held as a dependency of the English crown.

He removes the Danes from the five burghs—Derby, Leicester, Lincoln, Stamford and Nottingham,—which they had long occupied.

946. Edmund is assassinated by an outlaw.

Observations.
Leof, the assassin of Edmund, had been sentenced to banishment for his crimes. He ventured, however, to enter the royal presence, while the king was celebrating the festival of St. Augustine at Puckle-church, in Gloucestershire. The monarch seized the outlaw, who drew a dagger, and gave Edmund a wound of which he immediately expired.

Like his predecessors, Edmund paid attention to the administration of justice. During his reign a law punishing robbery with death was, for the first time, passed.

Elfgein, the first wife of Edmund, was a princess whose zeal in purchasing the liberty of slaves, and whose other virtues are mentioned with praise by the early historians.

The name of Turketel, grandson of Alfred the Great, who was chancellor under Athelstan, Edmund, and Edred, deserves mention. Though in orders, he refused preferment in the Church. When, as chancellor, he accompanied the troops to battle, he would make use of arms, in obedience to the canons which regulated the conduct of the clergy; though it was considered that an exception was allowed in the case of a war to protect the country against pagan invaders. Obtaining, at length, permission to retire from court, he gave up most of his property to his family, and entered the monastery of Croyland, which he rebuilt after its destruction by the Danes, and where he spent twenty-seven years in the instruction of youth and in acts of piety.

It is necessary for the student to remember that there were at this time several chieftains of the name of Anlaf. Besides Anlaf of Ireland, or, as his name is written by Danish historians, Olave, we meet with the names of Anlaf, the son of Sithric, and Anlaf Cwirin.

9. EDRED.

Principal Events.
The brother of Edmund is called to the throne, in preference to the infant son of the late king, in accordance with the practice of the Saxons.

He entrusts the government mainly to Turketel, his chancellor, and to Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury.

947. He marches an army into Scotland, and receives the oath of submission of the king of that country.

948. He is victorious over the Northumbrians, who had chosen as their prince Eric, the son of the Danish king, Harold.

He meets with the discontent of his nephew, Edwin, who aspires to the crown.

Observations.
Edred died from a disease under which he had suffered from an early age. Though weak in body, he showed vigour and decision of mind.

The Northumbrian rulers had been hitherto allowed to bear the royal title. Edred deprived them of this privilege, and reduced the province to an earldom, which was given to a chieftain named Osmund.

Dunstan, who was of royal descent, was born in Wessex, near Glastonbury. He entered the school of the Abbey at an early age, where he became remarkable for his talents and learning. On his introduction to Athelstan by his uncle, Ethelred, Archbishop of Canterbury, Dunstan soon acquired the favour of that prince. His advancement, however, excited so much jealousy on the part of some members of the court, that he was accused of practising magical arts. He retired, in consequence, to the solitude of a small monastic cell. In this retreat, which was large enough to hold a forge and other implements of handicraft, he employed his time in workmanship in metals, in transcribing books of learning and devotion, and in the arts of engraving, painting and illuminating. We still possess in the Bodleian library at Oxford, some of the works copied by his hand. The fame of his acquirements becoming known to Edmund, Dunstan was invited by that prince to leave his retirement. Notwithstanding his youth,—he was still not more than twenty years of age,—he was appointed Abbot of Glastonbury, which, under his care, soon regained its early reputation. The influence acquired by him at this time did not terminate with the death of Edmund, but was preserved during the reign of Edred. The history of Dunstan after this period will be found detailed in subsequent reigns.

Contemporary Events.
KINGS OF SCOTLAND.
Malcolm I. . . . died A.D. 954
Lothair.

KINGS OF FRANCE.
Louis IV. (D'Outremer) died A.D. 954
Lothaire.

Hako the Good is slain by Eric's son, Harold, who becomes King of Norway, (960).
10. EDWY OR EDWIN.

Principal Events.
The eldest son of Edmund I., succeeds his uncle Edred, at the age of sixteen.

He banishes Dunstan, and the advisers of his late uncle.

957. He marries Elfgrave, from whom he is separated by Archbishop Odo, on account of nearness of blood.

958. Revolt of the Mercians and Northumbrians, who choose Edgar as king.—Edwy retaining only Wessex.

Observations.
After a short exile in Ireland, whether she was banished by the orders of Archbishop Odo, Elfgrave rejoined Edwy. The young king was pursued by some of his discontented subjects, and fell into their power at Gloucester. The subsequent history of this reign is somewhat obscure. All that we know for certain is, that Edwy did not long survive the division of the kingdom.

The death of Elfgrave is generally attributed to a cruel punishment, which is said to have been inflicted by the orders of Odo. As the Saxon canons forbade the clergy to pass any sentence of blood, there is reason to doubt the correctness of a statement which is not mentioned by any contemporary writer. The conduct of Edwy, especially his cruelty to his grandmother, led to such discontent on the part of his subjects, that he was forced to resign part of his kingdom to his brother. It is probable, therefore, that the death of Elfgrave occurred during a popular outbreak attending these civil commotions.

On a charge of misappropriating the money of the state, Dunstan was forced to leave the kingdom. He fled to Flanders, and took refuge in the monastery of St. Peter at Ghent, escaping with difficulty the pursuit of the messengers of the queen, who, it is said, were commissioned to put out his eyes. His banishment, however, was not of long duration. On the election of Edgar as king by the Witan of Mercia, Dunstan was recalled. A few years later he was promoted to the sees of Worcester and London, and, on the death of Odo, he was raised to the primacy of Canterbury, (A.D. 960).

Married, Elfgrave.

Contemporary Events.

Indulf. KING OF FRANCE.

Lothaire.

Hugh, Count of Paris, is succeeded in his titles and power by his son, Hugh Capet, (986).
11. EDGAR.

**Observations.**

EDGAR was crowned at Bath by the Archbishops Dunstan and Oswald, (A.D. 973). It may be interesting to the reader to give the words of the oath taken by him at his coronation: “In the name of the Holy Trinity, I vow three things to Christian folk, and myself bind thereto. First, that I to God’s church and all Christian folk of my realm, true peace will hold. A second is, that I will forbid robbery, and all unrighteous things, to all estates of men. The third is, that I vow and promise, in all dooms, right and mild-heartedness: so that we all the gracious and mild-hearted God, through His everlasting mildness, may forgive.”

Edgar was never engaged in either foreign or domestic war. He maintained a powerful fleet, by which the coasts of England were secured from invasion. He enforced obedience to the laws, visited the provinces yearly to review the judgments of the magistrates, renewed the coinage and encouraged commerce. His wisdom was shown in the steps taken by him to clear the island of wolves. He substituted for the annual payment of money, which had been imposed by Athelstan upon the Welsh, a tribute of three hundred wolves’ heads.

The reputation which Edgar deservedly gained by his public virtues was sullied by irregularities in his private life. According to the statement of a writer subsequent to the Norman conquest, the circumstances attending his marriage with Ethelred were of a romantic but criminal character. It is said that, on the death of his first wife, Edgar, hearing reports of the beauty of a daughter of the Ealdorman of Devon, sent one of his nobles, named Ethelwold, to see whether fame had exaggerated her charms. Ethelwold, struck with her beauty, fell in love with her. He attempted to deceive the king, and sought permission to obtain her hand himself. Edgar soon learned the truth, and proposed to pay a visit to the house of his courter. Ethelred, while promising her husband to hide, as far as possible, her beauty, sought, on the contrary, by displaying it to the greatest advantage, to gain the affections of the king. Ethelwold was soon afterwards found murdered, and Ethelred became the wife of Edgar.

With Edgar much of the power of the Anglo-Saxon monarchy may be said to have departed.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Married, 1st, ELFLEDA. Issue, EDWARD (the Martyr). Married, 2nd, ELFRIDA. Issue, Edmund, died young. ETHELRED (II).</th>
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**Principal Events.**

The second son of Edmund I., again unites under his rule the whole kingdom.

He raises England to great prosperity, and is called Edgar “the Peaceable.”

971. In an assembly of the Witan, he grants the Lothians to Kenneth of Scotland.

972. He receives at Chester the homage of eight tributary kings from Wales, Scotland, Ireland and the Isles, who row his barge on the river Dee.

975. He leaves two surviving children, Edward, the son of his first wife, and Ethelred, eight years old, by his second wife, Elfride.  

**Contemporary Events.**

**Kings of Scotland.**

Indulf . . . . . . died A.D. 961
Duffus . . . . . . 966
Cullen . . . . . . 970
Kenneth III.

**King of France.**

Lothaire.

**Emperors of Germany.**

Otho (the Great), A.D. 963—973
Otho II.

Conquest of Italy by Otho the Great, who is crowned Emperor of the West by Pope John XII.;—after which the Imperial dignity becomes elective, a perpetual source of contests and wars, (963).

Miscialus, the first Christian Duke of Poland, (964).

The Counts of Castile obtain the recognition of their independence from the King of Leon, (965).

Egypt and Syria are wrested by the Fatimites from the Abbaside Caliphs of Damascus, (968).

The Magyars become settled under Geisa their Count, who embraces Christianity, (973).
12. EDWARD II. (THE MARTYR).

Principal Events.
Is chosen king by the chief Ealdormen, at the age of fifteen, notwithstanding the efforts of Elfride to secure the crown for his younger brother, Ethelred.

He is crowned at Kingston by Archbishop Dunstan.

978. He is murdered by a servant of his step-mother, Elfride, at the manor of Corfe, in Dorsetshire.

Observations.

The reign of Edward was disturbed by contentions among the nobles, and by disputes upon points of ecclesiastical discipline, which the youthful prince was not able to control. The strictness of the early Saxon canons had been relaxed during the period of confusion which followed the invasion of the Danes. One of the chief objects of Archbishop Dunstan was to re-inforce the observance of these canons. The attempt met with resistance. The cause of the opponents of Dunstan was supported by Elfride, who, to further her ambitious designs in favour of her infant son, fomented the dissensions in the nation. In a national synod held at Cane, (a.d. 978), the views of Dunstan, at length, prevailed.

The most turbulent of the Ealdormen during this reign were Alfere of Mercia and Cisac of Northumbria—the latter of whom, on a charge vaguely hinted at by contemporary writers, was, for a time, banished.

The youth and innocence of Edward, which afterwards procured for him the surname of "the Martyr," increased the horror naturally caused by the crime of Elfride. What added to the infamy of her conduct was the uniform kindness with which she was treated by the young king. It was while he was accidentally visiting his step-mother, after having been engaged in the chase near Wareham, and while drinking the stirrup-cup presented to him before dismounting, that he was stabbed in the back. It is satisfactory to know that Elfride showed, at length, penitence for her guilt.

Ethelred was no party to the guilty act of his mother. He is said to have shed tears on hearing of the death of his brother.

Contemporary Events.

KING OF SCOTLAND.
Kenneth III.

KING OF FRANCE.
Lothaire.

EMPEROR OF GERMANY.
Otto III.

Death of Al-Hakam, the Moorish king of Cordova, (977).
13. ETHELRED II.

**Principal Events.**
The son of Edgar by Elfrida, succeeds to the throne, at the age of ten.


985. Treachery of Elfric, the Ealdorman or Earl of Mercia, who is banished.

991. Ethelred endeavours, unsuccessfully, by the payment of the tribute called Dane-gelt, to purchase peace with the Danes.

993. He is defeated by them at sea, through the treachery of Elfric, who, after his former treason, had been restored to favour.

1002. Ethelred marries Emma of Normandy.

He orders a general massacre of the Danes, who subsequently renew their attacks, and ravage East Anglia.

1009. Defeat of the English near Ipswich by Thurkill, who besieges Canterbury.

1013. Ethelred retires to the Isle of Wight, and thence to the court of Normandy, while the English swear allegiance to Sweyn.

On the death of Sweyn, within six weeks, at Gainsborough, Ethelred is recalled by the Witan.

1016. After his return, he renews the tribute to the Danes, and reigns ingloriously during two years.

**Observations.**
From his weakness of character, Ethelred received, at an early age, the surname of the "Unready."

Among the causes which contributed to the misfortunes of this reign, we must mention not only the besightliness of the princes, but the treachery of the English leaders. Edric, who succeeded Elfric in the Earlom of Mercia, imitated the treason of his predecessor. This noble, who had married a daughter of the king, and who retained his power through all the changes of this and the subsequent reign, more than once deserted by his perfidy the plans formed for the defence of his country. It appears to have been by his advice that the cruel policy of a general massacre of the Danes was adopted.

An Anglo-Saxon bishop of the time has left us a graphic picture of the sufferings of the English during this reign. "We constantly," says Wulfstan, "pay our enemies tribute, and they ravage us daily. They spoil, burn, plunder and carry off our property to their ships. Such is their success and bravery, that one of them will put ten of ours to flight. Two or three will drive a troop of captive Christians through the country, from sea to sea. Soldiers, famine, flames and shedding of blood abound on every side. Theft and murder, pestilence and disease, hatred, rapine, and the cruelty of our enemies dreadful afflicts us."

The orders given for the massacre of the Danes, which took place on St. Brice's Day, were but too faithfully executed. Women and infants were killed. Even Gunhilde, the sister of Sweyn, who had married a Saxon noble, and had embraced Christianity, after seeing her husband and son slain in her presence, was put to death by the orders of Edric. As she predicted, these acts of cruelty only increased the desire of her countrymen for revenge.

The see of Canterbury was held during this reign by two distinguished bishops. The first was Alfric, who translated a great part of the Bible into Anglo-Saxon, and whose canons, as throwing light upon the religious customs of our forefathers, are interesting. The name of the successor of Alfric is still more deserving of mention. In his fifty-second year, Alphege, or Elphege, was raised to the primacy, (1006). It was shortly after this, that the Danes aided by the treacherous Edric, besieged Canterbury. Elphege was administering the communion when the city was taken by the treachery of an inhabitant, whose life had, at one time, been spared at the intercession of the prelate. The English besought Elphege to seek safety by flight. He refused, and making his way to the Danish leaders, besought them to spare his countrymen. He was seized and thrown into a dungeon. A sum of money was proposed for his ransom. Upon his refusing to raise it from the English, the Danes, with cries of "Gold! gold!" killed him with their battle axes.

14. EDMUND II. (IRONSIDE.)

Accession A.D. 1016
Death . . . 1016

Reign 7 Months.

Principal Events.
Fordis his succession to the crown contested by Canute, the son of Sweyn, who besieges London.

An indecisive battle at Scarston, in Gloucestershire, is fought between Edmund and Canute.

London is relieved by Edmund.

He is defeated by Canute at Assingdon, in Essex, through the treachery of his brother-in-law, Edric.

He agrees, by the advice of the Witan, to share England with Canute;—Edmund keeping Wessex, and Canute Mercia and the north.

Observations.

The reign of this prince lasted only seven months, during which time he fought nine battles. The circumstances of his death are somewhat obscure, but it appears to have been assassinated by Edric of Mercia. All that the Saxon Chronicle says is, that he died on the feast of St. Andrew.

The tribute paid to the Danes, called Danegelt, was raised by a tax upon land. The extent to which this impost was levied, is an indication of the wealth which England had reached during Saxon times. The rate at which the tax was originally fixed was a shilling for each hide of land. As England was divided into about 274,950 hides, the produce of the tax would be above 12,000 pounds. But this rate was afterwards raised to four or even six times the amount. In one year of the reign of Ethelred, (A.D. 1007), we are told that the Danes obtained a payment of 30,000 pounds, and in the year 1010, the tribute amounted to not less than 48,000 pounds. Each pound was then equal in weight to about three pounds of our present currency. But its intrinsic worth affords no measure of its real value in those times. It has been estimated, that, considering the greater amount of money at the present day, every sum mentioned in those times should be multiplied fifty-fold to give an idea of its real value. The Normans, who, a few years later, accompanied William to England, were astonished at the wealth which it possessed.

The biographer of the Conqueror tells us, that the revenue of William took with them, on their return to Normandy, more gold and silver than had ever before been seen in Gaul.

We may here add, that the only other burdens to which land in England was subject in Saxon times were those known as the Tinola Necessitas,—namely, the Brycg-bote, the tax for the maintenance of bridges and highways; the Buhr-bote, that for the repair of walls and fortresses; and the Fyrd, or the liability to military service.


Contemporary Events.

KING OF SCOTLAND.
Malcolm II.

KING OF FRANCE.
Robert (the Pious).

EMPEROR OF GERMANY.
Henry II.

Stephen the Pious gives the first code of laws to Hungary, (1016).
15. CANUTE.

Principal Events.
Obtains, with the consent of the Witan, the entire sovereignty of England, at the age of twenty.

He outlawed the descendants of Ethelred, divides the kingdom into four provinces, and levies heavy tribute upon the English.

1018. He marries Emma, the widow of Ethelred.

1019—1020. On the death of his brother, Harold, he visits Denmark, to the crown of which kingdom he succeeds.

1025. He reduces to submission the Swedes and the Wendes of Northern Germany, by the aid of a large body of English troops, under the command of Godwin, on whom he bestows in marriage Githa, sister of Ulf-Jarl, his brother-in-law.

1028. He again visits Denmark, and gains the crown of Norway.

1031. He visits Rome.

1032. He enforces allegiance from Malcolm of Scotland for Cumberland.

1036. He leaves the crown of England to Harold, that of Denmark to Hardicanute, and that of Norway to Sweyn.

Observations.

The murder of Edwy, the brother of Edmund Ironside, casts a stain on the early history of Canute's reign. The children of Edmund Ironside were conveyed by him into exile at the court of his ally and vassal, Olave of Sweden. The latter prince sent them to Stephen, the pious King of Hungary, by whom they were treated with honour. Here Edward, the eldest son, known as Edward the Outlaw, was married to a daughter of the Emperor Henry II. The fruits of this marriage were Edgar the Etheling and two daughters, Margaret and Christina, the former of whom became the wife of Malcolm of Scotland. Through her the rights of the house of Cerdic were transmitted, after the Conquest, to the Norman line.

At first cruel and tyrannical, Canute, after embracing Christianity, relaxed the severity of his government, and often lamented the suffering which he had caused during his youth. He restored the Saxon laws in an assembly of the Witan; and treated the English with justice and impartiality.

In 1031, Canute undertook a journey to Rome, where he obtained from foreign princes promises of greater security for English travellers to that city. An eye-witness gives an interesting account of his conduct during this journey. "Entering the religious houses," says the monk who records it, "he walked humbly, his eyes, filled with tears, fixed on the ground. When the moment came for presenting his gifts, what sighs, what prayers, that he might not be found unworthy of the mercy of the Most High. No altar did he pass without placing alms upon it. Then came the poor, and were all severally relieved."

During this journey, Canute addressed a letter to his subjects. This letter, in which he reviews his past conduct with feelings of regret, speaks well for the motives by which he was then guided:—"Be it known to all that I have vowed to Almighty God to govern my life henceforward by right, to rule my kingdom and people with equity, and piously to observe equal judgment everywhere. And, if, through the errors of my youth, I have done what was not just, I will endeavour hereafter, by God's help, entirely to amend it.

By his wise government, Canute did much to re-establish order in England. He redressed many abuses, rebuilt and endowed the abbeys of St. Edmunds Bury, and of St. Bennett in the Holme,—and constructed the causeway, called the "King's Delf," between Peterborough and Ramsey.

16. HAROLD I. (HAREFOOT).

Principal Events.
The son of Canute by his first wife, succeeds to the throne, in accordance with his father's will.

He is forced by the English to cede Wessex to his brother, Hardicanute, absent at the time in Denmark.

1037. Alfred the Etheling, who lands at Sandwich, is seized and put to death.

Observations.
The succession of Harold to the throne was contrary to the promise which Canute had made to the English, that his sons by Emma should succeed him. Canute was, perhaps, influenced by the consideration of the welfare of the country, as Hardicanute was but seventeen years of age, and was absent at the time of his father's death in Denmark.

The Archbishop of Canterbury, Eginoth, refused to place the crown on the head of Harold, but laid it upon the altar. His words were, “I will neither give it to thee, nor prevent thee from taking it; but I will not bless thee, nor shall any bishop hallow thee on the throne.”

Edward and Alfred, the sons of Ethelred, had been, on the death of that prince, conveyed by Emma to the court of Normandy. Immediately on the death of Canute, Edward had sailed for the port of Southampton, but, finding the inhabitants hostile, had returned to his former asylum. An invitation was now sent to the young princes to visit their mother, who governed at Winchester for her son Hardicanute, during his absence in Denmark. Alfred, who landed with a few Norman followers, was treacherously seized by the orders of Harold, and was conducted to Guildford, where his companions were murdered, and he was subjected to such cruel treatment that he died in the course of a few days at Ely. Suspicion generally rested on Godwin as the murderer of Alfred, and on the accession of Hardicanute, he was openly accused of the crime. Godwin, however, reinstated himself in the favour of the new king by the gift of a vessel, fitted out with all the splendour which the age could command. The chief Thanes acquitted him of any guilt in connection with the death of Alfred; the orders of Harold being, probably, thought sufficient to justify his conduct.
17. HARDICANUTE.  

**Principal Events.**

Returning to England from Denmark, is acknowledged king without opposition.

He receives at court his half-brother, Edward.

At the instigation of his mother, Emma, he takes steps against Godwin, accused of having taken part in the murder of Alfred the Etheling.

Godwin is restored to favour.

1041. The collection of heavy Dane-gelds by military force is followed by insurrections, for which Worcestershire is laid waste by the orders of Hardicanute.

**Observations.**

Hardicanute, at the time of his death, was attending the marriage feast of a Danish chieftain, named “Tovis the Proud,” the royal standard bearer. In the midst of the rejoicings, the king fell speechless to the ground, and soon afterwards died.

Godwin, Earl of Wessex, whose name occupies so important a space in the reigns preceding the Conquest, was the son of Wulfnoth, known in history as “the Child of Sussex.” Godwin is said, at an early age, to have served among the enemies of his country. His fidelity to its cause was, at least, doubtful as far back as the reign of Ethelred, when he betrayed an important military trust to the Danes. By his alliance with the family of Canute his power was increased, and, during the reigns of the successors of Canute, all the south of England, from Norfolk to Cornwall, was, at one time, under the government of Godwin and his sons.

The only other earldoms in England, which could be compared in extent or importance with those possessed by the family of Godwin, were the earldoms of Mercia and Northumbria. The former was held by Leofric, who was ultimately succeeded in his honours by his son Algar: the latter by Siward, afterwards famous as the conqueror of Macbeth, and whose son, Waltheof, was the last of the Saxons who held any power in England after the Conquest.

The title “Earl,” which had been substituted for that of “Ealdorman,” and which must not be confounded with the Saxon term “Eorl,” was not merely a name of honour. It implied the government of the district from which the title was taken. Among the other privileges possessed by those who held this office was the right to a third of all the fines levied in the province:—hence they were sometimes called “Earls of the third penny.”

**Contemporary Events.**

**Kings of Scotland.**

Duncan . . . died A.D. 1039

Macbeth.

**King of France.**

Henry I.

**Emperor of Germany.**

Henry III.

Duncan, King of Scotland, is defeated and slain by Macbeth, (1039).
18. EDWARD III.

Principal Events.
Is led to accept the crown by the influence of Godwin, whose daughter, Editha, he espouses.

1048. Disaffection of Godwin, who is banished by the Witan.

1051. Edward receives William of Normandy at his court.

He abolishes the tax of the Dane-gelt.

1052. An invasion of England by Godwin and his sons is followed by negotiations, by which they are restored to their honours.

1053. Death of Godwin, who is succeeded in the Earldom of Wessex by his son, Harold.

1054. Edward supports the cause of Malcolm, the son of Duncan, against Malbeth or Macbeth, the usurper of the crown of Scotland, who is defeated by Siward of Northumbria, and falls in battle at Dunseinane.

Edward collects and digests the laws of his predecessors, and pays attention to the diminution of the burdens of his people.

1057. He recalls from Hungary, Edward, son of his half-brother, Edmund Ironside, who dies soon after, leaving one son, the sole male survivor of the early Saxon line.

1063. Harold and Tostig subdue the Welsh, whose prince, Griffiths, is slain.

By his accession, Edward restored the Saxon line. The mildness of his character soon reconciled the Danes in England to his rule, and the distinction between the two races gradually disappeared.

The discontent caused by the favours shown during this reign to the French soon broke out into open revolt on the part of Godwin. A quarrel had taken place between the inhabitants of Dover and Eustace, Count of Boulogne, the brother-in-law of Edward. Godwin took the part of the townpeople, and, arming his followers, threatened the safety of the king. Leofric of Mercia and Siward of Northumbria marched to the support of Edward, and Godwin was exiled by the Witan. He retired to Flanders, whence, after three years, he returned with a powerful fleet, and, sailing up the Thames, threatened London. The demands of Godwin were, at length, conceded by Edward. The foreigners were outlawed, and the aged earl and his sons were restored to their dignities,—an event, however, which Godwin did not long survive.

To enforce justice and to lessen the burdens of his subjects, were the chief objects of the government of Edward. So deeply were the people impressed with the justice and mildness of his judgments, that the promise to observe “the laws of good King Edward” was added, for centuries, to the coronation oath of his successors. Forced to give up the idea of a visit to Rome, Edward set apart a tenth part of his revenue for pious uses, and rebuilt from its foundation the ancient Abbey of Westminster.

He was the first English prince by whom the impression of a seal was employed in signifying his assent to royal charters,—a custom which was borrowed by him from the Frankish kings. The design of the seal, however, is lost; the original of which is still to be seen in the British Museum,—seems rather to have been copied from that employed on the coins of the Greek emperors.

The use of the surname “the Confessor,” by which Edward is known in history, is to be traced to the application to him of this term in the Bull of Canonisation, issued by Pope Alexander III.

“The fair rose” as Edith, the wife of Edward, was called by the chroniclers, was known personally to Ingulphus, the well-known monk of Croyland. Having told us, that, to attain to learning, he was put to Westminster School, Ingulphus adds, “I have seen her often, when, being but a boy, I came to see my father, dwelling in the king’s court, and often coming from school, when I met the queen, she would oppose me touching my learning, and falling from grammar to logic, she would subtly conclude an argument with me, and by her handmaid she would give me three or four pieces of money, and send me into the palace to receive some victuals.”

Married, Editha.
19. HAROLD II.

Principal Events.
The second son of Earl Godwin, is crowned at Winchester, by Stigand, Archbishop of Canterbury, (7th Jan.)

He marches northward to oppose the invasion of his brother Tostig, the exiled Earl of Northumbria, and of Hardrada of Norway, over whom he is victorious, near Stamford Bridge on the Derwent, (25th Sept.)


Battle of Hastings, in which Harold is defeated and slain, (14th Oct.)

An assembly of the Witan recognises the rights of Edgar the Etheling, which, within three months, he resigns to William.

Observations.
On the death of Edward, Harold prevailed on the Witan, which assembled at Westminster, to sanction his assumption of the crown. Some portions of the Anglo-Saxondominions, however, seem never to have recognised his authority.

Harold had already made himself popular by two of his acts:—by his conquest of the Welsh; and by his conduct in Northumbria, when sent to quell an insurrection caused by the cruelty of his brother, Tostig. By his advice, Tostig had been deprived by Edward of the government, which had been conferred on Morcar, the son of Algar. Tostig retired to the court of Baldwin of Flanders, one of whose daughters he had married, while the Conqueror was wedded to another.

The battle at Stamford Bridge was one of the most severe recorded in our history. The son of Hardrada, (Olave III.), with the Norwegian fleet, fell into the power of Harold, who generously allowed Olave to depart with twenty of his vessels.

The account of the transactions between Edward, Harold and William is so differently told by Norman and Saxon writers, that few questions in our history are involved in greater uncertainty. There was no male descendant of the Saxon line but Edgar Etheling, and he, from his immature age, was passed over at the time by Saxons and Danes alike. Whatever might be the rights of the Conqueror as against him, William could scarcely have doubted the justice of his claims as regards Harold. If Harold was a Saxon, he was undoubtedly not of the royal race. If William was a stranger, so had been Canute and his two successors. The Duke had been the close ally of the Confessor; from Normandy Edward had received timely aid; and it can scarcely be doubted that he had expressed his belief that his cousin, William, would be his fittest successor.

William, with a numerous army, landed at Pevensey. News of his arrival was brought to Harold by a Thane of Sussex, on the morrow after the battle with Tostig. Harold marched southward, and, on the evening of the 13th of October, he arrived in sight of the enemy on the field of Senlac, five miles from Hastings. At dawn on the following day, the two armies met in conflict. Notwithstanding his recent losses, Harold appeared, at first, to have the advantage, and it was only by a feigned retreat on the part of some Norman horsemen, that the Saxon lines were thrown into confusion. Still the victory was doubtful, till Harold fell, pierced by an arrow in the eye. Gurth and Leofwine, his brothers, had already perished, and, though a gallant resistance was made by the men of Kent and the East Saxons, before sunset the Norman standard was planted in the place of the English banner. On this spot Battle-Abbey now stands. William did not at once proceed to London, but marched to Wallingford, in Berkshire, where he crossed the Thames. Meanwhile the Witan, which had assembled in London, proclaimed Edgar Etheling as king. Dissension prevailed, however, among its members, and before long the chief of the nobles and clergy offered the crown to William.

REMARKS ON THE ANGLO-SAXON LINE.

GOVERNMENT. Each Saxon tribe was governed by a Chief, who bore the title of "Cynegyl," or King. Although the chiefs were, in general, chosen from the same family, the right of succession was not strictly observed, but was controlled by the principle of election. Like all the tribes of Teutonic origin, the system of government of the Anglo-Saxons had in it many of the elements of freedom. This system is well illustrated in the description given by Tacitus of their forebears:—"In matters of less importance, the nobles among them consult; in matters of greater moment, all are called upon to give judgment." One important feature has, however, to be noticed, as distinguishing the establishment of the Saxons in England from the settlement of kindred tribes in other parts of the West of Europe, which had been subject to the old Roman empire. In the latter case, the victorious tribes, though politically the conquerors, were influenced, to a great extent, by the civilisation and customs of the conquered races; while, in England, on the contrary, the invader, owing to the almost entire disappearance of the native inhabitants, retained the original character of their institutions unchanged. The Great Council of the Anglo-Saxons had in it the outlines of a more perfect government. In this council, called the "Witena-gemote,"* or the "Meeting of the Wise Men," all matters of importance were settled. Without its assent no new law could be made; the question of peace or war lay with it, and, on the death of the king, even the choice of a successor. After the introduction of Christianity, its chief members were the Bishops and Ealdormen, or high officers of the country, and the greater Thanes, or nobles. It is proper to add, that, after the union of the other Saxon kingdoms with Wessex, in the reign of Egbert, each of the subject provinces still retained its separate Witena,—the assent of which was necessary to give legal effect within the provinces to the laws enacted by the legisla
tion of the paramount state. Thus the laws of Edgar were not received in Mercia till the time of Canute.

COURTS. The constitution of the courts of justice, marked as it was by local independence, was well fitted to secure the rights of the people. Each shire or county was divided into townships and hundreds. The township, the lowest political division of land, contained the land of the lord, and some common pastures for general use. To the township, or "Soke," was attached a court, in which causes could be tried, and which, from its being held in the hall of the lord, was called the Hall-Moot; an institution perpetuated in the manorial courts after the conquest. A larger division of land was the Hundred, to which, also, a court was attached, which was held every month. This court was composed of the Ealdorman, or chief officer of the hundred, the Thanes, or land-owners whose property lay within its jurisdiction, and the Gereese, or Reeve, with four assistants from each of its townships. The jurisdiction of this court was more extensive. Here, also, to secure publicity to the transactions, contracts for sales were made, wills were proved, slaves were freed, and charters were published. Besides these courts, a general County, or Shire-moot was held twice a year, under the presidency of the Ealdorman and Bishop, with the Shire-Reeve, (or Sheriff) where all the freemen of the shire, with the representatives of the

hundreds, were admitted. Here important matters were settled, and the laws which had been made by the Great Council, were received and published. Finally, an appeal lay to the Great Council, or Witena-Gemote, sometimes called the "Miceal-Gothas." (Great Thoug
ht,) the highest tribunal of the country, and which was held regularly at Christmas, Easter, and Whitewin
tide.

LAWS. The Saxon laws were mild, the punishment of death being scarcely known. Most offences were punished with a fine, or "Wit." Even the penalty for murder, if the victim were the king, was, till the time of Alfred, a fine, called the "Wera-gold" or "Wera," which was levied according to the rank of the individual killed. The "Wera" of the king was, by the law of Mercia, six times as much as that of a noble, and that of a noble six times as much as a serf's. If the fine were not paid, the right of punishment was considered to devolve on the relations of the slain. Several laws were passed to lessen the evils arising from this system,—the most objectionable feature, perhaps, of the Anglo-Saxon mode of criminal procedure. The object of all these enactments was to give time for the passions to cool, and for a reconciliation to be effected. In no case could the pursuer of a criminal proceed at once to take revenge. If the accused surrendered, he was to be kept unhurt for thirty days, while he could find sureties to pay the fine. Or he might flee to one of the asylums provided by the laws. The palace of a king or archbishop protected him for nine days, a church, or the house of an ealdorman, or bishop, for seven days. The "Pat Regia," or "King's Peace," was another institution, which secured those to whom it was extended, from the pursuit of their enemies. It embraced all within four miles of the place where the king might reside. For eight days after his coronation, as well as during the three great festivals at which he held his court, it extended over the whole kingdom. It was also enjoyed at all times by women, travellers, and merchants. Besides this, the Church had assigned certain seasons of the year to an observance of religious feasts, during which all strife was strictly forbidden. Only what remained of the year was disposed of in this manner, (and it was but a trifling portion of it,) was allowed for the punishment of offenders. On every Sunday and Holy-day, and during Advent and Lent, feuds were suspended. On these days, consecrated to the service of God, the hostile might meet in safety. That such an institution, one of the most humane on record in the state of society which then existed, would often lead to the permanent reconciliation of the contending parties, is undoubted.

A regulation connected with the administration of justice, known as that of "Frank-pledge," existed in later Saxon times. The individual, whose wealth or position was not considered to afford sufficient guarantee for his good conduct, was bound to provide a surety, or boke. For this purpose the hundreds were sub-divided into associations of not less than ten families, called 22"Nh"enge. Every man who was obliged to provide the "boke" was enrolled in some tithing, the members of which were mutually responsible for the conduct of each other. If a tithing-man committed a crime, the other members of the tithing were bound to give up the offender to justice, or to pay the fine to which the crime rendered him liable. On this account the tithing was sometimes called a Frith-boke;—or
REMARKS ON THE ANGLO-SAXON LINE—(CONTINUED).

a “security for the peace,”—a term, which being corrupt into fribery, was afterwards translated by the Normans, “Frank-pledge.”

The most frequent method of trial was by “Compurgation.” The accused might clear himself by his own oath together with the oaths of a certain number of witnesses, summoned from the neighbourhood, who swore to their belief in his innocence, and who were called Compurgators. If, however, in consequence of former crimes, he was considered unworthy of credit, or if he could not find compurgators, recours was had to the trial by ordeal. The forms of ordeal most frequently employed were those by hot water and by fire. In the former case, the arm of the accused was plunged into boiling water;—in the latter, he was to carry a bar of heated iron for a certain distance. The injured limb was then wrapped in linen, which was carefully sealed. On the third day it was examined. If the wound was found to be healed, the accused was acquitted;—if the contrary were the case, he was adjudged guilty. It may be added, that, not unfrequently, when the offending party was unable to pay the Wergeld, he was reduced to a state of slavery.

SOCIETY. Society may be said to have been divided into three classes among the Anglo-Saxons. 1. The “Eorla” or nobles, more generally known in later Saxon times as “Thegns,” (from thēgnian, “to serve.”), or Thanes. These were distinguished, according to their amount of landed property, as higher or lesser Thanes, the latter being required to possess at least five hides of land, (about 600 acres). Nobility of birth entitling its possessor to the appellation of “Ethel-born,” but it did not confer on him the dignity of a Thane. If the ownership of land were wanting, he belonged to the class called originally “Sithendmen.” At a later period, the Sithendman came to be known as the “Sixthendmân,”—a term indicating his position between the wealthy nobility, the “Twelfthendmen,” and the lowest class of freemen, called “Twifendmen.” The Sithendman was, like the Tewexen, obliged to select a “Hlaford” or, Lord, of whom he became the vassal. 2. The lower class of freemen, the most numerous of all, were called “Ceorls.” This class consisted of tradesmen, mechanics, and husbandmen, each of whom was bound to place himself under the protection of a superior, who became answerable for the appearance of his retainers. Many of the Ceorls were annexed to the lands of their lords, which they cultivated, and which they were not at liberty to quit. But in other respects they were free-men or law-worthy. They could give legal evidence: they had the right to bear arms: they could acquire and hold property. Any Ceorl who could obtain the requisite amount of land could pass into the class of Thanes. 3. The Theoves, serfs or slaves, consisting of those reduced to bondage by the fate of war, by want, or by crime. The hardship of the Thewas mitigated by the influence of Christianity. The power of a master was not unlimited: if a man beat out his eye or tooth, the slave recovered his freedom. To the bishop, also, was assigned the duty of protecting all the slaves in his diocese.

POPULATION. The population of England at the close of the Anglo-Saxon period has been estimated at about 1,800,000. In the thirty-four counties included in the survey of Domesday Book, the burgesses and citizens are made to amount to 17,108; the lower class of free-men to 184,000; and the theoves or slaves to 26,552. The persons reduced to slavery were, therefore, about one in seven of the working population.

LITERATURE. Letters may be said to have been unknown among the Saxons until their conversion to Christianity. Their rapid advance afterwards, though it has scarcely attracted the attention it deserves, has, perhaps, few parallels in history. That, within a century after the introduction of Christianity, Saxon England could produce two such authors of native growth as Bede and Alcuin, will show the success of the efforts made by the early missionaries to our country to bring about the religious and mental improvement of the population. At Augustine we owe the foundation of our first schools, one of which was attached to each of the cathedrals, in which the bishop, or some of his clergy, taught. The impulse given to the study of classics, by the appointment to the see of Canterbury of so great a scholar as Theodore, within sixty years of the death of Augustine, was, no doubt, one cause of the distinction gained by the English schools of learning during the Oestarchy. In reading the correspondence of Bede and Archbishop Egbert, Alcuin and Boniface (Winefred), we are astonished at the extent of the knowledge shown by the writers, when we consider the scanty materials at their command. The improvement in the arts may be traced mainly to the same cause as that to which we have ascribed the progress of letters—namely, the influence exerted by the propagation of Christianity. The arts of sculpture, workmanship in metals, painting and illumination flourished in the cloister. The proficiency of the Anglo-Saxons in the latter branch of art is sufficiently shown by the ancient manuscript known as the “Durham Book,” or “The Gospels of St. Cuthbert,” and by the magnificent “Beneficidal of St. Ethelwold,” ascribed to the monk Godeman, in the tenth century. For beauty of design and finish of execution, these productions are not to be surpassed by any contemporary works of the same class.

ANNALS. Much authentic information with regard to the Anglo-Saxon portion of our history is contained in the “Saxon Chronicle,” of which six copies are still extant. From internal evidence there is good reason to suppose, that the copy of these annals preserved at Cambridge was transcribed by Archbishop Phelegmund, under the direction of Alfred. It is written in one hand to 891, the year in which Phelegmund was raised to the primitive, and in hand writing equally or nearly equally ancient till the year of his death, (A.D. 924), after which time it is continued in different hands. Ample materials for the earlier portion of Anglo-Saxon history may be found, also, in the valuable “Ecclesiastical History” of Bede, which extends from the arrival of the Saxons in England to the year 734. Besides these two important works, we possess the “Life of Alfred,” by Asser, the “Chronicles” of Ethelward, (a relative of Alfred), of Florence of Worcester, A.D. 449—1496; Henry Huntingdon, 449—1122; Ralph Higden, 449—1327; William of Malmesbury, 449—1142; Hugh Candidus, 449—1173; Simeon of Durham, 485—1166; John Brompton, 588—1199; Henry Knighton, 946—1309; Roger Hoveden, 733—1201; the “Annals” of Ingulphus, 626—1089, and of Melrose and Burton Abbots; as well as the “Life of Edward the Confessor,” by Alred of Rievaulx, and “Emma Angliae Reginae Encomium,” by Gervase of Tilbury.
GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE ANGLO-SAXON LINE

EORHNRE, A.D. 800—836

ETHELWOLD, d. 885

AETHELSTAN, King of Kent 858—854

ETHELBOLD
868—880

ETHELBERT
d. 866

ETHELRED I.
d. 971

ALFRED, d. 901

Ethelwald

EDWARD (the Elder), d. 925
Five other children

AETHELSTAN, d. 940

EDMUND, d. 946

EDWARD, d. 955

EDWY, d. 958

EDGAR, d. 975

ANGLO-DANISH KINGS.

Edwine
1016—1035

Emma, of Normandy

Harold I. Harefoot
d. 1040

Hardicanute
1042

EDWARD (the Martyr)
d. 979

Eadred—ETHELRED II. —Emma of Normandy
d. 1016

Edmund Ironside, d. 1016

Edward (murdered)

Alfred (murdered)

Edward (the Confessor)
1042—1066

Edward the Outlaw—Agatha of Hungary

Edgar Etheiling

Margaret—Malcolm of Scotland.

Matilda—Henry I.

Maud or Matilda—Geoffrey Plantagenet.

HENRY II.

NOTE.—Harold II. was not of the royal line, but the son of Earl Godwin. He was a legitimate King by the election of the Witanagemote.
THE PERIOD SINCE THE CONQUEST.
# Kings of England Since the Conquest

From William I., A.D. 1066, to Victoria, A.D. 1837.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Century</th>
<th>Accession</th>
<th>Kings</th>
<th>Desc.</th>
<th>Reign</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Place of Burial</th>
<th>Marriage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XI.</td>
<td>A.D. 1066</td>
<td>William I. (the Conqueror)</td>
<td>Son of Robert, Duke of Normandy</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>Caen</td>
<td>Matilda, daughter of Baldwin V. (the Gentle), Count of Flanders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norman Line</td>
<td>1087</td>
<td>William II. (Rufus)</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>Winchester</td>
<td>1st. Edith Maude, daughter of Malcolm III. of Scotland; 2nd. Alice, daughter of Godfrey, Duke of Louvaine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XII.</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>Henry I. (Beaumanoir)</td>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Matilda, daughter of Eustace, Count of Boulogne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line of Blois</td>
<td>1135</td>
<td>Stephen</td>
<td>Grandson of William I.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Feversham Abbey</td>
<td>Eleanor, daughter of William, Duke of Aquitaine and Earl of Poitou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1154</td>
<td>Henry II.</td>
<td>Grandson of Henry I.</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>Fontevrault</td>
<td>Berengaria, daughter of Sanchis, King of Navarre</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1189</td>
<td>Richard I. (Coeur de Lion)</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Fontevrault</td>
<td>1st. Avisa, daughter of the Earl of Gloucester; 2nd. Isabel, daughter of Aymer Taillifer, Count of Angoulême</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIII.</td>
<td>1199</td>
<td>John</td>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Worcester</td>
<td>Eleanor, daughter of Raymond, Earl of Provence</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1216</td>
<td>Henry III.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>Westminster Abbey</td>
<td>1st. Eleanor, daughter of Ferdinand III. of Castile; 2nd. Margaret, daughter of Philip III. of France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1272</td>
<td>Edward I.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td>Isabel, daughter of Philip IV. of France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1307</td>
<td>Edward II. (deposed)</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>Gloucester</td>
<td>Philippa, daughter of William, Count of Hainault and Holland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIV.</td>
<td>1327</td>
<td>Edward III.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td>1st. Anne of Bohemia, daughter of the Emperor Charles IV. of Germany; 2nd. Isabel, daughter of Charles VI. of France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1377</td>
<td>Richard II. (deposed)</td>
<td>Grandson</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Kings' Langley</td>
<td>1st. Mary de Bohun, daughter of Humphrey, Earl of Hereford; 2nd. Joanna, daughter of Charles of Navarre, and widow of John V., of Brittany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plantagenet Line</td>
<td>1399</td>
<td>Henry IV.</td>
<td>Son of John of Ghent (Duke of Lancaster)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Canterbury</td>
<td>Catherine, daughter of Charles VI. of France</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1413</td>
<td>Henry V.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td>Margaret, daughter of René, Duke of Anjou</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1422</td>
<td>Henry VI.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>Windsor</td>
<td>Margaret, daughter of René, Duke of Anjou</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

32
## KINGS OF ENGLAND SINCE THE CONQUEST (CONTINUED)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Century</th>
<th>Accession</th>
<th>Kings</th>
<th>Descent</th>
<th>Reign</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Place of Burial</th>
<th>Marriage</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A.D.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>XVI.</td>
<td>1441</td>
<td>Edward IV.</td>
<td>Fourth in descent from Edward III.</td>
<td>Years 23</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>Windsor</td>
<td>Elisabeth, daughter of Richard Woodville, (Earl of Rivers), and widow of Sir John Grey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1483</td>
<td>Edward V.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>Months 2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>The Tower (removed to Westminster)</td>
<td>Anne Neville, daughter of the Earl of Warwick, and widow of Edward, Prince of Wales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1483</td>
<td>Richard III.</td>
<td>Uncle</td>
<td>Years 2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Leicester</td>
<td>Elizabeth Plantagenet, daughter of Edward IV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1485</td>
<td>Henry VII.</td>
<td>Fourth in descent from John of Ghent</td>
<td>Years 24</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td>1st, Catherine of Aragon; 2nd, Anne Boleyn; 3rd, Jane Seymour; 4th, Anne of Cleves; 6th, Catherine Howard; 6th, Catherine Parr, widow of Lord Latimer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1509</td>
<td>Henry VIII.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>Years 33</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>Windsor</td>
<td>Philip II. of Spain, son of the Emperor Charles V.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1547</td>
<td>Edward VI.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>Years 8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td>Anne, daughter of Frederick II. of Denmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1553</td>
<td>Mary I.</td>
<td>Sister</td>
<td>Years 4</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td>Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France</td>
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<tr>
<td>XVI.</td>
<td>1558</td>
<td>Elizabeth</td>
<td>Sister</td>
<td>Years 44</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1603</td>
<td>James I.</td>
<td>Fourth in descent from Henry VII.</td>
<td>Years 22</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>1626</td>
<td>Charles I.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>Years 24</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>Windsor</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1649)</td>
<td>The Commonwealth</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1644)</td>
<td>The Protectorate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>XVII.</td>
<td>1660</td>
<td>Charles II.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>Years 25</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td>Catherine, Infanta of Portugal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1685</td>
<td>James II. (abdicated)</td>
<td>Brother</td>
<td>Years 4</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>St. Germain</td>
<td>1st, Anne, daughter of Hyde, Earl of Clarendon; 2nd, Mary Beatrice d’Este, daughter of the Duke of Modena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1689</td>
<td>William III.</td>
<td>Son-in-law</td>
<td>Years 13</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td>Mary II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1702</td>
<td>James II.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>Years 12</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td>William, son of William II. of Orange.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1714</td>
<td>Anne</td>
<td>Sister</td>
<td>Years 5</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td>George, second son of Frederick III. of Denmark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1727</td>
<td>George I.</td>
<td>Great Grandson of James I.</td>
<td>Years 13</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>Hanover</td>
<td>Sophia Dorothea, daughter of George William of Zell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1760</td>
<td>George II.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>Years 33</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Westminster</td>
<td>Caroline, daughter of John Frederick, Margrave of Anspach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1820</td>
<td>George III.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>Years 69</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>Windsor</td>
<td>Charlotte Sophia, daughter of the Duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIX.</td>
<td>1830</td>
<td>George IV.</td>
<td>Son</td>
<td>Years 10</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>Windsor</td>
<td>Caroline, daughter of Charles William, Duke of Brunswick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1837</td>
<td>William IV.</td>
<td>Brother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Windsor</td>
<td>Adelaide, daughter of the Duke of Saxe Meiningen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Victoria</td>
<td>Niece</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vivat Regina</td>
<td>Albert, Prince of Saxe-Coburg Gotha</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. WILLIAM I. (THE CONQUEROR).

Principal Events.

Is crowned in Westminster Abbey, (25th Dec.)

He governs, at first, with moderation, and receives Edgar Etheling at his court.

1067—1068. He returns to Normandy, whence he is recalled by disturbances at Exeter, followed by an unsuccessful rising of the Saxon Earls, Edwin and Morcar, the brothers-in-law of Harold.

1069. William reduces to submission Walthoef and other Saxon chiefs, who, aided by the Scots and Danes, had seized York. Hereafter, who had taken refuge in the Isle of Ely, is the last who submits, (1073).

1070. William deposes Stigand, and appoints Lanfranc to the See of Canterbury.

1072. He defeats Malcolm III. of Scotland, from whom he enforces homage.

1073. He visits Normandy, leaving the regency to his half-brother, Odo, Bishop of Bayeux.

An insurrection by some of the Norman barons is suppressed by Odo. Ralph de Guider, Earl of Norfolk, takes refuge in Brittany.

1076. William invades Brittany, and is defeated at Dol by Philip I. of France.

1079. He opposes the claims to the Duchy of Normandy of his son, Robert, by whom he is wounded at Gerberoy, and with whom he is subsequently reconciled.

1085. A general survey of the kingdom is recorded in Domesday Book. England is divided into 60,000 knights' fees.

1087. William renewes the war with Philip, who had seized the Vexin, a district on the borders of France and Normandy. Mantes is captured by William, who receives a fatal injury while on horseback.


William was crowned, with the consent of the Witan, or Great Council, by Aldred, Archbishop of York.

The conduct of this prince was, at first, liberal. The frequent attempts at rebellion formed the pretext for the rigour which marked the latter years of his reign. He dispossessed the Saxon nobles of their estates,—re-imposed the Danegelt,—and levied on the cities heavy contributions. Sixty miles of the country between the Humber and the Tees were laid waste, so that "from York to Durham," says an old writer, "not an inhabited village remained." The hundred thousand persons are said to have been the victims of this severity. Walthoef, the Saxon Earl of Northampton, who had married the niece of the Conqueror, was beheaded for his knowledge of the plot of the Norman barons, in which he had refused to join.

Besides the numerous estates which he gave to his Norman followers, William retained upwards of 1,400 royal manors. Only one of the Conqueror's retainers, named Guilbert, would accept no part of the spoil. He said that he had accompanied his lord as was his duty, and that he would take neither gold nor lands.

At Avallon, himself of a threatened invasion from Denmark, William summoned a great council, (a.p. 1086), and obtained its consent to the ancient English tenure of land. The country was divided into 60,000 hefts, to the possession of each of which was annexed the condition of rendering military service for forty days in the year. From this period must be dated the complete establishment of the feudal system in England.

Among the other events which attended the conquest we may mention the beginning of the Danish invasions,—the introduction of Norman-French into the courts of law,—and the establishment of the forest law. It may be added, that, to form the New Forest, William ordered the country for thirty miles around Winchester to be cleared, destroying fewner than twenty-six villages and numerous churches and convenants.

The use of the Curfew, i.e. Ouerre-feu ("Extinguish fire") Bell was introduced by William. It was rung every evening at eight, as a signal that all fires and lights were to be put out.

William was buried at Caen, in a church built by himself, where, when his tomb was opened in 1542, his body was found, exceding in stature of that of the tallest man then living. It is said, that, while on horseback, he could draw a bow which no other could bend even on foot.

Domesday Book, still preserved at Westminster, contains a record of the extent, population and ownership of most of the land in England.

Edgar Etheling retired after a time to the court of Scotland, where the alliance between him and the Scots was cemented by the marriage of Malcolm III. with his eldest sister, Margaret,—a princess of great piety, who did much to promote religion and industry in that country.

Several of the English, fleeing to the court of Constantinople, entered the service of the Greek emperor, where they measured their swords with the Normans of Italy, who had at this time invaded Byzantium.

Contemporary Events.

Malcolm III.

KING OF SCOTLAND.

Philip I.

KING OF FRANCE.

Henry IV.

EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

Successors of Richardus, named "the Cat," over the Saracens, under Ferdinand I. and Sancho II. of Castile, (1070).

Sicily is taken from the Saracens by Roger Guiscard, who becomes its first Norman Count, (1071).

Antepyr is given by Henry IV. to Godfrey de Bouillon, (1070).

Danton to the see of Rome of the states of Matilda, Duchess of Tuscany, (1077).

Alexis Comnena, Empress of the East, is defeated by the Normans at the battle of Duras, (1089).

Alphonse VI of Leon gains Toledo from the Saracens, and establishes the kingdom of New Castle, (1085).

Yusef, chief of the Almoravides of Morocco, conquers the Mahometan states in Spain, and obtains the suzerain power, (1086).

The Duchy of Asturias is conquered by Henry IV. on Frederick, the founder of the house of Hohenstaufen, (1079).

Names of Note.

Peter Damianus, Theol. died a.p. 1072.
Adam of Bremen, Hist. = 1078.
Gregory VII. (Hildebrand) = 1085.
Marcellus Scottus, Cronister = 1086.
### 2. WILLIAM II. (BIFUS).

**Principal Events.**
- The second son of the Conqueror, hastens from Normandy to England, and is crowned by Archbishop Lanfranc, (26th Sept.)
- He suppresses an insurrection raised by some of the Norman barons in favour of his brother Robert, who is aided by Bishop Odo.
- On the death of Lanfranc, William seizes the revenues of the See of Canterbury, which he retains for several years.
- He invades Normandy, but makes peace with Robert, on condition of the survivor inheriting both crowns.
- In concert with Robert, he besieges Prince Henry, who, dissatisfied with the treaty between his brothers, had fortified himself in the castle of St. Michael.
- Invasion of England by Malcolm of Scotland, who is defeated and killed.
- William, in sickness, appoints Anselm to the Primacy. On recovery, he seizes a part of its revenues.
- An insurrection raised by Robert Mowbray, Earl of Northumberland, on behalf of Stephen, is suppressed.
- Robert pledges the Duchy of Normandy to William, and embarks on the Crusades.
- Magnus of Norway lands in Anglesea, and is defeated. Last invasion of England by the Northmen.
- William successfully resumes the war in Normandy against some of his vassals, who are supported by the King of France.
- He is shot in the New Forest.

**Observations.**
- The possessions of the Conqueror were thus bequeathed:—to his eldest son Robert, was left Normandy; to William, called “Bifus” from the colour of his hair, the crown of England; and to Henry, the youngest, the property of his mother, Matilda.
- The character of William Rufus is well described by an old writer:—“All things that pleased God, displeased him, and all that God loved, he hated deadly.” On recovering from sickness he had sworn, that “God should never have any good in him, for all the evil He had brought upon him.” From that time “he succeeded in everything he wished for or undertook. The very land and sea seemed to serve his will, as if God would leave him without excuse by granting all he wished for.”
- All that we know for certain of his end is, that, on August 2nd, A.D. 1100, he rode out at mid-day to hunt in the New Forest, and that, in the evening, his body was found pierced by an arrow through the heart. There is reason to believe that William fell the victim to a well-planned conspiracy. The story that he was killed by a chance arrow of Sir Walter Tyrell was, probably, invented to conceal the real character of his death. No one could have known this fact but Tyrell himself, and he always denied it. The body of William was found by some charcoal-burners, and was carried in their cart to Winchester, “his blood dropping along the road as they went.” As a king of England, he was buried in the cathedral, but without religious rites. “The church bells,” says Ordericus, “which toll for the poorest beggar, tolled not for him.”
- So unscrupulously did he seize upon the incomes of vacant sees, that, “at the time of his death,” we are told, he held the revenues of one Archbishopric, four Bishoprics, and eleven Abbeys.
- It has been observed, that the New Forest proved a fatal spot to the family of the Conqueror. Two sons and a grandson there met with their deaths.

**Contemporary Events.**

**KINGS OF SCOTLAND.**
- Malcolm III. . . . . . died A.D. 1093
- Donald Rain . . . . . Deposed 1094
- Duncan . . . . . . . . . died A.D. 1094
- Donald Bain (restored) . . . . . 1097
- Edgar.

**KING OF FRANCE.**
- Philip I.

**EMPEROR OF GERMANY.**
- Henry IV.

**Death of (St.) Margaret of Scotland, (1093).**
- Henry of Burgundy, fourth in descent from Hugh Capet, becomes the first Count of Portugal, by the marriage with Thevez, daughter of Alphonse VI of Leon, (1094).
- The Council of Clermont is summoned by Urban II, (1095).
- The first Crusade to the Holy Land is undertaken, (1096).
- Nevers—One Tyre is built by Malcolm Canmore, (1097).
- Magnus Harvold, King of Norway, reduces Orkney, Shetland, and the Hebrides, to complete submission, (1098).
- The Crusaders take Antioch.
- The order of Knights Hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem is founded, (1099).
- Capture of Jerusalem, and establishment of a Christian kingdom of that name by Godfrey de Bouillon, (1099), who had seven successors—
  - Baldwin I (brother). acces. A.D. 1000
  - Baldwin II. . . . . . 1118
  - Fulco of Angoulême . . . . . 1118
  - Baldwin III. . . . 1148
  - Almeric . . . . . . . . . . . . 1162
  - Baldwin IV. . . . . . 1172
  - Guy de Lusignan . . . . . 1185

**NAMES OF NOTE.**
- Bernengarius, Theologian, died A.D. 1084
- Lanfranc, Theol. . . . . . 1089
3. HENRY I.

Principal Events.
The youngest son of the Conqueror, seizes the royal treasures, and is crowned by the Bishop of London.

He grants a charter of liberties, swears to observe the laws of Edward, and to respect the rights of the Church.

He marries Matilda of Scotland, and thus introduces into the Norman line the rights of the Saxon family.

1101. Hostilities with Robert, Duke of Normandy, which are terminated by a treaty.

1103. Disputes between the king and Archbishop Anselm.

1106. Henry invades Normandy, and, at the battle of Tenclebrai, gains the persons of Robert and his son, William Crito.

1113. War with Louis (le Gros) of France, who is defeated at Brenneville (1119.)

1120. Death of Prince William, the only son of the king, who is drowned in the "White Ship" in returning from Normandy.

1127. Henry confers the hand of his daughter, Maude, widow of the Emperor of Germany, on Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, and causes the nobility to swear fealty to her as his successor.

Henry I., from his attainments in learning, received the surname of Beaucler, or "Fine Scholar."

The feudal system had led to a confusion between the spiritual and temporal powers of the bishops, which appeared to endanger the independence of the Church. By this system the king demanded homage from the bishops for the lands attached to their sees, and, on receiving this homage, claimed the right of investing them with the ring and staff of their office. The appointment to the higher ecclesiastical benefices was thus placed in the hands of the sovereign, at a time when the Church alone could present a barrier to the tyranny and avarice of kings and rulers. The consequences, which might easily have been foreseen, followed. Favourites of the crown were appointed; open simony was practised; military aid was exacted; and the bishops were filled with men, who too often disregarded their sacred calling. Odo of Bayeux and Ralph Flamboyant may be taken as representatives of the class of prelates introduced by this state of things into the Church. This was the evil against which Anselm had to contend. Called from the quiet monastery of Bec, at the age of sixty, where his life had been spent in acts of devotion, in instructing the young and in composing profound theological writings, "to those in health," says Edmer, "a father, to the sick a mother," Anselm appeared little fitted to resist kings and princes. Such was the old man whom William, in a dangerous illness, sent for to fill the See of Canterbury. Pale and trembling, Anselm refused. The king became impatient. Anselm was dragged to the bed-side, and by main force the bishop's staff was placed in his hands. Banished on William's recovery for refusing to raise the money demanded by the king, he was recalled on the accession of Henry. Unwilling to receive investiture from the king, which had been prohibited by a council of the Church, Anselm was again forced into exile. The struggle was closed by the consent of Henry to give up the right of investiture, and to require only the feudal homage of the bishop for the lands of the see.

The battle of Tenclebrai placed Robert of Normandy in the power of the king's younger brother. The unhappy Duke lingered out twenty-eight years in Cardiff Castle. The last of the royal Saxons, Edgar Etheling, who had faithfully followed the fortunes of Robert, fell also, into the hands of Henry.

The death of William Crito, the son of Robert, whose pretensions were opposed by Louis le Gros of France, relieved Henry of his greatest fears. The young prince died of a wound received at Alost, (A.D. 1129.)

Henry caused justice to be rigorously enforced, and granted a charter to the city of London. Contrary, however, to previous oaths, he levied heavy taxes, and increased the severity of the forest laws.

The title of the "Good Queen Maude," given to the wife of Henry I., was well deserved. Her letters to Anselm, still extant, surprise us with the extent of her knowledge of both sacred and profane authors.

Matilda, or Maude, widow of the Emperor Henry V., married to Geoffrey of Anjou. Married, 2nd, Alice of Louvaine.
4. STEPHEN

Principal Events.

Grandson of the Conqueror, through Adela, wife of the Count of Blois, disputes with Maude the title to the throne.

He is crowned at Winchester, (26th December), concedes additional liberties to the nation, and abolishes the Danegelt.

1136. Insurrection of the Welsh.


Stephen loses the support of his brother, Henry of Blois, Bishop of Winchester, by whom he is summoned before a synod for seizing some of the property of the Church.

1139. Landing of Maude, who asserts her claim by arms, and by whose half-brother, Robert, Earl of Gloucester, Stephen, two years later, is taken prisoner at the battle of Lincoln, (1141).

1141. Maude is crowned by the Bishop of Winchester.

Capture of the Earl of Gloucester, for whom Stephen is exchanged.

Arbitrary measures of Maude, who after being besieged at Winchester and Oxford, is forced, within eight years, to leave the kingdom, (1147).

1148. Stephen is re-crowned at Lincoln.

1153. After the death of his son, Eustace, Stephen concludes a treaty at Wallingford with Henry, the eldest son of Maude, by which it is agreed that Stephen should possess the crown during his lifetime, and that Henry on his death should succeed.

Observations.

The pretensions of Stephen were, probably, founded less upon his descent from Adela than upon his popularity in England. If he were not the rightful heir, the same objection applied to the last two sovereigns. Generous and humane, of noble bearing and gracious manners, he had endeared himself to the English, during his stay among them, while at the court of his uncle, when his place of residence had been the palace of Tower Royal, where Cheapside now stands.

Baldwin le Redvers, Earl of Devon, on some slight cause of offence, was the first to dispute the title of Stephen, and to tell him that "he was not king of right, and that he would obey him no longer." Stephen marched against him, when the Welsh, who, as we have seen, had, even from Saxon times, been often forced to promise an allegiance to the English sovereigns, which they as often broke, seized the opportunity to plunder the rich lands of England. After this, each day brought Stephen tidings of a fresh revolt.

The virtues of Matilda, the queen of Stephen, were, like those of her aunt and namesake, the wife of Henry I., long remembered by the citizens of London.

Godfrey of Boulogne, (celebrated by Tasso), and his brother Baldwin, successively Kings of Jerusalem, were her uncles on her father's side. On hearing of the severity with which her husband was treated by the Empress, after his capture at the Battle of Lincoln, she offered, though in vain, that, if his liberty were granted, she should give up all claims to the crown, that he should devote himself to a religious life, and that she would even forego his society. On the capture by her party of Robert, the good Earl of Gloucester, her conduct presented a striking contrast to that of the Empress. He was treated with every indulgence, and was subsequently exchanged for Stephen.

Thrice did the Empress by the devotion of her brother, the Earl of Gloucester, the main-stay of her cause, escape with difficulty from the adherents of Stephen.

On the death of Gloucester, her prospects of obtaining the crown were hopeless, and, for several years, it may be said that the authority of Stephen was acknowledged in the east, and that of Maude in the west of England.

The barons, arming themselves of the civil war, retired to their castles, which they fortified, watching the progress of parties, and committing excesses which the two rival claimants for the crown were unable to repress.

During this reign London was nearly destroyed by fire.

REMARKS ON THE NORMAN LINE.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The Norman Conquest, although it modified, did not destroy the political and judicial system of the Anglo-Saxons. The Great Council was still retained; its concurrence to the succession of the sovereign, nor could the king without its consent carry out any law.

The Shire, Hundred, and Manor Courts were retained. But here a great change was effected by the Conqueror, in the removal of the bishop from the former, in which both lay and spiritual causes had been tried, to a distinct tribunal of his own. This measure, though only intended to guard the independence of the Church, was attended with important results. Although, formerly, when the bishop presided with the earl in the shire-court, the office of declaring the law was, to some extent, confined to the one or the other, as the case had references to a civil or spiritual offence, yet the presence of the bishop obtained for it popular confidence. By his removal this confidence was withdrawn. The local courts began to be abandoned, and all who could sought redress in the higher court of the sovereign, or the Great Council, consisting of the tenants of the crown.

The greater influx of suitors to the superior tribunal, led to the establishment of an Inferior Council, which constantly attended the person of the king to hear and decide the causes brought before him, when the usual members of the Great Council were not present. This court, to which and to the Great Council the name "Curia Regia" was indifferently given, consisted of certain great officers of state named by the king, and possessed all those different powers afterwards distributed among the courts of the Queen's Bench, the Common Pleas and the Exchequer. The effect of this institution was to add greatly to the power of the crown, while its encroachments on the legislative functions of the Great Council were, for several centuries, the subject of frequent complaints.

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM. The chief feature by which the Conquest was marked, was the introduction of the complete Feudal system—a system, traces of which were to be found in Saxon times; fines for alienation, reliefs under the name of "heriots," and even escheats—conditions incident to feudal tenure—being mentioned before the Conquest. By the feudal system, which was introduced, with the consent of the Great Council, in A.D. 1086, the king was considered to be the supreme lord of all the land in the realm. It was divided into 60,000 estates, called "Knights' fees." For every knight's fee, the occupier, called a vassal, was bound to provide a knight or soldier for forty days in the year, to attend the king in his wars, as well as to be present when he held his court. The occupiers of these fees were called the tenants-in-chief of the crown. They had, however, the right to sub-let their land to others, called "vassals," of whom they became the lords, being themselves called "Mânes," or Middle Lords. The dependence of the vassal on his lord was expressed by an act of homage, in return for which the lord conferred on the vassal the investiture or the right of possession of the land. The manner in which homage was rendered, though slightly varying in different countries, consisted, mainly, in the vassal kneeling, putting his hands between those of his lord, and declaring that "he became his man (homme) from that day forth." In France it was customary for the vassal to kiss the lord's foot. It must be added, that this kind of tenure imposed on the vassal, besides the obligation of military service, certain other obligations. 1. The payment of a fine called a relief, on the heir succeeding to the estate; 2. A fine for alienation, a sum paid to the lord when the tenant transferred the land to another; 3. The escheat, or return of the estate, if the vassal died without heirs; 4. Grants to the lord, called eald, on certain occasions; and 5. Wardship, or the right of keeping the lands of the heir till the age of twenty-one.

Vassalage had in it nothing humiliating. It was a kind of mutual contract, which could only exist by the formal consent of both parties. The kings of England were vassals to those of France for their Duchies held in that country, while the latter were vassals to the Abbey of St. Denys.

A few remarks must be added on the political and social bearing of this system. The character of a feudal army, liable to serve only for forty days, was little adapted to schemes of foreign conquests—an important check on the ambitious designs of warlike princes, at a time when standing armies were unknown. To this circumstance it was, in part, owing, that the wars between powerful monarchs were, in these ages, often attended with slight results, and with little loss of life. At the same time, the independence of the feudal lords, with numerous vassals, bound to serve them in the field, giving them the means of inflicting private injuries for which there was little hope of redress, was the real evil of the times.

Nor was the civil aspect of this system less important. The judgment of each by his peers was the basis of feudal justice. We have seen that it was part of the obligation of the vassal to attend the court of his lord. It was the duty of this court, composed as it was of those tenants who were the peers of each other, to assist in trying the complaints of the lord against his vassals, or of one vassal against another. Whatever may have been the precise period at which the system of trial by jury assumed its present form, we undoubtedly have here the recognition of the great principle upon which one of the most valuable judicial institutions of modern times is based.

One important peculiarity attending the introduction of the feudal system into England remains to be noticed. When sub-infeudation was effected, it was customary for the vassal to swear allegiance, not to the lord in whom the ultimate property resided, but to the immediate lord of whom he held the land. In a council held at Salisbury, A.D. 1086, William, however, exacted a direct oath of fealty to himself from all the sub-vassals, as well as from the immediate tenants of the crown. The authority of the royal court was thus rendered paramount throughout the kingdom.

ANNALS. Several of the authorities mentioned under the Anglo-Saxon period afford also information with regard to the history of England after the Conquest. Of later Chronicles we may name those of Eadmer, which extend to A.D. 1122; William of Newbury to 1197; Gervase of Canterbury to 1159; Trivet to 1307; Benedict of Peterborough to 1192; Ralph de Diceto to 1190; Ralph of Coggeshall to 1209; Peter of Blois to 1486; and the Annals of Waverley to 1291. Besides these, we possess the "Life of William I.," by William of Poictiers; the work of Ordericus Vitalis to A.D. 1141; and the Annals of St. Albans, formerly attributed to Matthew Paris, but now known to be, in great part, the work of Roger of Wendover and William Rishanger.
MANNERS AND CUSTOMS. The dress worn by the Normans consisted generally of a loose doublet reaching half-way down the leg, a short cloak, long tight hose, fastened to the doublet by many strings, called points, leg-bandages, and shoes or short boots with long pointed toes. The armour of the Normans did not differ materially from that used by the Saxons. It was called a hâlerie (hauberck, protection for the breast), or hauberck, and consisted of flat rings, sewn together upon leather. It also bore the name of maille, from the French word maille. The helmet was conical; the shield, flat and kite-shaped. Until the time of Richard I., heraldic devices were not employed. Embroidery, which had been much practised before the Conquest, was still the chief occupation of ladies. A celebrated specimen of the needlework of the period is still preserved in the Cathedral of Bayeux. It is a piece of tapestry, which represents the chief events connected with the Conquest, and is ascribed by some, though without sufficient evidence, to Matilda, the wife of William.

Few alterations were made in English household furniture. The table still rested upon trestles,—the floors were strewn with straw or rushes,—and a rug laid upon a bench served as a bed. The banqueting hall was still used as the common sleeping room. Paintings upon the wainscot or the walls of the chamber, in some instances, now replaced the hangings of needlework which had formerly been employed. Painting and gilding were also used in the decoration of the ceiling. The Normans are said to have introduced a more refined manner of living than had hitherto prevailed in England. They had only two regular meals in the day, dinner at nine or ten in the morning, and supper at four or five in the afternoon.

The Joust, or Tournament, was the favourite amusement of the Normans. An enclosed space, called the Lists, was made ready, with galleries arranged around for the spectators. On one side a seat was raised for the judge, who held in his hand a short staff, or bâton, which he threw down as a signal that the contest should close, when the life of one of the combatants was in danger. Tents were pitched at either end for the knightly guests. The challengers, whose names were announced by heralds, entering at one end, advanced up the lists, when each touched with his lance the shield of the opponent whom he selected; if the challenge were accepted, the knight, taking the lance in his right hand, placed the lower end in a socket fixed in the saddle, then the trumpeters sounded the charge, and the combatants, galloping towards one another, met in the centre, each trying to unhorse the other with his weapon. At the close of the Joust, heralds announced the names of the victors, who were rewarded with the horses and armour of those whom they had vanquished. This sport, called tilting, lasted some days, and often ended with what was called a Mîtée, or general engagement, in which several knights took part. Although the Tournament was condemned by the Church, on account of the blood-shed which occasionally attended it, it continued to be popular for several centuries. Hawking and the chase formed, also occupations of the gentry, while among the peasantry the quintain, the water-tournament, archery, wrestling, football, and boar and bull baiting were practised.

LANGUAGE. Important changes in the English tongue were effected by the Conquest.

The followers of William spoke Norman-French. This became the language of the Court, the Parliament, and the Courts of Justice; while, among the lower orders, Anglo-Saxon was still spoken. The language used by the ruling class naturally exercised, however, some influence upon that of the conquered race. An alteration was slowly effected in the latter, more, however, by changes in its grammatical structure than by the introduction of new words: and, from the period of the Conquest, to the accession of Henry III., the language of England is known as Semi-Saxon. Most, however, of the works which have come down to us from this period are historical, and were composed by ecclesiastics in Latin. Letters, even of a private character, were also written in Latin. The progress of time, and the intermixture of the French and Saxon tongues, effected further changes, and produced a language which has resulted in our present English. The earliest extant specimen of what is generally spoken of as English, as distinguished from Semi-Saxon, is a proclamation addressed by Henry III. to the people of Huntingdonshire, a.d. 1258.

The stages through which our language has passed from that period to the present time are generally known as Old English to the reign of Edward III.; Middle English, from that period to the reign of Elizabeth; and Modern English, from the time of Elizabeth to our own times. Anglo-Saxon must be regarded as the mother-tongue of our present language—nearly five-eighths of the words now employed being of Anglo-Saxon origin.

ARCHITECTURE. Architecture was greatly improved by the Conquest. The timber mansion which had served as the residence of the more wealthy Saxon proprietor, was replaced by the massive Norman castle. Around the ballium, or court of the castle, was a lofty wall, strengthened by towers, and a parapet, and surrounded by a wide ditch, or moat. This moat was crossed by a draw-bridge, which was defended by an outwork, called the Barbican. The entrance archway, besides its massive gate, was protected by the Portcullis. Within the court stood a square tower, or keep, of three or four stories. The lowest story was a dungeon, partly hidden by the tower, and sometimes used for the custody of prisoners. The second story, in which was the entrance accessible only by a steep and narrow stair, was occupied by the garrison, while the upper floor contained the apartments of the chieftain and his family. On each story were one or two large rooms, and the upper floor had in addition several small closets, constructed in the turrets, or projections of the wall. There is little reason to doubt that smaller mansion-houses of timber were frequently erected by the Normans, although few examples of this class of dwellings remain. In those, the staircase was external; chimneys similar to those now in use are in some instances met with in Norman buildings, but the apartment was generally warmed by a central hearth slightly raised above the floor, from which the smoke escaped by an open lantern in the roof.

In Ecclesiastical Architecture a marked improvement is visible. The semi-circular arch is the principal feature of the Norman style; fine examples of which are the cathedrals of Durham, founded by W. Carlelebo (a.d. 1093), Rochester, by Gundulphe (1077), Hereford, by Bishop R. Loeing (1079), Gloucester, by Abbot Serlo (1088), and Peterborough, by Ernulf (1107).
GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE LINES OF NORMANDY AND BLOIS.

Rollo (The Gauger) A.D. 912—931.
First Duke of Normandy

William (Longue-Epée), died 942.

Richard I. (Sans-peur), died 996.

Richard II. (le Bon), died 1026

Richard III.,
died 1028

Robert (le Diable),
died 1035

Alfred,
murd. 1036

Edward

Hardicanute

WILLIAM I. (the Conqueror) = Matilda
1066—1087

Adela = Stephen of Blois

Robert Courthosse

Richard, died young

William Clito, died 1128

WILLIAM II. (Rufus)
died 1100

HENRY I. = Matilda
died 1135

STEPHEN = Matilda
died 1164
## KINGS OF THE PLANTAGENET LINE.

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<td>Henry III.</td>
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5. HENRY II.

Principal Events.

Inheriting Normandy from his mother,—Anjou from his father,—by his marriage with Eleanor, (1151), the divorced queen of Louis VII., he had acquired Aquitaine, and thus possessed nearly a third part of France.

He holds a Great Council, in which he resumes the grants of land made by Stephen.

1156. He obtains from Malcolm of Scotland the three northern counties, and confirms to him the Earldom of Huntingdon.

He does homage to Louis VII. for his French possessions, and represses the attempts of his brother, Geoffrey, on Maine and Anjou.

1157. He reduces the Welsh to submission.

1159. Hostilities with Louis VII. with reference to the town of Toulouse, which Henry claims in right of his wife, are terminated by the Pope's mediation.

1160. He contracts his son Henry in marriage with Margaret, the daughter of Louis VII.

1162. Appointment of Becket to the primacy, the disputes between whom and the king are terminated only with the death of the former, (1170).

1165. He takes possession of Brittany, as guardian of his son Geoffrey, who was contracted in marriage with Constance, heiress of that province.

1172. He visits Ireland, after its conquest by Strongbow, and receives the submission of the Irish princes.

1173—1174. Unsuccessful revolt of the princes Henry, Richard and Geoffrey, aided by Louis VII. and William the Lion of Scotland, the latter of whom is made prisoner at Alnwick, and is forced to do homage for his crown as a vassal.

1189. The second revolt of Prince Richard is terminated by a treaty, which is soon followed by the king's death.


ACCESSION A.D. 1154 | REIGN 33 YEARS.
DEATH . . . 1189 | AGE . 58 YEARS.

OBSERVATIONS.

Artful and licentious in conduct, a redeeming trait in the character of Henry was his affection for his children, which frequently forgave for its acts of rebellion. Henry and Geoffrey died during the lifetime of their father, the latter leaving by Constance of Brittany an infant son, Arthur. Thomas-a-Becket had filled the office of chancellor. The revenues of this office, one of the highest a layman could hold, (Becket was not yet ordained a priest), enabled him to live with a splendour which no Saxon had exhibited since the Conquest. At the same time his justice and purity of life endeared him especially to his Saxon fellow-countrymen. On the death of Theobald, Henry had resolved to raise Becket to the primacy. This dignity Becket was unwilling to accept. Grateful for the favours conferred upon him, he was not, as chancellor, called upon to oppose those changes in the laws of the Church which it was the intention of Henry to effect. But he knew that, if archbishop, his duties would be different, and that he could not retain the favour of his benefactor. His objections were unheeded, and he became primate. His first offence was the resignation of the chancellorship, an office which he considered unsuitable to an archbishop. The "Constitutions of Clarendon" followed, (1164), enactments, which, while they lessened the power of the Church, were certainly based upon a false representation of the existing state of the law. Becket repented his signature to these enactments, and retired into exile. The obnoxious clauses were, after five years, in accordance with the will of the nation, withdrawn by Henry, who expressed a wish for a reconciliation. Becket, though he knew that the professions of the king were insincere, resolved to return to England. He was received everywhere with triumph. Fresh cause of offence soon followed, when Henry, who was then in Normandy, exclaimed, "Will no one rid me of this troublesome priest?" Four knights immediately hastened to Canterbury to murder the archbishop. Though well knowing their purpose, he went to the cathedral at the hour of vespers, forbidding his attendants even to fasten the doors. At the entrance of the four knights with drawn swords, he moved towards them a few steps from the altar, and there received his death blow. The king, it is believed, sincerely regretted the deed, but expected Becket the only man capable of asserting their rights, and he consented to express by a public act his penitence for the crime, (a.d. 1174).

By Rosamond Clifford, who died many years afterwards a penitent at Godstow Nunnery, Henry left two sons, Henry Longsword, and Geoffrey, Archbishops of York.

Ireland, which had been peopled by a Celtic tribe, was at this time divided into six kingdoms. Dermot of Leinster had been driven from the Island for carrying off the wife of a chief of O'Rourke. He sought the assistance of Henry, who allowed Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke, to espouse his cause. Pembroke, surnamed Strongbow, landed with twelve hundred men. Dublin and Waterford were the Engilsh conquests in Ireland were extended, and Henry received the submission of most of the Irish princes.

To improve the administration of justice, Henry employed Ralph de Granville to digest the laws of England. He was the first prince who divided the country into circuits, which were visited by royal justices.
6. RICHARD I.

Principal Events.
The third and eldest surviving son of Henry II., is crowned at Westminster, (3rd Sept.).

1190. He joins Philip II. of France in the third Crusade, having entrusted the government of England to Longchamps, Bishop of Ely, and Hugh, Bishop of Durham, and having sold the vassalage of Scotland.

He winters at Sicily, where dissensions between him and Philip are fomented by the Duke Tancred.

He marries Berengaria of Navarre.

1191. On his voyage to Palestine, he punishes the Prince of Cyprus for an insult offered to the English fleet.

1192. He takes Acre, and defeating Saladin, with an army of 300,000 men, near Ascalon, he concludes a truce.

Philip, aided by the treachery of Prince John, invades Normandy.

Richard, on his return through Germany, is seized by Leopold, Archduke of Austria, who resigns him to the Emperor Henry VI., by whom he is detained prisoner for nearly two years.

1194. Ransomed for 150,000 marks, Richard returns to England, and engages in a war with the King of France, which, four years later, is concluded by a truce.

1199. Besieging Vidomar, Viscount of Limoges, a rebellious vassal, he is mortally wounded before the castle of Chaluz.

Observations.
The pretext for the revolt of Richard and his brothers, which had embittered the last years of the late king, had been the refusal of their father to bestow upon them the actual government of the provinces with the lordship of which they had been invested. The grief of Henry II. at finding the name of his favourite son, John, among those who had sided with Richard in his second revolt, is supposed to have hastened his end. On his accession to the throne, Richard is said to have shown regret for his misconduct towards his father.

An obscure French hermit, who had visited Jerusalem, (a.d. 1094), and had witnessed the cruelties committed by the Mahometan conquerors of Palestine, spoke of his return the protection of Europe on behalf of Christian pilgrims. The appeal of Peter the Hermit led to The Crusades, an enterprise rendered necessary, in fact, to check the growing power of Mahometanism, which, commencing in Arabia, had swept over Asia, and threatened danger to the whole Christian world. The Crusades are generally reckoned as seven in number:—

The first, in 1096, which resulted in the capture of Jerusalem, and the establishment of a Christian state under Godfrey of Boulogne, who had seven successors, the last of whom, Guy de Lusignan, was made prisoner at the battle of Tiberias.

The second, in 1147, under Louis VII. and Conrad III. of Germany, after the fall of Edessa.

The third, in 1189, under Richard I., Philip of France and Frederick Barbarossa, after the victory gained by Saladin at Tiberias.

The fourth, in 1202, led by Baldwin, Earl of Flanders, and Boniface, Marquis of Montferrat. The Crusaders, indignant at the perfidies of the Greeks, took Constantinople, and established there what was known as the Latin Empire.

The fifth, in 1219, in which Damietta was taken by the French, though it was abandoned by them in 1227.

The sixth, in 1248, in which Damietta was again taken by Louis IX., but which he subsequently restored for his ransom after the battle of Mansoura.

The seventh, in 1270, under Louis IX. and Edward I., when Prince of Wales, in which Louis died, while carrying on the siege of Tunis.

The terms of the truce concluded between Richard and Saladin were, that the country from Jaffa to Tyre should be held by the Christians, and that protection should be given to all pilgrims to the Holy Land.

The Archduke Leopold, by whom Richard was made prisoner, had served under the English king at Acre, but had left the Crusades, indignant at an insult offered to the Austrian banner.

Before his liberation, Richard consented to hold England as a fief of the Empire, and to do homage to the Emperor as his feudal lord. The kind of dependence involved in the act of vassalage was rather nominal than real, and can only be understood by a knowledge of feudal law.

During this reign lived the famous outlaw, Robin Hood, over whose history a romantic character has been thrown by the popular ballads of the country.

At the coronation of Richard, many of the Jews were murdered in a popular tumult. The three lions still seen in the royal shield of England, were now introduced.

Married, Berengaria of Navarre.
7. JOHN (LACKLAND).

Principal Events.

Brother of the late king, returns from Normandy, and is crowned at Westminster, (27th May).

He gains the provinces of Anjou and Maine, which had declared for his nephew, Arthur, who falls, after some time, into his power, and is murdered, (1202).

1200. Edict of Hastings, requiring all ships to strike their topsails to the British flag in the narrow seas.

1203—1204. War with Philip II, of France, who gains the greater part of Normandy, after it had been for three hundred years separated from the French crown.


1208. England is laid under an interdict.

1209. Excesses of the king, on whom the sentence of excommunication is passed, which, on his subsequent submission, is removed, (1214).

1210. John undertakes a successful expedition to Ireland, which is placed under English laws.

1213. War with France is renewed.

1214. John, with his allies, Otho of Germany and the Count of Flanders, is defeated at Bouvines. League of the barons, who, induced by Langton to demand a charter of liberties, take up arms. Conference between the barons and the king, the latter of whom signs, at Runnymede, Magna Charta, which twenty-four barons are appointed to see enforced (17th June 1215).

1216. In consequence of the violation of the Charter by the king, the barons offer the crown to Louis, son of Philip Augustus, and, by his marriage with Blanche of Castille, nephew-in-law of John. Commencement of civil war, which is terminated by the death of the king.

### 8. HENRY III.

**Principal Events.**

The eldest son of John, is crowned at Gloucester, after swearing to observe Magna Charta.

During his minority the government is successively conducted by the Earl of Pembroke, Earl Marshal, (1219), by Hubert-de-Burgh, Grand Justiciary, (1222), and by Peter-de-Roches, Bishop of Winchester.

**1230.** An unsuccessful expedition to France is undertaken by Henry.

1236. Henry excites dissatisfaction by his favours to the foreign relatives of Eleanor of Provence, whom he marries.

1242. He enters on a war with Louis VIII. of France, which is terminated by his defeat at Taillebourg and at Saintes.

1258. The barons, led by a foreigner, Simon-de-Montfort, (Earl of Leicester,) in the "Mad Parliament" at Oxford, force the king to sign a treaty, which places the government in the hands of twenty-four of their number.

1263-4. The disputes between Henry and the barons are referred to Louis IX. of France, whose decision the barons refuse to accept, and take the king prisoner at the battle of Lewes.

1265. A parliament is summoned by Simon-de-Montfort, to which, as well as knights of the shire, citizens and burgesses are, for the first time, summoned.

Escape of Prince Edward, who rescues his father at the battle of Evesham, in which Simon-de-Montfort is killed.

1268. The insurgent barons, who had seised the Isle of Ely, are forced to submit.

1270. Departure of Prince Edward for the Crusades, which is soon followed by the death of the king.

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**Accession A.D. 1216.**

**Death . . . 1271.**

**Reign 56 YEARS.**

**Age . . . 65 YEARS.**

### Contemporary Events.

**KINGS OF SCOTLAND.**

Alexander II . . . died A.D. 1249
Alexander III .

**KINGS OF FRANCE.**

Philip II (Augustus) . . . . died A.D. 1223
Louis VIII. (the Lion) . . . . 1226
Louis IX. (Saint) . . . . 1270
Philip III. (the Bold).

**EMPERORS OF GERMANY.**

Otho IV. (son of Henry the Lion) . . . . died A.D. 1218
Frederick (son of Henry VI.) . . . . 1230
Interregnum.

The fifth Crusade is undertaken, (1191.)

Blanche of Castile assumes the regency for her son, (H.I.) Louis IX. of France, (1295.)

The thrones of Leon and Castile are united in the person of Ferdinand the Saint, (1290.)

The Balearic Isles, (Majorca, Minorca, etc,) are gained by James I. of Aragon from the Moors, (1249.)

End of the Moorish kingdom of Cordova, by the conquest of Ferdinand of Castile, (1248.)

The sixth Crusade, Louis IX. is defeated at Mansoura, (1260.)

The Mameluks make themselves masters of Egypt, (1265.)

Alexander III. of Russia, becomes tributary to the Golden Horde, (1284.)

Premilien Ottocar of Bohemia acquires Austria and Moravia.

Richard, Earl of Cornwall, is chosen successor to the Emperor Frederick II. by three of the electors, and Alphonso of Castile by the remainder.

Rise of the heretical sect of the Flagellants, (1260.)

Charles of Anjou receives the investiture of Naples and Sicily, (1263,) and deposes Conradin, the last of the Hohenstaufen, (1266.)

Haco V. of Norway invades Scotland, and is defeated at Largs, (1268.)

The seventh and last Crusade, (1270.)

### NAMES OF NOTE.

- William of Tyre, Hist. . . . . A.D. 1218
- Francis of Assisi, Founder
- The Franciscan Order
- Langton, Archb. . . . . 1228
- W. of Malmesbury, Hist. . . . . 1249
- Alexander Hales, Phil., Hist.
- Grosseteste, Bp. . . . . 1249
- Matthew Paris, Hist.

9. EDWARD I.

Principal Events.

Returns to England, after the lapse of 21 months, and is crowned at Westminster, (10th Aug., 1274).

1276-83. On the refusal of Prince Llewelyn to do homage, he annexes Wales to the English crown, which henceforth confers a title on the King's eldest son.

1286. He decides between the pretensions of the houses of France and of Aragon to the crown of Sicily, and remains abroad three years.

1291-92. Appealed to on the death of Margaret to decide between the claims of the competitors for the crown of Scotland, he asserts his right to it as the feudal lord, and bestows it upon Balliol as his vassal.

1293-96. In consequence of a dispute between some English and French sailors at Bayonne, he enters on a war with Philip IV. of France, who obtains Guienne by treachery.—The French are defeated at sea.

1296. To obtain supplies of money, Edward summons DUNFERMLINE FROM THE BOROUGHS, and thus models the Parliament into the form in which it has continued ever since.

1297. He embarks for Flanders, where he is forced to ratify the "CONFIRMATION OF THE CHARTERS" and the statute " De Tallagio non Concedeendo," granting to Parliament the sole right of raising the supplies.

The English are defeated by the Scots under Wallace near Stirling.

1298. Edward makes peace with France, and marries Margaret, sister of Philip. Guienne is restored in 1305.

He defeats Wallace at Falkirk (22nd July).

1306. He marches northwards to oppose Robert Bruce, and dies near Carlisle (1307).


LONGSHANKS.

Observations.

The stay of Edward I. in the Holy Land was chiefly remarkable for the attempt upon his life by a Mahometan_refreshment—an incident rendered more interesting by the statement of a Spanish writer, that Eleanor sucked the poison from the wound.

Before his return, he visited Rome and Sicily, and engaged in a famous tournament with the Count of Calabria.

On the death of Margaret, called "The Maid of Norway," the right to the crown of Scotland became an object of dispute between the issue of David, Earl of Huntington, brother of William the Lion, who left three daughters. From Margaret, the eldest, was sprung John Balliol; from Isabel, the second, Robert Bruce. The ground on which Bruce, the descendant of the younger sister, opposed the claims of Balliol, was that he was the grandson, while Balliol, removed further by one degree, was only the great-grandson of David. In conformity with the opinion of eminent lawyers, Edward conferred the crown upon Balliol. Great difference of opinion exists as to the justice of the claim to feudal supremacy put forth on this occasion by Edward.

After his defeat at Dunbar, Balliol resigned his claims to Edward, who took possession of Scotland as a forfeited sef, Warren, Earl of SURREY, being appointed governor. The subsequent efforts of Wallace to restore the independence of his country were fruitless, and the attempt of Robert Bruce, grandson of the original claimant, led to the march in which Edward died.

The reign of Edward is marked by two most important measures, forced from him, doubting, by his frequent necessities. As much of the property of the kingdom had now passed from the barons to the citizens, their consent was thought necessary to raise the supplies. For this reason, in the twenty-third year of this reign, the sheriffs were ordered to send to Parliament, with two knights chosen between each borough within their county. Though a similar step had been taken in the reign of Henry III., and already in that of Edward, yet this was the first time that the measure was placed on the permanent footing on which it remained to the present day. To this period, therefore, must be referred the final establishment of the representative principle.

Scarcely less important was the consent given by the Council of Regency, during the absence of Edward, to an addition to Magna Charta, whereby it was provided that no taxes should be levied upon the nation without the consent of Parliament. This measure, which we owe mainly to the influence of the patriotic Archbishop Winchelsea, and to the firmness of the Constable and Marshall, Bohun, Earl of Hereford, and Bigod, Earl of Norfolk, was reluctantly consented to by Edward in Flanders.

Edward established the famous society of Merchant Adventurers; abolished the office of Grand Justiciary; defined the jurisdiction of the Courts of Justice; introduced the practice of entail ing estates; and by the "Statute of Winchester," (1324), laid the foundation for the institution of the Justices of the Peace.

ACCESSION A.D. 1272

DEATH . . . 1307

KING'S OF SCOTLAND.

Alexander III. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . }
10. EDWARD II.

Principal Events.

Succeeds to the throne at the age of twenty-three, and abandons the war with Scotland.

1308. He entrusts the government to his favourite Gaveston, during his visit to France, where he marries Isabel, daughter of Philip the Fair.

Coronation of the king and queen at Westminster, (Feb. 24th).

1310. Edward is forced by the nobles to banish Gaveston, and to vest the government in a council of twelve of their number, called "THE ORDINERS."

1312. Edward recalls Gaveston, who is seized at Scarborough, by Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, (son of Edmund Crouchback,) and is executed.

1314. The English are defeated at BANNOCKBURN by the Scots under Bruce, (25th June).

1315. Edward receives the De Spencers into favour.

1322. The insurgent nobles are defeated at Borough Bridge, and the Earl of Lancaster, who is taken prisoner, is convicted of a treasonable alliance with Bruce, and is beheaded at Pontfret.

1326. Treason of the queen, who, under the influence of Roger Mortimer, a former adherent of Lancaster, raises a foreign army, with which she lands in Suffolk, (24th Sept.), and joins the barons, by whom the De Spencers are seized and executed. Attempted escape of the king, who is captured in Wales.

1327. Usurpation of royal power by the queen, whom a parliament is summoned, which deposes the king, (7th Jan.), who resigns the crown to his son, Edward, (20th Jan.), and is soon after cruelly murdered, (21st Sept.).

EDWARD II received the surname of "CAERNARVON" from the place of his birth. He was the first son of an English sovereign who bore the title of Prince of Wales, an end having been put to the native race of Welsh princes on the execution by Edward I. of David, brother of Llewellyn.

The influence given by the feudal system to the barons, though attended at the time with great evils, and though inconsistent with the conduct of the government under a feeble prince, was, meanwhile, useful in keeping in check the power of an arbitrary sovereign, while it gave time for the middle classes to rise in importance, and for property, by the extension of trade, to pass into their hands.

Under pretence of settling a dispute between her husband and brother about the province of Guienne, Queen Isabel, in the year 1326, visited France. There she collected around her the partizans of the late Earl of Lancaster. To obtain the person of her son, Prince Edward, she proposed that the province of Guienne should be surrendered to him, in order that he might perform homage for it to the French king. To strengthen her cause still further, she dispatched the young prince to Phillips, daughter of William, Count of Hainault, and by the assistance of this noble she obtained the services of three thousand men, with whom she landed at Orwell Haven. She was joined by the Earls of Kent and Norfolk, half-brothers of the king, as well as by the Earl of Leicester, the brother of Lancaster. The opposition to Edward was now formidable. Disappointed in the hope of finding support in the west, whither he at first retired, the king took shipping for Lundy Island, at the mouth of the Bristol Channel. Driven back by adverse winds, he landed at Swansea; but, finding concealment impossible, he, before long, surrendered himself to the barons, and was conducted to the Castle of Kenilworth. From Hereford, where a temporary parliament had been held, Isabel removed to London. The incapacity of Edward was insisted upon by the adherents of the queen in a parliament summoned by her at Westminster. Prince Edward was proclaimed, and the peer, with the exception of four prelates, swore fealty to him.

While the kingdom was torn with internal feuds, Robert Bruce had driven the English out of the greater part of Scotland, and, by the battle of Bannockburn, one of the greatest defeats the English had ever sustained, he established himself on the throne of that country. By the result of this battle, his wife and daughter, who had been prisoners since A.D. 1307, were restored to liberty.

In this reign an alteration was made in what was known as the "Staple." In the fourteenth century, all commodities upon which duties were payable had to be brought to some central place to be measured and taxed, before being exported. This was called the "King's staple." The merchants engaged in this traffic were incorporated by a charter granted by Edward II. (A.D. 1313) as "Merchants of the Staple." The staple had been at first fixed in England, but it was now transferred to Ayr. Before long, however, it was again fixed within the kingdom.

One of the greatest families ever known in England occurred in this reign. It began in 1314, and lasted for three years.

Married, ISABEL of France. Issue, Alphonse, died young.

EDWARD III. (CAERNARVON.)

| A.D. 1307 | DEPOSED A.D. 1327 |
| A.D. 1308 | DEPOSED A.D. 1327 |

Married, ISABEL of France. Issue, Alphonse, died young.

EDWARD III. (CAERNARVON.)

Consorts.

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11. EDWARD III. (OF WINDSOR).

Principal Events.

Is proclaimed king at the age of fourteen, the government during his minority being carried on by the queen-mother and Mortimer.

An unsuccessful war with the Scots is terminated by a treaty recognising the independence of Scotland, which is soon followed by the death of Robert Bruce.

1329. Arbitrary measures of Mortimer, who puts to death the Earl of Kent, brother to the late king.

1330. Edward assumes the government at the age of seventeen.

1333. He supports the claims of Edward, son of John Baliol, to the throne of Scotland against David Bruce, and defeats the Scots at Halidon Hill, (19th July).

1338. He claims the crown of France in right of his mother Isabel, and invades that country without success.

1340. Aided by James Van Artevelde and the Flemings, he gains a great naval victory over the French at Sluys, which is followed by a truce, brought about by the Papal legates.

1341. He summons a parliament which, in return for concessions from the crown, grants him 20,000 sacks of wool.

1344. The Statute of Provisors is passed, prohibiting the presentation by the Pope to vacant ecclesiastical benefices in England.

1346. Edward renew the war with the French, whom he defeats at Cassette, (26th August), and marches to Calais.

The Scots are defeated at Neville’s Cross, (12th October), by Queen Philippa, by whom David Bruce is taken prisoner.

1347. Calais, after a lengthened siege, surrenders to the king, (4th Aug.).

Observations.

On the deposition of Edward II., although a Council of Regency was appointed, all real power was in the hands of Queen Isabel and Mortimer. In his eighteenth year Edward III. resolved to shake off this authority. Mortimer was seized in the castle of Northampton, and was justly condemned for the murder of the late king and other crimes. The queen, whose guilty passion for him was well known, resided during the remainder of her life at the Manor of Rousham.

In the war with Scotland, the Scots were led by the veteran Earl of Douglas, who nearly captured the young king. Crossing by night the river which divided the hostile armies, he deceived the sentinels by imitating the voice of an English knight, and reached the tent of Edward, who was rescued with difficulty by the heroism of his chaplain.

The claim of Edward to the crown of France was founded upon a pretence to the inheritance in right of Isabel, his mother. Philip the Fair had left three sons, all of whom succeeded him, without leaving male issue, and a daughter, Isabel. By a decision of the States, females had been declared incapable of inheriting the French crown. It had, therefore, been conferred on Philip of Valois, nephew of the Fair. Edward contended, that, although females were excluded from the throne, yet this exclusion did not extend to their male descendants; and he maintained that, as the heir male nearest in blood to the late king, Charles IV., he was the lawful successor. It was on this similar ground that Robert Bruce had rested his pretensions to the Scotch throne, and on this ground the crown of Sicily had been awarded by Edward I.

The French campaigns of Edward were at first unsuccessful. At length, after seven years, he gained a signal victory at Cassette, a village on the mouth of the Somme. On the morning of the 26th of August, 1346, Edward drew up the English army in three bodies, on the east side of a gentle hill. The command of the first division was given to Edward, Prince of Wales, then only sixteen. The French lines arrived in confusion in the presence of the English. At three o’clock in the afternoon the attack was commenced by the archers. They were thrown into confusion by the English bowmen, when the foremost lines under the command of Prince Edward became engaged with the French cavalry. So great was the inferiority of numbers on the side of the English, that, in spite of the valour shown by the prince, a knight was sent to ask for aid from the king, who watched the contest from a hill. "No," replied Edward, "tell my son that I intend to leave him all the glory of the victory." The success of the English was decisive. On the side of the French there fell 30,000 men, many of the nobility, and the aged king of Bohemia, whose crest and motto, "Ich Dien," were afterwards adopted by the Prince of Wales.

Edward advanced immediately to Calais, which was bravely defended by John de Wullen, who, after eleven days, was forced by famine to offer terms of surrender. It is said that Edward only accepted these terms on condition that six of the citizens should suffer death, and that their lives were saved by the entreaties of Philip, who arrived at this time at Calais, after the defeat of the Scots at Cassette.

The rejoicings caused by these triumphs were damped by the appearance of a disease called the " Black Death," which swept over Europe. By this plague 50,000 are said to have died in London alone.

ACCESSION A.D. 1327. 
DRATH ... 1377. 
REIGN 50 YEARS. 
AGE 64 YEARS.

Contemporary Events.

KINGS OF SCOTLAND.
Robert (Bruce) I. ... died a.d. 1329.
David II. ... ... 1371.
Robert (Stuart) II. ... ... 1406.

KINGS OF FRANCE.
Charles IV. (the Fair) ... died a.d. 1328.
Philip VI. (of Valois) ... 1328.
John (the Good) ... 1364.
Charles V. (the Wise) ... 1380.

EMPEROR OF GERMANY.
Louis IV. ... died a.d. 1347.
Charles IV. (of Bohemia) ...

Orman is succeeded by Orban as Sultan, (1239).
Rudolph, Earl of Murray, is appointed Regent of Scotland during the minority of David II., (1299).
Rise of the family of Visconti in Milan.
James Van Artevelde, a brewer of Ghent, expels the Count of Flanders and governs that province as a Republic, (1320).
The Swiss Confederation is joined by Lucerne, (1332), Zurich, (1331), Eugan, (1332), and Berne, (1346).
Marriage of Joanna 1, of Naples, fourth in descent from Charles of Anjou, with Andrew of Hungary, (1338), who is assassinated, (1346).
Edward Baliol is expelled from Scotland by the adherents of David II., (1346).
The succession to the Duchy of Brittany is disputed between John de Montfort and Charles de Blois, nephew of Philip of Valois, (1341).
Camon are first used at the battle of Cassette, (1346).
Renal, elected Tyro, attempts to revive the Republic at Venice, (1847).
Accession of Charles the Bad of Navarra, who suppresses the hostility between Edward III. and John of France, (1349).
Dauphiny is united to France, (1349).
The Turks first enter Europe, (1350), take Gallipoli, (1355), and Adrianople, (1366).
Marino Faliero, Doge of Venice, is beheaded, (1356).
The Emperor Charles IV. issues the Golden Bull, which defines the rights of the imperial electors, and reduces their number to seven, (1356).
Commencement of the conquest of Timur the Lame, or Tamerlane, (1387).
Principal Events (continued).


1351. Parliament passes an act, limiting the cases to which the penalty of High Treason is attached.

1355-56. War with France is renewed under Edward Prince of Wales, known as the Black Prince, by whom John of France is taken prisoner at the battle of Poictiers, (19th Sept.).

1357. A treaty, restoring to England all the provinces held in France by Henry II., signed by John, is rejected by the Dauphin, his son, and by the States of France.

1360. Liberation of John, on the conclusion of a second treaty of peace at Bartrony, by which Guienne and other provinces are ceded to the English.—Edward renounces his claim to the crown of France, and the ransom of the French king is fixed at three millions of gold crowns, (about 1,500,000 pounds).

1362. Edward forms Guienne into the principality of Aquitaine, and confines the sovereignty of it on his son, the Black Prince.

1363. From inability to fulfil the conditions of the treaty, John voluntarily returns to England, and dies at the Savoy.

1369. War is renewed with France.

1376. Impeachment by the Commons of Lord Latimer and other ministers of the crown.

Death of the Prince of Wales, followed by reverses of the English, who lose the greater part of their conquests in France.

1377. Unpopularity of the Duke of Lancaster, the fourth son of Edward, (commonly called John of Gaunt,) to whom the government is entrusted during the last year of this reign.

Observations (continued).

In 1350, Philip of France died, and was succeeded by his son, John. Six years later, Edward was induced, by the intrigues of the King of Navarre, again to invade France; the army intended to carry on the war in the south being entrusted to the Black Prince. It was on this occasion, that, after a vain attempt by the clergy to stop the shedding of blood, the battle of Poictiers was fought. The English were again victorious; and, notwithstanding the valour displayed by him, the French king was taken prisoner.

After the conquest of Guienne, the Black Prince lived usually at Bordeaux, where he held his court. He had espoused his cousin Joan, commonly called “The Fair Maid of Kent,” widow of Sir Thomas Holland, daughter of the Duke of Kent who had been beheaded by Mortimer in the beginning of this reign. By her he left a son, afterwards Richard II. The English successes in France were terminated by the death of the prince in 1378, the famous Capital de Buch, his companion in arms, surviving him only a few days.

Parliaments had been regularly summoned since 1296. Though chiefly convened to vote supplies, they usually seized the opportunity to demand a redress of existing grievances. The “maletolte,” or evil toll, on wool was resisted. In 1341, Edward was required to appoint the great officers of state with the advice of his council, and to oblige them to swear to the observance of Magna Carta. The power of the Commons was increasing. Towards the close of this reign they imposed several of the ministers, and obliged the king to remove from court his favourite Alice Pieris, and the Duke of Lancaster.

Another step taken by parliament was to put a check on the system by which the king’s officers seized during his progress the provisions necessary for the royal household,—called the system of purveyance.

Edward III. was forced to confirm Magna Carta fifteen times. It has been ratified no fewer than thirty-six times by successive kings.

French continued in use in the Courts of Law till now. In 1363, Edward endeavoured to make all business, both in English, but be enrolled in Latin, which language continued in use for this purpose for four centuries.

The title of "Duke" was now introduced into England,—a title which we shall find henceforth borne by the sons of the king.

Edward encouraged commerce. The customs of the port of London alone amounted at this time to 1,200 marks per annum, a sum exceeding the total of the customs of all England under Henry III. The chief article of commerce was wool, which was carried to Flanders. The manufacture of wool had been introduced as early as the reign of Henry III., by a colony of Flemings, who settled at Worsted, near Norwich, but it appears to have made hitherto but little progress. Edward, however, taking advantage of the discontent existing among the Flemish weavers, invited some of them to settle in England.

In this reign lived William of Wykeham, who, from the revenues of his see, founded Winchester school, the Hospital of St. Cross, and New College at Oxford; Chaucer, who may be called the father of English poetry; and Wycliffe, whose views are thought by some to resemble those afterwards held by the reformers.

Contemporary Events (continued).

Political events are happily recorded in the chronicles. The events connected with the campaign of the Black Prince in favour of Pedro the Cruel, belong rather to Spanish than to English history.

Names of Note.

Langet, Poet. . . . . died a.d. 1377
Trivel, Hist. . . . . 1228
W. Durandus, Theol. . . . . 1333
Gott, Painter. . . . . 1336
Nicholas de Lyra, Theol. . . . . 1340
Richard of Burny, Hist. . . . . 1343
Orrbolt, Phil. . . . . 1347
G. Villani, Hist. . . . . 1346
Beadwine, Anon. . . . . 1349
Tanier, Theol. . . . . 1350
Berth, Trionis . . . . 1354
Ralph Hueden, Hist. . . . . 1350
Sir John Manviselle, Traveller. . . . . 1373
Petrarch, Poet. . . . . 1374
Boccaccio, Anth-r of the "Incommerces" . . . . 1375
Langland, Poet. E.


12. RICHARD II.  (BORDEAUX).

**Principal Events.**

The only surviving son of the Black Prince, succeeds to the throne at the age of eleven, a council of fifteen being appointed during his minority.

1381. An insurrection on account of a poll tax levied to carry on the wars with France and Scotland, headed by Wat Tyler and Jack Straw, which is quelled by the courage and address of the young king.

1382. Richard marries Anne of Bohemia.

1383. A fruitless expedition into Scotland.

1386. The king is deprived of the royal power by Thomas, Duke of Gloucester, who appoints a Commission of fourteen to carry on the government.

1388. Sir Simon Burley, Chief Justice Treasilian and the judges who declare the late Commission to be illegal, are impeached by five Lords Appellant before the parliament, known as the "Merciless Parliament," and are executed.

1389. Richard obtains possession of the government, and removes from office the Duke of Gloucester, who dies, some years later, at Calais.

1393. A new statute against Provisors, called that of Premunire, is passed.

1396. Richard makes peace with France, and marries Isabel, daughter of Charles VI.

1397. Parliament annuls the acts of the late Commission.


1399. He embarks to quell an insurrection in Ireland, leaving the Duke of York guardian of the realm.

He returns to oppose the invasion of Bolingbroke (now Duke of Lancaster), who lands at Ravenspur. Seized at Flint by the Earl of Northumberland, Richard is given up to Bolingbroke, is deposed by parliament (19th Sept.), and is sent a prisoner to Pontefract Castle, where he is afterwards murdered.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Accession 1377.</th>
<th>Reign 22 Years.</th>
<th>Reign 34 Years.</th>
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**Observations.**

The rising spirit of liberty in Europe, which had led to efforts on the part of the commons in Flanders and in France to extend their rights, was felt also in England. Though many of their demands were just, the conduct of the insurgents in this reign was marked by great violence. The archbishop, Simon Bolingbroke, and many persons of rank were murdered by them. At this crisis, Richard, only fifteen years old, granted them a conference at Smithfield. During the interview, Wat Tyler, while threatening the king, was killed by Walworth, the Lord Mayor, and Richard, by assuming the office of leader, restrained the insurgents from further violence. The promise of vigour shown by Richard on this occasion was not realised during the rest of his reign; and his partiality to De Vere (Earl of Oxford), and De la Pole (Earl of Suffolk), added to the unpopularity caused by his extra tyranny and exactions. Suffolk was impeached, and De Vere, who was created Duke of Ireland, was forced to the Duke of Gloucester to flee to Flanders, (a.d. 1385), where he died some years later.

The hostilities with Scotland during this reign arose mainly from the rivalry of the powerful nobles who lived on each side of the border. Chief on the English side were the Percies of Alnwick, the head of which family had been created Earl of Northumberland. Henry, his eldest son, was, from his value, summoned Hotspur. To him was opposed the Earl of Douglas at the battle of Otterburn, or Chervy Chase (1388), in which, though Douglas was killed, Hotspur was made prisoner by the Scots.

Among the chief causes of the difficulties of this reign must be mentioned the ambition of the family of the Dukes of Lancaster and Gloucester. The power obtained by the latter was short-lived, and the execution of Sir Simon Burley, the companion in arms of the Black Prince, casts a lasting disgrace upon his memory. The charge of the Gloucester was murdered in prison by the orders of Richard rests on insufficient evidence.

The efforts of the Duke of Lancaster were, after 1386, chiefly directed towards the acquisition of the throne of Castile by right of his second wife, Constancia. By his first wife, Blanche, daughter of the Earl of Lancaster, he left a son, Henry of Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford, known in history as Henry IV. He had, also, by his third wife, Catherine Swinford, two sons, who took the name and coat of arms from the place of their birth.

In 1396, the Duke of Lancaster died, and his estates were seized by the king. Under pretence of recovering his inheritance, Hereford collected some forces in Brittany, and landed in Yorkshire. He was joined by the Percys and other nobles, and was soon at the head of 50,000 men. Richard, on his return from Ireland, landed at Milford Haven, and soon fell into the power of his ambitious rival. A parliament was summoned, thirty-five articles of impeachment were brought against Richard, and the unfortunate king publicly resigned the crown, which was assumed by Henry.

In 1394, the crown had been settled on the rightful heir of Richard, Roger Mortimer, son of Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, by his wife Philippa, eldest daughter of Lionel of Clarence, the third son of Edward III. Roger fell in the Irish wars. His two sons died without issue, but his daughter married the son of the Duke of York, the fifth son of Edward III., and Richard, the issue of this marriage, inherited the claims of Lionel.

**Contemporary Events.**

**Kings of Scotland.**

Robert I. died 1306
Robert II. 1306-1329
Robert III. 1329-1342

**Kings of France.**

Charles V. (the Wise) died 1380
Charles VI. 1380-1422

**Emperors of Germany.**

Charles IV. . . . died 1378
Wenceslaus (son).

**Commencement of the great schemes of the West by the election of Urban VI., and Clement VII., (1316-1417).**

Wenceslaus, son of the Emperor Charles IV., inherits Bohemia, (1318).

Charles III. of Durazzo obtains Naples, (1311), which he leaves to his son Ladislas. Louis the Great is succeeded in Hungary by his son, Louis the mad, married to Sibyl, and grandson of Charles IV., (1343).

Accession of John I. of the house of Aviz, who establishes the independence of Portugal by the victory of Aljubarrota over the Castilians, (1385).

Leopold of Austria is defeated by the Switz at Sempach, (1386).

Accession of the house of Jagello in Poland by the marriage of Hedwig, daughter of Louis the Great, with Ladislas (II.) of Lithuania, which hitherto is married to Poland, (1386).

Margaret of Waldeck or Denmark, widow of Hao, on the death of her son Olof, becomes Queen of Norway, (1387). The Cape of Good Hope is discovered, (1394).

Sigismund of Hungary, with a considerable army of French and the Koths of Mohacs, is defeated at Nicopolis by Djanets, (1397).

**Names of Note.**

Matthew of Westminster, Historian, died a.d. 1390
Brendan da Quencolin, Constable, 1310
Simon of Sudbury, Archb., 1316
Wyril, Social., 1374
H. Knighton, Hist., 1395
J. Bardouet, Poet., 1399

Married, 1st, Anne of Bohemia, died a.d. 1394. Married, 2ndly, Isabel of France.
REMARKS ON THE PLANTAGENET LINE.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The era of the Plantagenets is remarkable as that in which our constitution and laws arose, to a great extent, the character which they wear at the present time. It will be well, therefore, briefly to review the chief legislative changes introduced under the successive kings of this line.

From the necessity for punishing offences at a distance from the usual place of meeting of the king's court, the country was divided by Henry II. into six circuits, which were visited two or three times in the year by justices appointed by the king to try all causes in his name. Another important change was effected by Henry—the offer to the complainant or defendant in a civil action of the choice of a trial by a special kind of jury of sixteen, instead of that by the barbarous Norman Wager of Battle. In this reign a payment of money was first substituted for personal military service, (A.D. 1169).

In the reign of John, the rigour of the Fudal System and of the Forest Laws led to the successful demand on the part of the prelates and barons for Magna Charta and the Charter of Forests. Of the first of these celebrated enactments, the most important conditions were:—that the Church should retain all her liberties inviolate;—that no one should be levied from the tenants of the crown without their previous consent, (a clause omitted in the reign of Henry III. and only restored by Edward I.);—that the king should not sell or refuse right to any man;—that no freeman should be imprisoned or lose his land but by the lawful judgment of his peers, nor be amerced beyond measure for his faults, saving always to the freeholder his freehold, and to the husbandman his implements of husbandry;—that every freeman should have liberty to quit the kingdom, unless in time of war; and that every liberty which the king granted to his tenants should be observed by the king's tenants to their tenants. Till the reign of John, the superior courts of law had followed the person of the king, and accompanied him in his progresses. It was now enacted that "Common Pleas," i.e., pleas between subjects, should "no longer follow the royal court, but be held in some certain place." As the Justices en Eyre appointed by Henry II. made their circuits at uncertain times, it was ordered that they should visit each county four times in the year.

The concessions granted by John in the Great Charter were, with a few exceptions, ratified by his successor, Henry III. In the reign of the latter the important step was also taken, in the parliament convened by Leicester, of summoning citizens to the Great Council,—a plan, however, which, on the fall of Leicester, was, for a time, abandoned.

Two other changes during the reign of Henry III. deserve mention. To him we owe the abolition of the trial by ordeal, which, though it had been prohibited by the popes before the Conquest, had been still retained by the northern nations. In the letter to the justices in which it was forbidden, Henry gives as the reason, that it had been declared by the law of the Church to be an invention of Satan against the commandment, "thou shalt not tempt the Lord thy God." To this prince, also, was owing an important change in criminal trials,—the extension to the accused of the privilege granted to the suitors in civil causes by Henry II., namely, that of having the question of fact as to their innocence decided by a jury of their countrymen, instead of the trial by Wager of Battle. The offer

was, in most cases, gladly accepted, and thus arose the institution of trial by jury in criminal cases. The constitution of juries anciently was, however, very different from what it now is. They were called upon to give their verbi dicatur, (or verdict), their true saying upon the cause from their own personal knowledge of the facts. They were, therefore, themselves properly witnesses, and not judges, as at present, of the credibility of the evidence of others.

The reign of Edward I. is important in the constitutional history of the country. In A.D. 1297, he was forced to sign the "Confirmation of the Charters;" to the former enactments of which was added the clause, that "no tallage or aid should henceforth be levied without the consent of the knights, citizens and burgesses, assembled in parliament." By this celebrated enactment it was provided that Magna Charta and the Charter of Forests should be made public by the sheriffs and magistrates,—that all judgments contrary to them should be void,—that the bishops should read them publicly twice in the year, and should pronounce sentence of excommunication against all who should violate any article contained in them. It was afterwards enacted that three knights of each county should be empowered to punish every offence against them. At the same time the boundaries of the royal forests were fixed.

By the Statute of Winchester, (A.D. 1284), the ancient custom of establishing watch and ward from sunset to sunrise was revived—the hundred was made responsible for all robberies committed in it, and the underwood was ordered to be cleared on each side of the highroads. Certain knights in each shire, called Conservators of the Peace, were appointed to see the statute enforced, and when, in the course of the next reign, their powers were extended, their title was changed to that of Justices of the Peace.

As land held by corporate bodies was free from alienation, and from many of the contributions by which the revenues of the feudal lords were maintained, it was the policy of the prince and the nobles to discourage the acquisition of it by such bodies. Accordingly, an act known as the Statute of Mortmain was passed during this reign, (A.D. 1279), restricting the alienation of land to religious houses or other corporate bodies.

Until this period, every owner of a fee could acquire manorial rights by granting portions of the land on condition of military service. By the Statute Quia Emptores, (A.D. 1290), sub-infeudation was prohibited. The origin of all existing manors must, therefore, be traced to a period earlier than the eighteenth of Edward I.

Another statute of this reign deserves mention,—the Statute De Dominiis,—which, by allowing land to be entailed, tended greatly to increase the power of the aristocracy, (A.D. 1264).

As it is to the reign of Edward I. that we must refer the permanent establishment of the representative system, it may be well to say here a few words as to the successive changes which the Great Council underwent before it assumed its present form of Lords and Commons. Under the first Norman kings it consisted only of those who held their lands immediately from the crown. The presence of the more wealthy only of these vassals
was generally enforced, while the attendance of the lesser barons or knights was, except on rare occasions, dispensed with. But here, in course of time, a change was introduced, which led to the representation of the counties, and ultimately to the separation of the two Houses. When at times the presence of the lesser tenants of the crown was thought advisable to give sanction to changes in the laws or to the votes of supplies, the step was adopted of ordering them to send up a certain number from each county, who should act as representatives of the rest, and bind by their votes the whole body. As, by the writs issued for their election, they were ordered to be chosen by all who owed suit and service in the county courts, and as these consisted not only of the immediate tenants of the crown, but of the free tenants of inferior lords, the knights of the shire became, in fact, the representatives of all the land-owners in the county.

There remained still one class not represented, namely, the inhabitants of the cities. We have seen that, by the feudal system, the barons and knights were bound, as the condition of their tenure, to attend the king in war. This personal attendance was exchanged, in time, for payments in money. One object in calling parliament together was to agree upon the amount of these payments, called Scutages. It was now felt that the cities, some of which had risen to considerable importance, should contribute their share towards the defence of the nation. It was in accordance with national usage, that the sum to be levied should be fixed by representatives of the class by whom the tax was to be paid. To agree, therefore, upon the amount of the payments, called Ta retal s, to be levied upon them, Edward I., in the twenty-third year of his reign, summoned members from one hundred and ten cities. The new members, who at first sat separately, voted more than the barons and knights of the shire; and so successful was the experiment, that the number of deputies from the boroughs was increased.

We have thus traced the introduction into the Great Council of the three bodies which now constitute the Houses of Lords and Commons, but a further change has to be noticed before they assumed their present form. Although the knights of the shire, being of the same rank with the barons, sat at first with them, they voted their aids separately. As they had, however, in common with the deputies from the boroughs, a representative character, it was not unnatural that they should, in the course of time, become associated with the latter. This union at length took place, though when it was effected is doubtful. The important results traceable to the union of the knights of the shire with the borough representatives will be best understood from the subsequent events of English history.

The feeble reign of Edward II. proved favourable to the increase of popular rights. Few supplies were granted to the crown. A measure passed in 1311, abolished altogether the new customs imposed by Edward I. One important constitutional enactment of this reign deserves mention. In a renewal of the Great Charter, a provision was added, that "a parliament should be held, at least, once every year." At this time commenced, also, the "Year Books," in which reports of the cases adjudged in the courts of law were recorded.

In consequence of his frequent wars, Edward III., notwithstanding the vigour of his character, was frequently forced to make concessions favourable to the liberties of the nation. In the preamble of the statutes in this reign, express mention is made of the concurrence of the Commons in their enactment. We have already traced the increased power of this body in their impeachment of the ministers of the crown, (A.D. 1378). In 1341, the assent of the king was required to a provision, that he should appoint the great officers of state with the advice of his council. It was also enacted, that, at the commencement of each session, he should resume their offices into his own hand, when the ministers should be answerable for any charges against them. Although Edward made a secret protest, and even obtained a repeal of this statute, yet such steps were not without effect in keeping alive the spirit of freedom. We must mention, also, the statute passed in the "Blessed Parliament," (A.D. 1351), limiting the cases, before vague and uncertain, to which the penalty of High Treason was attached, and prohibiting its extension to any other case without the sanction of parliament.

The second instance of parliamentary impeachment occurs in the reign of Richard II. The deposition indeed of this prince, as well as that of his predecessor, Edward II., was formally effected by parliament. But the power of this body to bring about these changes was, probably, owing to the presence among the barons of those great nobles who were able to overshadow the crown, rather than to any clearly recognised principles of constitutional right. During the reign of Richard II. was passed the Statute of Puisne—the most stringent of the enactments intended to check the practice by which the Popes claimed the right to present to certain ecclesiastical benefices in England.

ARCHITECTURE. During the period of the Plantagenets architecture greatly increased in beauty. The semi-circular Norman arch was now replaced by the pointed arch. The Early English style, in which this feature first became prevalent, is considered to have been introduced in the reign of Richard I., (A.D. 1189), and it continued to be employed to the end of that of Edward I., a period of about a century: a fine specimen of this style is Salisbury cathedral. It then gave way to a style called the Decorated, which continued from the beginning of the reign of Edward II. till the close of that of Edward III., (A.D. 1377). To this period,—the most beautiful, perhaps, of Christian architecture,—is to be ascribed the erection of the Lantern and Lady-chapel of Ely, the Chapter-houses of York and Wells, and the Choir of Lincoln cathedral. In the reign of Richard II., the Decorated was succeeded by the Perpendicular, or Later English, which terminated in considerable purity till the reign of Henry VII. Of the Early Perpendicular, the Nave of Winchester and the Choir of York cathedrals may be mentioned as examples; while the Chapel of Henry VII. at Westminster is a specimen of the later Perpendicular.

ANNALES. In addition to the annals already named which extend into this period, we may mention those of Matthew of Westminster to A.D. 1377, Walsingham, (1273—1425), William of Worcester, (1324—1491), and Wethamstede, (1441—1460); the Annales of Dunstable; the Chronicles of Otterbourne, and Lanercost; and the histories of Froissart, Roux, W. Hemingford, T. Wilkes, H. Knighton, and Robert of Avesbury.
13. HENRY IV. (OF LANCASTER).

Principal Events.

The only son of John of Ghent, by his first wife, Blanche, (great-granddaughter of Edmund Crouchback, Earl of Lancaster), ascends the throne on the deposition of Richard II. (6th Oct.), and is crowned at Westminster, (13th Oct.). — Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, who had been declared by parliament heir to the late king, is confined at Windsor.

1400. A conspiracy of the Earls of Kent, Huntingdon, and Salisbury, who had been degraded by Henry for their fidelity to the late king, is suppressed.

1401. Severe measures are passed against the Lollards, by which it is enacted, that any who obstinately adhere to the views of that sect are to suffer death by the civil power.

Revolt of Owen Glendower, who maintains for some years his independence in Wales.

1402. Marriage of the king with Jane of Navarre.

A summons to Robert of Scotland to do homage is followed by an invasion of England by the Scots, who are defeated by the Percies on Nunsthorpe Moor, (22nd June), and at Homildon Hill, (14th Sept.).

1403. An insurrection in favour of the Earl of March by Owen Glendower and the Earl of Northumberland, whose son, Henry Hotspur, is defeated and slain near Shrewsbury, (21st July). — The Earl of Northumberland is pardoned.

1405. Execution of the Earl of Nottingham and Archbishop Scrope on a charge of treason.

1411-12. Henry alternately supports the cause of the Burgundians and the Orleanists in the civil war in France.

Accession A.D. 1399. Death ... 1413. Reign 14 years. Age 46 years.

Observations.

A representative of the House of Lancaster now sits upon the throne. The presence, rather hinted at, however, as expressed, on which Henry IV. rested his claim to the crown, was that Edmund Crouchback, from whom on his mother’s side he was descended, was really the eldest son of Henry III., though, from some deformity in his person, he had been set aside for his brother, Edward I.

The history of this reign presents little but the record of a series of plots. The history of this reign presents little but the record of a series of plots. The conspiracy of Lords Kent and Salisbury, which had for its object the restoration to the throne of the deposed monarch, was betrayed by an accomplice, the Earl of Rutland. Its discovery was followed by the death of Richard, who had until this time been confined a prisoner at Pontefract Castle, (A.D. 1400).

The hostility of the Percies was, probably, caused by the refusal of the king to allow the ransom of their relative, Sir E. Mortimer, who had been made prisoner by the Welsh, then in arms under Owen Glendower. Hotspur made common cause with Glendower and with the younger Douglas, who had been defeated by the English at Homildon Hill. Few contests in those ages were more severe than the conflict which followed between Henry and his former supporter, Hotspur. The king was wounded in the battle. His son, Prince Henry, not more than fifteen, fought gallantly by the side of his father, and Hotspur was killed.

The fate of another victim to the troubles of this reign. — Archbishop Scrope, whose brother, the Earl of Wiltshire, had been already beheaded for his fidelity to the late king, must be regarded with different feelings. He had taken no part in raising Henry to the throne, and he joined the Earls of Northumberland and Nottingham, and Lord Bardolf, in demanding a redress of grievances. Persuaded to disperse their followers on the promise that their demands should be granted, the Archbishop and Nottingham were treacherously seized, and sentence of death was ordered to be passed upon them. Chief Justice Gascoyne nobly refused to carry out the orders of the king, and a more time-serving judge was appointed, by whom they were condemned without any form of trial. Lords Northumberland and Bardolf, who escaped, ventured to resume the struggle, and fell, three years later, on Bramham Moor, in Yorkshire, (A.D. 1408).

In his latter years, Henry suffered from attacks of epilepsy. The last fit seized him in Westminster Abbey, and he died in the Jerusalem Chamber.

The doubtful nature of the king’s title, and his necessities for supplies arising from the frequent conspiracies, gave to Parliament opportunities of confirming their rights. In the grants made by them a clause was inserted that the king could not lawfully raise aids without the previous assent of the Lords and Commons.

The throne of Scotland was now filled by Robert III., the first prince of the line of Stuart. Accident placed in the power of the English king the heir to the Scotch throne, who was captured while on his voyage to France, whither he had been sent by his father, in consequence of the ambitious designs of his uncle, the Regent Duke of Albany.

Kings of Scotland.
Robert III. ... died A.D. 1406
James I.

King of France.
Charles VI.

Empires of Germany.
Wenceslaus ... deceased A.D. 1419
John of Bavaria ... died 1417
Sigismund, (brother of Wenceslaus).

Marriage of Mary, daughter of Frederick III., of Sicily, with Martin the Younger of Arragon, (1431).
Battle of Agincourt, in which Basset is defeated and captured by Tamerlane, (1402).
The power of the Visconti in Milan descends, (1402).
The insanity of Charles VI., of France leads to a contest between the Dukes of Burgundy and Orleans for the Regency, (1404).
The Duke of Albany, brother of Robert III., usurps the sovereignty in Scotland, and dies in the service, David, (1406).
The Isle of Man is granted to Sir J. Stanley.
The Pope is concurred by the Florentines.
James, the son of Robert III. of Scotland, is captured by the English on his voyage to France, (1406).
The Duke of Orleans is assassinated by the Duke of Burgundy, (1477).
The dominions of the Habsburgs spread in Bohemia, (1409).
The Teutonic Knights are defeated by the Poles at Tannenberg, (1410).
Ferdinand the Just, nephew of Martin, succeeds to Arragon and Sicily, (1412).

NAMES OF NOTE.
Chaucer, Poet ... died A.D. 1400
Cromwell, Earl ... 1385
Gower, Poet ... 1391
William of Wykeham, Bishop ... 1404
Andrew of Wyntoun, Poet ... 1408

14. HENRY V.

Principal Events.

The eldest son of the late king, is crowned at Westminster (9th April).

1414. A conspiracy to seize the king at Eltham by Sir J. Oldcastle, (Lord Cobham), who escapes, but, three years later, joining in the invasion of England by the Scots, is seized and put to death.

Henry renews the claim of Edward III. to the crown of France.

1415. A rising in favour of the Earl of March by Richard, Earl of Cambridge, cousin of the king, and by Lord Scrope, both of whom are executed.

Henry invades France, and gains the victory of Agincourt.

1417. After a truce of two years, he renews the war with France, successfully besieges Rouen, and gains Normandy.

1420. Aided by the partizans of the Duke of Burgundy, Henry concludes a treaty at Troyes, the conditions of which are:—1st, that he is to receive in marriage the French Princess Catherine, 2nd, that he is to be regent during the life of Charles, and 3rd, that he is to succeed to the crown of France on the death of that prince.

1421. He returns to England, whence he is recalled in consequence of the defeat of the Duke of Clarence by the Dauphin with the aid of a Scotch auxiliary force, under the Earl of Buchan, at Beaulieu.


Observations.

The irregularity of conduct which had marked the early years of Henry V., and which, on one occasion, had met with punishment from the fearless Chief Justice Gageyne, was laid aside on his accession to the throne, when he exhibited proofs of ability as a statesman and a general. He liberated from prison the Earl of March, the rightful heir to the throne, and caused the body of Richard II. to be buried at Westminster. The son of Hotspur was restored to his honours.

The disputes for the regency in France caused by the madness of Charles VI., led to civil war between the adherents of John of Burgundy and the Orleansists, who, from the father-in-law of the young Duke of Orleans, were called "Armagnacs." Henry IV., by alternately siding with one or the other of these parties, had succeeded in regaining some of the French provinces formerly held by England. But the present king determined to pursue more vigorous measures, and landed in Normandy with 30,000 men, (Aug., 1415). He invested and took Harfleur, and then, with his forces wasted by disease, marched towards Calais. Meanwhile an army under D'Albret, the Constable of France, had assembled at Abbeville. The position of Henry was full of peril. He tried, but in vain, to cross the ford by which Edward III. had passed to Creasy, and on the evening of the 24th October he came in sight of the hostile army. The battle commenced on the morrow. The French lost 10,000 men. The Constable was among the slain, and the Dukes of Orleans and Bourbon were made prisoners. Decisive as was the victory, it was followed by a truce. The assassination, however, within two years, of the Duke of Burgundy afforded a favourable opportunity for Henry to advance his projects, and the unnatural alliance between the French queen and Philip of Burgundy against the Dauphin was the means of enabling Henry to dictate the terms of the Treaty of Troyes, by which the crown of England was united to that of France. The further successes, however, of the English over the Dauphin, who did not surrender the conflict, were put an end to by the death of Henry, but not before his queen had given birth to a son.

The severe measures enacted in this and the former reign against the party known by the name of Lollards, seem to have proceeded as much from political as religious motives. Some of the members of this party appear to have held views, at least in the opinion of their opponents, destructive of the rights of property, and which alarmed the laity as to the security of their own possessions. Thus in its petitions the parliament states, that "dive persons have moved the people to take away from the clergy their temporal possessions, of which they are as surely possessed as the lords temporal are of theirs," and expresses its fears, that "their next step will be to excite the people to take away from the said lords their temporal possessions." The steps of Lord Cobham, Sir J. Acton and others certainly gave colour to these charges, and shew that they did not rest altogether on groundless fears.

The widow of Henry, Catherine of Valois, married, after a few years, Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman. By him she left a son, Edmund, Earl of Richmond, the father of Henry VI.

Married, Catherine of Valois. Issue, HENRY (VI.).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accession a.d. 1413</th>
<th>Regn 9 Years.</th>
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<td>Death . . 1422</td>
<td>Age . 34 Years.</td>
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Contemporary Events.

KING OF SCOTLAND.
James I.

KING OF FRANCE.
Charles VI.

EMPEROR OF GERMANY.
Sigismund.

Louis is succeeded in Naples by his sister, Joanna II., (1414).

The Council of Constance is held, which terminates the great schism of the West by the election of Martin (Colonna) V., (1414-1418).

John Hun is beheaded at Constance, (1415).

Aeneas the Peaceful, the first Duke of Berry, (1416).

Ferdinand of Sicily is succeeded by his son, Alphonse V. of Aragon, (1416).

The Huitistes of Schamisau take arms, (1410).

The party of the Duke of Burgundy prevails in France.—The Court of Armagnac and many adherents of the Duke of Orleans are massacred, (1416).

Urbino is assigned to the Duke of Montfort, (1418).

The death of John the Fearful, Duke of Burgundy, by the adherents of the Dauphin, (1419).

The island of Madeira is discovered, (1419).

Accession of Amurath II., (1413).

Names of Note.

W. Gageyne, Chief Justices R. . . . d. a.d. 1413
J. Lydgate, Poet . . . R. = 1410
W. Langham, Historian. R. = 1428
Leonardo Bruni, Historian, &c.

55
15. HENRY VI.

Principal Events.

The only son of Henry V. succeeds to the throne at the age of eleven months, his education being entrusted to his great uncle, Cardinal Beaufort; the Duke of Bedford being appointed Regent of France, and the Duke of Gloucester Protector of England.

1423. The French are defeated at Cravant, and at Vernouillo, (1424).

1429. Orleans is besieged by the English, but is relieved by Joan of Arc.

Defeat of the English at Patay.

1430. Henry is crowned at Paris, at the age of nine years.


1444. A truce for two years is concluded with Charles VII. of France.

Marriage of the king with Margaret of Anjou.


1449. Renewal of the war with France.

Loss of Normandy and Guienne, followed by the imprisonment and execution of De la Pole, Earl of Suffolk.

An insurrection headed by John Cade who personates the son of John Mortimer, uncle of the Earl of March, is suppressed.

1452. Dissensions between the Dukes of York and Somerset.


1455. Restoration of Somerset to power, on the recovery of the king, which leads to the commencement of civil war.

15. HENRY VI.

Observations.

The young king was, at first, left in the charge of his mother, Queen Catherine, widow of Henry V., but on her second marriage he was, in his third year, con-

ceived to the Dame Alice Boteler, to whom the infant monarch was made to give authority by special warrant to chastise him from time to time, “as

necessity and case may require.” In his seventh year, he was entrusted to the charge of Richard Beauchamp, Earl of Warkworth.

Henry VI., a prince whose personal virtues gained the respect even of his enemies, treated the sons of his mother by her second marriage as his brothers, creating Edmund, the elder, Earl of Richmond, and Jasper, Earl of Pembroke.

The success which, in the first years of this reign, attended the English arms at Cravant and at Vernouillo, and in a battle fought in defence of an English convey, known as the “Battle of the Herrings,” was soon checked by the heroism of a peasant girl, Joan of Arc. This remarkable woman, seconded by the able Danilo, headed the French army, repulsed the English from Orleans and opened the way to Rheims, where the Dauphin, (Charles VII.), was crowned in 1429. Within a few years, the Duke of Burgundy, indignant at the claims put forward by the Duke of Gloucester, in right of his wife Jacqueline, withdrew from the English alliance; and the conclusion of the Treaty of Arras between Charles and this powerful noble was soon followed by the death of the able Bedford. The war between England and France, interrupted in 1445 by a short truce, was resumed in 1449; and, although the honour of the English arms was gallantly supported by the valiant Talbot, (Earl of Shrewsbury), yet, in a few years, all the English possessions in France, except Calais, were lost. The execution of the “Maid of Orleans” at Rouen, on a charge of witchcraft, after her surrender by the Burgundians to the English, is, perhaps, the only blot on the regency of the Duke of Bedford.

Meanwhile the English court had been divided between the parties of the Duke of Gloucester and his uncle, Cardinal Beaufort. By the influence of the latter, the marriage of Henry with Margaret of Anjou had been effected, during the temporary peace which had been concluded with France, and a secret agreement had been made to cede to her father the provinces of Maine and Anjou.

The hostility of Margaret at length brought about the disgrace of Gloucester, and his death, which took place soon after, (a.d. 1447), was attributed by many, though on insufficient grounds, to violent means. The cardinal survived the duke only six weeks, and the death of these two men, who, though rivals for power, united in upholding the interests of the House of Lancaster, was a serious blow to the cause of the provinces of Maine and Anjou, and the reverses which had attended the English arms in France, on the renewal of hostilities with that country, rendered the government unpopular, the minister, De la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, was impeached; and, although he received a pardon, he was intercepted in his retreat to the Continent, and was beheaded by some sailors. Dissatisfaction became general; and an insur-

rection broke out in Kent, headed by Cade, whose followers, after having com-

mitted one of the most daring and wildest acts of violence, the Oath of保荐, was discovered, (1444).

Death of Philip Mars, the last of the family of the Viscounts, which is succeeded at Milan by that of Sforza.

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Principal Events (continued).

First battle of St. Albans, in which Somerset is killed (22nd May) while the king is allowed to retain the royal dignity.


1461. Battle of Northampton, (10th July), in which the royal forces are defeated by Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, after which it is agreed that the king should retain the crown during his life, and that the family of York should succeed.

Battle of Wakefield Green, Yorkshire, (30th Dec.), in which the Duke of York falls.

1461. Battle of Mortimer's Cross, Herefordshire, (2nd Feb.), in which the royalists are defeated by Edward, Earl of March, the eldest son of the Duke of York.

Second battle of St. Albans, (17th Feb.), in which the Earl of Warwick is defeated by the forces of the queen.

Entrance of Edward into London, (23rd Feb.), which is followed by the deposition of Henry.

Observations (continued).

Crown, was the representative of the line of the third son of Edward III., which had been dispossessed by the descendants of the fourth son, John of Ghent. A just cause of complaint was now added to the hereditary claims of the duke. His personal merits had endeared him to the nation, while his cause had powerful support in the Nevilles, the relatives of his wife. To these causes we may, probably, trace the steps by which the House of York ascended the throne.

When Somerset, on his return from France, succeeded to the chief power, the Duke of York joined in the recreation of general discontent. The measures, however, of the duke were still marked by moderation, being directed only to the removal of Somerset from office. When, after recourse was had to arms, into which the king was forced by Somerset, the latter fell at the battle of St. Albans, Henry was allowed to retain the crown. On the renewal of civil war, the superiority of the Yorkists was established at the battles of Blore Heath and Northampton; after which an agreement was made alike honourable to the Duke of York and to the amiable but unfortunate Henry. The subsequent conduct of Queen Margaret in maintaining the claims of her son, Prince Edward, rendered, however, all idea of a peaceful settlement hopeless. The battles of Wakefield Green and Mortimer's Cross followed. By the fall of the Duke of York in the former, and by the murder of his second son, the young Earl of Rutland, some pretext was, perhaps, given for the severity afterwards shown towards the Lancastrians by Edward, Earl of March, on whom the rights of the House of York devolved. The success gained over the Yorkists by the queen in the second battle of St. Albans did not prevent the triumphal entry of Edward into London, nor the deposition of Henry.

The claims of the rival houses of York and Lancaster, which, from the badges assumed by their followers, were respectively known as the White and Red Roses, will be best understood by a reference to the Table which is given below.

Contemporary Events (continued).

Dissolution of the union of Calais, (1463).

Christian I. of Denmark, the first of the House of Oldenburg or Holstein, (1444), acknowledged in Norway, (1460), giveth the turkeys and Scotland ires, as the dowers of his daughter Margaret, to James III. of Scotland, (1468).

Mahomet II. takes Constantinople, (1453), and puts an end to the Empire of the East, which had lasted since A.D. 896.

Matthias Corvinus Hunlades is chosen King of Hungary, (1440).

Theodore Sylvis is elected Pope under the title of Pius II.

James II. of Scotland is killed, while besieging Hexham, (1460).

Makers of Note.

Peter D'Alby, Phil. died A.D. 1433
Germaine, Theol. died A.D. 1435
James I. of Scotland, Poet died A.D. 1437
J. Van Eyk, Painter died A.D. 1441
Masaccio died A.D. 1457
Crichly, Archbp. died A.D. 1445
L. Arsina, Hist. died A.D. 1446
Brunelleschi, Archit. died A.D. 1446
Quentin Marys, Painter died A.D. 1490
Albert Chartier, Poet died A.D. 1486
Petrus, Hist. died A.D. 1496
Savonarola, Phil. died A.D. 1498

Married, Margaret of Anjou. Issue, Edward, Prince of Wales, killed at Tewkesbury.

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<tr>
<th>Edward III.</th>
<th>His sons were</th>
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<td>Lionel, Duke of Clarence</td>
<td>John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, By Blanche of Lancaster, By Catherine Swinford</td>
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<td>Richard II., (Deposed, 1399)</td>
<td>Henry IV.</td>
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<td>Henry V.</td>
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<td>Roger Mortimer, Earl of March</td>
<td>Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York</td>
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<tr>
<td>Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York</td>
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<td>Edward IV., (White Rose)</td>
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<td>Elizabeth of York</td>
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16. EDWARD IV. (OF YORK).

Principal Events.

The eldest surviving son of Richard Plantagenet (Duke of York), is proclaimed king, at the age of twenty, (4th March).

Battle of Tewkesbury, (4th May), in which Queen Margaret and her son Prince Edward are taken prisoners, the latter of whom is put to death.

1475. Edward invades France, but concludes a treaty of peace with Louis XI., at Poquigny.

1477. The Duke of Clarence is condemned by parliament, and is executed.

1482. Hostilities with Scotland are commenced.


By the issue of the battle of Mortimer's Cross, Edward IV. was placed upon the throne. Though his claim was founded upon his descent from Philippa Mortimer, daughter of the Duke of Clarence, the third son of Edward III., yet, as by marriage the rights of his branch had been transferred to the family of York, from whom, on the male side, Edward was descended, he is spoken of as the first king of the House of York.

Edward was taller by the head than any man in the kingdom. He told Philip de Comines, the French historian, that he had been in nine battles, in sight of which he had fought on foot. It should be added, that in the later battles between the Roses, no quarter was asked on either side.

The South declared for Edward: the North remained faithful to Henry. But the hopes of the Lancastrians were blighted by the battle of Tewkesbury, in which upwards of 50,000 men are said to have fallen. The battles of Hodgeley Moor and Haxey were equally unfavourable to their cause, and, for six years, Edward reigned in peace.

The motives for Warwick's rebellion, (1470), are, probably, to be found in the circumstances connected with the king's marriage. Edward, abandoning a projected marriage with a princess of Savoy, had wedded Elizabeth Woodville, widow of Sir John Grey, an adherent of the House of Lancaster who had fallen at the battle of St. Albeins. Her relatives soon rose into favour, and the Nevilles, the head of whom was Richard, who by his marriage with Anne, the heiress of the Beauchamps, had now become Earl of Warwick, as well as the Duke of Clarence, who had married Isabella Neville, feared the loss of their influence. Gaining to their cause Lord Montague, the brother of Warwick, who left the chivalry in the royal army, the conspirators presently succeeded in obtaining the person of the king. At the court of the Duke of Burgundy, who had married his sister, Edward, however, found an asylum, and, lengthened, with a few troops, returned to England. Clarence, who had before proved false to his brother, now proved false to his father-in-law, and his deposition led to the loss of the battle of Tewkesbury, where Warwick fell.

At Tewkesbury, the cause of the Red Rose was finally ruined. Queen Margaret and her son Edward were made prisoners, and the latter was murdered in the presence of the king. Margaret, ransomed after some years by Louis XI., returned to France. Henry VI., who survived his first deposition ten years, is believed to have been put to death in the Tower.

Clarence, who, though convicted at court after the conspiracy of Warwick, was still viewed with suspicion by his brothers, was arrested, (1477), on some trifling pretext. Edward appeared in person as his accuser, and Clarence was condemned by parliament. According to public report, he was drowned in Malmsay wine. He left two sons, a son, who through his mother took the title of Earl of Warwick, and a daughter, afterwards the Countess of Salisbury, both of whom died on the scaffold.

Printing was introduced into England during this reign by William Caxton.
17. EDWARD V.

Principal Events.
The eldest son of Edward IV., succeeds to the throne at the age of twelve (9th April), the exercise of the royal power being vested in a Council.

Richard, Duke of Gloucester, paternal uncle of the king, is appointed Protector by the Council, (29th May).

Edward is sent to the Tower, and, after a reign of eleven weeks and one day, is dethroned, the crown being usurped by the Protector, (26th June).

Observations.
On the death of Edward IV., his brother, the Duke of Gloucester, who was named protector, determined to seize the crown. Edward V. was at Ludlow, under the care of his uncle and guardian, Lord Rivers. The first step of the protector was to gain possession of the person of the young king. Many of the old nobility, at the head of whom was Henry, Duke of Buckingham, himself a descendant of Thomas Woodstock, the youngest son of Edward III., had viewed with jealousy the favours shown during the late reign to the family of the queen. Of this circumstance Richard availed himself. Leaving the North, where he had been appointed to the command on the outbreak of war with Scotland, he proceeded to Northampton, where he was joined by the Duke of Buckingham. On his arrival at Stony Stratford he met his nephew, who was on his way to London to be crowned. Lord Rivers and Lord Richard Grey, the son of the queen by her first husband, were immediately arrested, and sent as prisoners to the Castle of Pontefract, while Edward was conducted by his uncle to the capital, with every appearance of respect.

Finding an obstacle to his ambitious views, in the fidelity of Lord Hastings to the family of the late king, Richard resolved to remove him, and, at a council held in the Tower, ordered his immediate execution. After a few days, Lord Rivers and his fellow prisoner, with other members of the Woodville family, were also executed without trial.

On hearing of these steps, the queen, with her second son, the Duke of York, and her five daughters, took sanctuary in the Abbey of Westminster. The schemes of the protector were not complete till he had obtained possession of the person of the infant duke, and he employed the persuasions of the two archbishops, who were ignorant of his guilty designs, to overcome the reluctance of the queen to part with him.

Having thus the princes in his power, the next step of the protector was to spread a report against their legitimacy, on the plea that the marriage of Edward IV. with Elizabeth Woodville was rendered invalid by a previous promise of marriage which had been made by him to Eleanor Talbot, the daughter of the Earl of Shrewsbury, and the widow of Sir John Boteler (Lord Sudeley). At this juncture, by the contrivance of Buckingham, Richard was invited by the Lord Mayor and some of the chief citizens of London, to take possession of the crown. On the same day, a bill was presented to parliament, declaring Edward V. and his brother incapable of reigning, on the ground of a pre-contract of marriage between Edward IV. and Eleanor Talbot, and offering the sovereignty to Richard. He accepted the offer with apparent reluctance, and, in less than three months from his accession, the reign of the youthful Edward was at an end.
18. RICHARD III.

Principal Events.
The only surviving brother of Edward IV., is proclaimed king, (26th June), and is, within a fortnight, crowned at Westminster, (6th July.)
He causes Edward V. and his brother Richard, Duke of York, to be murdered in the Tower.
Coronation of the king at York, (8th Sept.)
Suppression of a conspiracy by the Duke of Buckingham, who supports the claims of Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, the eldest surviving representative of the House of Lancaster.

1484. Death of Prince Edward, the only son of the king, who had been created Prince of Wales.

1485. Richard marches to oppose Henry of Richmond, who lands at Milford Haven, (17th Aug.)

Battle of Bosworth, in which Richard falls, while Henry is proclaimed king by the army, (22nd Aug.)

Richard III. employed the treasures left by his brother to obtain support. For the same object he exhibited great apparent zeal for the correction of morals, and the punishment of crime.
It was during his progress to York, that orders were given by the king for the murder of Edward V. and the infant Duke of York. Doubtful of the security of his seat while those princes lived, Richard, it is said, committed the custody of the Tower for one night to Sir James Tyrrel, when the sleeping princes were smothered by two assassins, Dighton and Forrest.
Scarcely had Richard obtained the crown by these crimes, when a plot was formed against him, headed by his former associate, the Duke of Buckingham. The motives for a change, within a few weeks, in the conduct of Buckingham are obscure. The plot was unsuccessful. Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, in concert with whom Buckingham was to have acted, was kept from the English shore by a violent storm. A great flood in the Severn dispersed the forces of the duke; who was, after a short time, betrayed by an old servant, named Bannister, and was executed.
The direct line of the House of Lancaster became extinct on the death of Prince Edward at Tewkesbury. A descendant, however, of John of Gaunt still survived. We have said that the duke left by Catherine Swinesford two sons, born, however, out of wedlock, John and Henry Beaufort. Margaret, the granddaughter of the elder, had married Edmund Tudor, and Henry of Richmond, the issue of this marriage, claimed to be the representative of the family of Lancaster.
At the head of an army greatly superior in numbers, Richard marched to oppose the invasion of his rival. Disaffection, however, prevailed in the royal ranks, and on the field of Bosworth only two of his nobles remained faithful to him,—John Howard and his son, whom Richard had created respectively Duke of Norfolk and Earl of Surrey. The desertion during the battle of the Stanleys, who, although allied by family ties to Henry, had professed loyalty to Richard, decided the fortune of the day; and Richard, fighting bravely till the last, fell overpowered by numbers.
Anne, the second daughter of Richard Neville, the great Earl of Warwick, had, during the brief alliance of that nobleman with the Lancastrians, been married to Prince Edward, the only son of the unfortunate Henry VI. On the death of that prince, Richard, while Duke of Gloucester, in order to succeed to half the great estates of her father, had contracted a marriage with the unfortunate lady. Her death, in 1486, opened the way for Richard to form a new alliance; and a design is said to have been then formed by him to marry his niece, the princess Elizabeth.
Several measures of this reign deserve to be mentioned. Justices of the peace were allowed to admit to bail persons accused of felony; and the selection of jurymen was confined to freeholders possessing, at least, twenty shillings a year. The statutes of this reign were the first that were drawn up in the English language, and the first that were printed. The office of counsel was, also, now appointed.

Married, Anne Neville, widow of Prince Edward. Issue, Edward, Prince of Wales, died 1484.
REMARKS ON THE HOUSES OF YORK AND LANCASHER.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. The influence of the defective title of the House of Lancaster upon the extension of popular rights has been already alluded to. In the first year of the reign of Henry IV., a law was enacted that no judge should be allowed to plead the commands of the king in excuse for an illegal act. In the second year, the Commons attempted to defer the vote of supplies until they had received an answer to their petitions, and, at a later period, they enforced their claim to direct the application of the subsidies. A practice had arisen of appointing, on the dismissal of parliament, a committee of the nobles, to finish the judicial or administrative business left incomplete. This committee assumed, at times, legislative powers. An enactment was now passed rendering this practice illegal. Though the privileges above enumerated were not uniformly maintained, yet their temporary adoption was not without important results. The successive steps, however, by which the Lower House acquired the power of taking part in the enactment of new laws, remain yet to be noticed.

We have seen that the Commons were originally summoned only to vote the supplies; and when this object was effected, they were dismissed. A great step had, doubtless, been gained, when the general principle of government was established, that the subject could not be taxed without his own consent, or that of his representative; especially when it became the custom, that grants of money should originate exclusively with the Commons. Much, however, remained to be done before they acquired the legislative power which they now enjoy. The only means originally possessed by them of obtaining concessions from the crown was to annex to their grants a petition of grievances—a method frequently ineffective. Before it could be of legal effect, the petition, even if granted, had to be reduced to the form of a Statute, and to be published throughout the kingdom. But this was often neglected, or the terms of the Statute were so framed as not to redress the grievance complained of. To remedy this defect, the important privilege was secured by the Commons, in the reign of Henry IV., that a record should be made in the presence of deputies from the two Houses, of the petitions which had received the royal assent. In the reign of Henry V., a further step was taken. Statutes embodying the prayer of the petition, with the assent of the king subjoined, were drawn up before the close of the session. In the time of Edward IV., the legislative power of the Commons may be said to have been completed, by their adoption of the modern plan of passing bills in the form of complete Statutes, which, after having received the sanction of the Upper House, required only the assent of the king. We have thus rapidly traced the steps by which the Lower House acquired a full equality with the Lords in the administration of public affairs.

During the reigns of the later Plantagenet Kings, the election of Knights of the Shire became a subject of sufficient importance to be regulated by legislative enactments. As the Sheriffs were accustomed to summon only what freeholders they pleased, a Statute was passed under Henry IV., which gave the right of a vote to all the freeholders of the county. In the reign of Henry VI., this right was restricted to such as possessed forty shillings a year in land.

DEGREES OF NOBILITY. As the existing degrees of Nobility had been introduced before the close of the period now under review, it may be convenient to trace shortly the origin of the right of Peerage, and the modifications which it has undergone. The King's Great Council or Court, subsequently known as the Parliament, was, it has been seen, originally composed of those who held land by immediate tenure from the crown,—who were the peers of each other, and who, in the language of the times, were styled Barons. We have mentioned the separation effected in the course of time between the greater tenants of the crown, who alone received individually a writ of summons to this Council, and the inferior tenants who elected in each county certain representatives, the union of whom with the members for the boroughs led to the establishment of the House of Commons.

The title of Baron became at length confined to the former, while the inferior tenants sank into mere freeholders, and became blended with the other proprietors of land in the country. The dignity of Peerage was thus originally territorial, and belonged only to those on whom the right or duty devolved of attending parliament, in respect of the tenure of their lands or baronies,—the dignity passing with the land as appendant. After the introduction of the practice, which was fully established in the reign of Henry III., of summoning by special writ those whose presence in the Great Council was desired by the king, the proof of barony by tenure began to be disregarded, and the record of a writ of summons was admitted as sufficient evidence of the tenure.

No further change took place till the time of Richard II. In this reign we first meet with the designation of Baron as a mere title of dignity,—Lord Beauchamp of Holt being created, by letters patent, Baron Kidderminster. To the Barons by writ were now added Barons by patent. Since that period peers have been created by writ or by patent, creation by patent being the method now generally employed.

The several degrees of the nobility rank in the following order:

1. The Duke. This title, the highest in rank, was of late introduction into the English peerage, not being known until the reign of Edward III., when the Black Prince was created Duke of Cornwall.

2. The Marquess. This title was applied originally to the Earl or Baron whose office it was to govern the frontier, called in early times a March, whence he was named a Lord Marcher, or Marquess,—in German Markgraf. It was not known as a distinct title of nobility until the time of Richard II., who created Robert de Vere Marquis of Dorset, and gave him precedence before the Duke and the Earl.

3. The Earl, who corresponded with the Baron Ealdorman, had originally the government of a county. After the conquest the Earl was called Count, whence the sires have taken the name of Counts. The title at last ceased to be official, and, like other titles, was conferred as a personal dignity.

4. The Viscount. This title, derived from the Latin Vicomtes, was originally granted to an officer who governed a district which was not under the rule of an Earl. It implied, however, no subordination except to the king. It was introduced as a title of hereditary nobility into England by Henry VI., who found it established in France.

5. The Baron. This title, after the conquest, superseded that of Than. It was, as we have seen, originally applied to all who had a right to a seat in parliament. The order of Barons is now the lowest, but the most numerous, in the peerage.
CONSTITUTION OF PARLIAMENT.—As it was under the later Plantagenets, and especially the Lancasterian kings, that the mode of returning representatives to Parliament—as well as the qualifications of electors and of members—were first settled by statute, it may be well to add something to what has been said under the "Remarks on the Plantagenet Line."

The principles of consultation on public affairs by the Estates of the Realm (as a check on the king's will), and of representation in those estates, are perfectly distinct. The former is derived from the English monarchy, and was secured by Magna Charta, which says not a word of representation; though one of its clauses, as we shall see, tended to establish the practice. But where shall we seek the beginning of real representation by direct election? In a certain limited sense, we may find it in the very earliest times. The Anglo-Saxon Witanagemote was as aristocratic as the Norman Council, consisting of bishops, abbots, earls, and thanes; but the Georig (the commons of that time) had the privilege of sending representatives, not indeed to sit and vote, but to seek the redress of wrongs. Naturally these representatives, who were magistrates, would have an influence beyond their acknowledged position as mere attendants on the Witan; and thus this Remielial Representation (as it is called by Sir F. Palgrave) would familiarise the commons with the laws they had some share in the royal councils, especially for claimants for the redress of grievances; and this would be one of the cherished traditions of their ancient liberties that survived the Conquest. But Norman feudalism also furnishes examples of representation for certain purposes, especially in the counties; and the very first recorded example seems to give the conquered people an influence in the councils of the Conqueror. For it is reasonable to suppose that many of the twelve men from each county, whom William (in the fourth year of his reign) directed to be chosen "to inform him rightly of the laws and customs of England," would be the persons who best knew them, that is, Anglo-Saxons of good position. The election, also, of four knights in each shire, to make presentments of crimes before the king's judges, is as old at least as the appointment of Justices in Eyre by Henry III. The Great Charter directs that "all evil customs concerning forests, etc., shall be forthwith enquired into in each county by twelve sworn knights of the same shire, chosen by credible persons of the same county." Not only were the county gentry thus trained to a representative system which might easily be applied to politics, but this had actually been done before the date of Magna Charta. The writs are extant by which, in 1214, John ordered the sheriffs of each county to send to a general assembly at Oxford "four chosen knights to discuss with us the affairs of our kingdom." The elections of this sort could scarcely have been held by the sheriff otherwise than at the County Court, at which he presided, and which was attended by the tenants-in-chief and the other freeholders. When, therefore, the Great Charter provided that the minor tenants-in-chief should be summoned to the Great Council by the sheriff, since certainly the whole body would not be able to attend, they would use the machinery thus provided for the election of those fittest to represent the whole body. The attendance of the general body of the freeholders (as well as the tenants under the Crown) at the County Courts would necessarily lead, sooner or later, to their participation in the elections.

At all events, the whole system of the representation of the counties in Parliament (as we know the Great Council to have been called in 1246), was in full operation in the reign of Henry III.; and his proclamation summoning the Parliament of 1246 directs the sheriff of each county "to cause to be elected in the County Court two good and discreet Knights of the Shire, whom the men of the shire shall have chosen for this purpose, in the stead of all and each of them, to consider, along with the knights of other counties, what aid they will grant the king." The mode of procedure gave the sheriff opportunities of gratifying an arbitrary king, both by influencing the elections and by making false returns; and Richard II. used these methods to pack his last Parliament. This gave rise to the first settlement of the county elections by the statutes, already mentioned, of Henry IV. and Henry VI. The latter established our still existing 40s. freethold franchise; but as 2s. then was worth at least £30 now, the act must have operated as a sweeping disfranchisement.

With regard to Cities and Boroughs:—neither when Simon de Montfort first summoned each of them to send two burgesses to Parliament, nor when Edward I. made this precedent an institution, was any rule laid down as to what places should send representatives, or who should be the electors. The writs addressed to the sheriff of each county, for the election of two knights of the shire, required him also to cause to be elected two citizens for each city and two burgesses for each borough in his bailiwick. The choice of such places was very much at the sheriff's discretion, and liable to great abuse. Certain cities and boroughs of course held that rank by general repute; and each summons created a precedent. The statute of 6 Richard II. was passed to punish sheriffs who left out of the returns "any cities or boroughs which were bound, and formerly were wont to send members to Parliament." On the other hand, some boroughs prayed the sheriff to excuse their sending members, on the ground that they were too poor to pay them—for the payment of members was then the rule. The electors were the burgesses, sworn and enrolled at the court leet of the borough, originally including all resident freemen capable of paying their roots (local taxes) and bearing their for (local offices). But the incorporation of Municipal Boroughs, which dates from the 15th year of Henry VI.—while enabling the king to open new boroughs at his pleasure by the grant of a charter—placed the power of creating burgesses and of returning members very generally in the hands of the mayor and corporation.

Both in counties and in boroughs, the members were originally residents chosen for their knowledge of the grievances and wants of their neighbourhood; but this rule fell into disuse, and could not even be enforced by the statutes passed under Henry V. and Henry VI. No direct pecuniary qualification was required till the statute of Queen Anne, repealed in the present reign; but so to rank, the Knights of the Shires were originally what their name implies, military tenants under the crown. As early as Edward III., at least, many county members were no longer knights; and the statute of 28 Henry VI. e. 14, requiring them to be either "notable knights, or such notable sequeiros, gentlemen born, as shall be able to be knights" (owners of a knight's fee, then £30 a year, in land), proved inoperative. The members both for counties and boroughs received payment down to the time of Henry VIII. It was in the Lancasterian period also that the parliamentary privileges of freedom of debate and freedom of arrest were secured.
THE LINE OF TUDOR.
19. HENRY VII. (TUDOR).

Principal Events.
The son of Margaret Beaufort (great granddaughter of John of Ghent) and of Edmund Tudor is crowned at Westminster (30th Oct).

1486. He marries the Princess Elizabeth of York, thus uniting the houses of York and Lancaster, (15th Jan.)

He suppresses insurrections raised at York by Lord Lovel, and at Worcester by Sir H. Stafford and his brother, partisans of the House of York.

Birth of a prince, named Arthur, (20th Sept.)

1487. An insurrection, headed by Lambert Simnel, who personates the Earl of Warwick, whose troops, under the Earl of Lincoln, are defeated at Stoke, in Nottinghamshire.

Coronation of the Queen at Westminster (20th Nov.)

The powers of the Court of the Star Chamber are enlarged.

1488. Henry enters into an alliance with the Duke of Brittany, and sends an auxiliary force to assist that prince against Charles VIII., of France.

Under pretext of the war with France, Henry obtains an aid from parliament, which leads to an unsuccessful insurrection under Sir J. Egremont.

1491. Arbitrary levy of supplies, called Benvolences.

1492. Henry embarks for Calais (6th Oct.), and commences the siege of Boulogne, but accepts terms of peace on the payment of £149,000, and an annual tribute.

An insurrection in behalf of Perkin Warbeck, who personates Richard, Duke of York, and who, two years later, fails in his attempt to land in Kent.

1495. Henry, the second son of the king, is appointed governor of Ireland. Sir Edward Poyning, Wm the reign of Henry VII., the modern history of England has been said to commence. The revival of letters has taken place. The use of printing had become general. A great change had been effected in the social state of England. Servitude had almost vanished, and the wars of the Roses had weakened the power of the great scriba, who had always successfully resisted the crown. To the altered balance of the Constitution arising from this cause, much of the despotism of the Tudors is, doubtless, to be traced. So many of the nobles had fallen or been attainted, that only twenty-eight temporal peers attended the first parliament of Henry VII., and only thirty-six that of his successor.

The entry of Henry VII. into London was delayed by a plague, called the "Swelling Sickness." At his coronation, he bestowed the rank of Knight Banneret on twelve persons, and created his uncle, Jasper Tudor, Duke of Bedford, and his stepfather, Thomas, Lord Stanley, Earl of Derby.

Although the defective title of Henry was strengthened by his marriage with the Princess Elizabeth, yet the early years of his reign were disturbed by the frequent hostility of the adherents of the House of York,—an hostility, doubtless, increased by his general resumption of the grants made by the princes of that line. In his progress to the north, news reached him of the risings of Lord Lovel and the Staffords. The elder Stafford was executed, and Lord Lovel escaped to the Court of the Duchess of Burgundy, which now became the resort of all the adherents of the House of York.

The only direct heir of the House of York, still living, was the Earl of Warwick, son of the attainted Duke of Clarence. He was imprisoned by Henry VII., but, in the second year of this reign, there appeared in Ireland a young man personating him. Great obscurity rests over the motives of those who sided with this impostor, whose real name was Lambert Simnel. Simnel was actually crowned in Ireland, and received the support of John de la Pole, Earl of Lincoln, the son of Elizabeth, the eldest sister of Edward IV., and to whom the person of the Earl of Warwick must have been well known. After his capture at Stoke, Simnel's life was spared, and he was employed in a menial office in the palace.

Scarce had the plot on behalf of Simnel been suppressed, when the appearance of another Pretender called forth the activity of Henry. It was generally believed that the infant Duke of York had been murdered in the Tower, with his brother, Edward V. In 1495, however, there landed at Cork a young man of noble bearing. This youth was soon rumoured to be no other than Richard, Duke of York, who, it was said, had escaped from the Tower. As the English settlers in Ireland were warmly attached to the House of York, he received their support. The king of Scotland gave him, in marriage, the hand of his relative, Lady Catherine Gordon, and marched into England to support his cause. Perkin Warbeck, such was the name of this claimant for the crown, met in arms with the royal forces, but was defeated, and his followers dispersed, and he took refuge in the Sanctuary of Beaulieu Abbey. By a promise of pardon, his person was secured by Henry, and he was at length committed to the Tower. Here he contracted a friendship with a companion in misfortune, the imprisoned son of the Duke of Clarence. A plan of escape was
his deputy, succeeds in passing the act by which the English laws are established in that island.

Subsidies are obtained from parliament, in support of the league of the Italian states against France.

1497. An insurrection in Cornwall, caused by the levy of the subsidy. The insurgents, headed by Lord Audley, march into Kent, and are defeated by Henry at Blackheath (22nd June).

1498. Henry obtains the person of Perkin Warbeck, who had landed in Cornwall, and had attempted the siege of Exeter.

1499. The execution of Warbeck and of the Earl of Warwick, on a charge of conspiring to escape.

1501. Catherine of Arragon, the fourth daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, is betrothed to Prince Arthur, and, on his death, (1502), to his younger brother, Henry.

The marriage of Margaret, the eldest daughter of the king, with James IV. of Scotland, during the latter years of this reign.

said to have been concerted between them. On this pretense Warbeck and the Earl of Warwick were executed. Sir William Stanley, to whom Henry was greatly indebted for the crown, suffered for his alleged knowledge of this conspiracy.

It is important for the student to remember the marriage of Margaret, the eldest daughter of Henry VII., with James IV. of Scotland, as it was eventually the source of the union of the English and Scots crowns (A.D. 1603).

Among the important measures of this reign must be mentioned the statutes directed against Maintenance, or the practise common among the nobles of enlisting under them numerous retainers bearing their badges; the extension of the powers of the Court of the Star Chamber—a tribunal, the jurisdiction of which was not strictly defined by law, but which could inflict any sentence short of death; and the re-enactment of a statute of Richard III., giving to the nobility the power to break their ancient entail, and to dispose of their estates—a measure calculated to lessen the fortunes of the nobles, while it tended to increase the property of the commons.

The grants known as Reversionary, of which we find frequent mention in this reign, were nominally gifts from the subject to the crown, but were in reality compulsory levies, being made recoverable by course of law.

During this reign the important discovery of America was made by Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa. Accident only prevented the name of Henry being associated with this memorable event. The arrival of the messenger conveying promises of assistance from the English king was delayed until the great navigator had left the Spanish ports. An expedition was shortly afterwards fitted out by Henry, and placed under the command of Sebastian Cabot. Cabot touched at Newfoundland, (1497) and discovered Labrador.

Although the direct male line of the house of York had become extinct on the death of the Earl of Warwick, a descendant of Richard Plantagenet still survived. Elizabeth, the sister of Edward IV., had left by De la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, two sons. The elder, the Earl of Lincoln, fell at the battle of Stoke: the younger, Edmund, Earl of Suffolk, had after a time retired to Flanders. It was the wish of Henry to obtain possession of his person, and the accidental visit of the Archduke Philip to this country (A.D. 1606) afforded the English king an opportunity to gratify his wish. A promise having been obtained that his life should be spared, Suffolk was invited by Philip from Flanders, and was delivered up to Henry, by whom he was committed to the Tower.

The commencement of the modern English navy may be traced to this reign. Until this period, in order to obtain a fleet, the king was obliged either to hire or to press into his service private vessels. A ship of war, of 1000 tons burden, was constructed by Henry, called the "Great Henry," at the cost of an hundred thousand pounds.

20. HENRY VIII.

Principal Events.
The eldest surviving son of Henry VII., succeeds to the throne at the age of eighteen (22nd April).
He marries Catherine of Aragon, who had been affianced to his brother Arthur (3rd June).
Coronation of the king and queen (24th June).
1510. Henry receives into favour Wolsey, who, five years later, is created Cardinal and Chancellor.
1513. Alliance between England, Austria and Spain against Louis XII. of France.—Henry gains the victory of Guinegate, known as the "Battle of the Spurs," (16th August).
The English troops, under the Earl of Surrey, defeat James IV. of Scotland (the ally of Louis XII.) at Flodden Field (9th September).
1514. Peace is concluded with Louis XII., who marries Mary Tudor, sister of the king, but dies three months later, (1st Jan., 1515).
1516. Henry’s First Parliament is dissolved.
1520. Meeting between Henry and Francis I. of France, on the plain of Ardes, near Calais,—known as “the Field of the Cloth of Gold.”
1522. Henry enters into a league with the Emperor Charles V. against Francis I.
1523. Henry’s Second Parliament meets (15th April), Sir T. More, Speaker.
1526. Alliance between Henry and Francis I.
1526. Henry seeks unsuccessfully to obtain from Clement VI. a divorce from Queen Catherine.
1529. He deprives Wolsey of the Great Seal, and orders his prosecution. Death of Wolsey (1530).
1533. Appointment of Cranmer to the See of Canterbury, who pronounces a sentence of divorce between the king and Catherine, and ratifies a previous marriage with Anne Boleyn.
1534. Henry is declared by parliament Supreme Head of the English Church.

The young king ascended the throne amid general satisfaction. The treasures amassed in the late reign were spent by him in pageants and revels, and his popularity was increased by the execution of Empson and Dudley, the obstinate ministers of Henry VII.
Alternately the ally of Austria and of France in the struggle carried on between those powers in Italy, but little glory attended the arms of the English king, except at the battle of Flodden, where James IV. of Scotland and many of his nobles fell. The chief interest of English history during this and the three succeeding reigns is, however, to be looked for in connection with the great religious movements then in progress.
Wolsey, a person of humble birth, whose name occupies so prominent a place in the annals of this reign, had been introduced by Fox, Bishop of Durham, to Henry VII. By his address and talents he soon rose into favour. With ambition equal to his talents, his conduct too often accorded little with his sacred calling. The cause of his final overthrow was the dissatisfaction of Henry VIII. with the part which he took in the question of the divorce from Queen Catherine, when the Great Seal was bestowed upon Sir Thomas More. One disgrace followed another, and the fall of Wolsey was, at length, completed by a summons to London to answer a charge of high treason,—an event which was soon followed by his death (29th Nov., 1530.)
Henry had been married to Catherine eighteen years, when he professed to doubt the lawfulness of the union, on the ground of her previous betrothal to his brother. The king’s scruples were due, however, kept alive by an attachment which he had formed for Anne Boleyn, a lady of the court. He applied to Pope Clement VI. for a divorce. A papal commission was opened, by Cardinale Wolsey and Campeggio, to decide upon the cause. The result, however, was not favourable, and Henry determined to adopt another course to obtain the object of his wishes. A young ecclesiastic, named Cranmer, proposed that the question as to the legality of the marriage should be referred to the Universities of Europe, from several of which favourable answers were obtained. Cranmer was appointed primate, pronounced a divorce between Henry and Catherine, and ratified a secret marriage which the king had already contracted with Anne Boleyn. For this step Henry was threatened with the severest censures of the Church, when he was led by the advice of Cromwell and Cranmer to adopt the decisive measure of declaring himself the Supreme Head of the Church of England. This title was ratified by parliament, and by this step England was separated from communion with Rome.
On the execution of Anne Boleyn, the king espoused Jane Seymour, who died in 1537. In 1540, negotiations were entered into by Cromwell for the marriage of Henry with Anne of Cleves, and the dissolution of the king with this result led to the fall of that minister. A divorce was pronounced between Henry and Anne, and a marriage then took place with Catherine Howard, whose execution on charges of misconduct followed within two years. Catherine Parr, the sixth wife of Henry, survived him.
Cromwell, who succeeded Wolsey in the favour of the king, had been originally in the service of the ambitious cardinal. It was by his advice, that, in order to obtain their acquiescence in his views on the subject of the first divorce, the
1535. Cromwell is appointed Secretary of State.
1536. Suppression of the lesser monasteries.

A sentence of divorce between Henry and Anne Boleyn is pronounced by Cranmer, who declares the marriage void from the first, and the issue (Elizabeth), illegitimate.

Execution of Anne Boleyn (19th May), and marriage of the king with Jane Seymour (20th May).

Suppression of a rising in Yorkshire, known as the "Pilgrimage of Grace."

Wales is incorporated with England.

1537. The birth of Prince Edward (VI.) (12th Oct.) followed by the death of the queen (24th Oct.)

1539. The law called that of the "Six Articles" is passed. Catholic reaction under Bishop Gardiner.

Surrender of the larger monasteries to the crown, about four hundred in number.

1540. Marriage of the king with Anne of Cleves, followed by the attainder and execution of Cromwell.

An act giving to a proclamation of the king the force of law.

1541. Henry obtains a divorce from Anne of Cleves, and is married to Lady Catherine Howard.

Henry is declared King of Ireland.

1542. Execution of Queen Catherine Howard.

War is declared against the Scots, who are routed at Solway Moss.

1543. Marriage of the king with Catherine Parr.

Wales first sends representatives to Parliament.

1544. An act is passed, giving the king power to regulate the succession to the crown.

1546. Peace is concluded with France and Scotland.

1547. The Earl of Surrey is executed,—and a bill of attainder is passed against the Duke of Norfolk, whose life is saved by the death of the king (28th Jan.).

OBSERVATIONS (continued).

The king adopted the course of intimidating the clergy, who were accused, under the act called the "Statute of Provisors," of having recognized the powers of the legate to court of Wolsey and Campeggio. By the acknowledgement, however, of the king's supremacy, and the payment of a heavy fine, they obtained a pardon.

By Cromwell's influence commissioners were appointed (1538), to enquire into the state of the smaller monasteries, in which the existence of scandals was reported, though it was declared that "religion was right well observed in the greater monastic houses." Under the sanction of this report the lesser monasteries were seised, and, in 1539, parliament passed an act putting at the disposal of the king the remaining religious establishments. In 1546 another act was passed, which empowered him to seize the revenues of the Universities;—a measure, however, which was not carried into effect. The dissolution of the monastic bodies led to numerous disturbances, the most important of which was a rising in Yorkshire, headed by R. Aike, and supported by several of the northern nobility, but suppressed by Thomas Howard, Duke of Norfolk.

Among the more illustrious victims to the cruelty of Henry we may mention Edward Stafford (Duke of Buckingham), whose death was probably owing to the nearness of his claims to the crown,—Edmund de la Pole and Edward Courteney (Marquis of Exeter), whose mothers were Plantagenets,—the aged Countess of Salisbury, daughter of the ill-fated Duke of Clarence, and her son, Henry Pole (Lord Montague)—Bishop Fisher, and Sir Thomas More, the two latter of whom were executed for denial of the king's supremacy.

The attempt of Henry to re-assert the claim to feudal supremacy over Scotland resulted in a second war with that country. The defeat of the Scots at Solway Moss by the Duke of Norfolk (1542) was soon followed by the death of James V., leaving an infant daughter, Mary. To unite Scotland to his own dominions, Henry now proposed a marriage between her and his son Edward.

The opposition of the Regent Earl of Arran to this proposal led to the renewal of the war, and an army under Edward Seymour (Marquis of Hertford) was sent to ravage Scotland.

In Ireland the authority of Henry was, on his accession, exercised only over part of the counties—a district known as the Pale: the rest of the island was governed by ninety chieftains, sixty of Irish and thirty of English origin. By taking advantage of the dissensions between some of these powerful chieftains, and by grants of peerages to others, Henry greatly extended the royal authority; and at a parliament held at Dublin (1641), he was declared king instead of lord of Ireland. Wales, which had hitherto contained about one hundred and forty lordships, from which the king's writ were excluded, was now divided into twelve counties, and was subjected to English law.

In this reign the king of England first assumed the style of "Majesty" instead of "Highness," which had formerly been employed. To other titles was added that of "Defender of the Faith," conferred on Henry by Leo X. The office of Secretary of State was instituted, 1530. Post-offices were established, 1531.

Contemporary Events (continued).

Second war between Charles V. and Francis I., in alliance with Clement VII.—Francis entering Burgundy, (1437)

Comptant of Peru by Pizarro.

The Luthers, condemned by the diet of Spire, (1529), present their confession of faith at Augsburg, (1530)

Peace of Cambridge between Charles V. and Francis I., (1529)

The League of Schmalkald formed by the Protestant princes, (1530)

The death of Nuremberg grants religious liberty to the Protestant, (1532)

Hayreddin Barbarossa (the Turkish admiral) founds the piratical states of Tunis, (1535)

John of Leyden heads the Insurgent Anabaptists at Munster, (1536)

Death of Francis, the last of the Sforzas, (1535).—Milan, conquered by Charles V., on the son Philip, remains a Spanish province till A.D. 1706.

Third war between Charles V. and Francis I., (1536), followed by the ten years' truce of Noyon, (1546)

Fourth war between Charles V. and Francis I., in alliance with the Protestant of Germany, (1542)

The first "Interim" is issued by the Diet of Bataillon.

The Peace of Crespy between Charles V. and Francis I., (1544)

The Council of Trent opens, (1484)

NAMES OF NOTE.

P. de Comynes, Historian, died A.D. 1539
Abdoullah, Navigator
Ximanze, Cardinal
Leonardo de Vinci,
Painter
Macellino, Navigator
Hanness, Painter
Garvin Dupuy, Painter
Guiccardini, Historian
Albri Durer, Painter
Machiavel, Philos. and Hist.
Wolsey, Cardinal
Arminius, Poet
A. Correggio, Painter
Sir T. More, Chancellor
Erasmus, Ervtes
Sir T. Wyatt, Poet
Coperiocio, A-tronomer
Martin Lather
Guile Roman, Painter
Henry, Earl of Surrey
21. EDWARD VI.

Principal Events.

The son of Henry VIII. and Jane Seymour, succeeds to the throne at the age of nine (28th Jan.) the government being entrusted during his minority to sixteen "Executore" named by the late king.

Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford (afterwards Duke of Somerset), uncle of the king, is appointed Protector by the "Executore" (6th Feb.).

Edward is crowned at Westminster (20th Feb.).

A proposal for the marriage of the king with Mary, Queen of Scots, is rejected, through the influence of the Guises.

The Protector invades Scotland, and defeats the troops of the regent, Earl of Arran, at Pinkie (10th Sept.).


Revolt of the peasants in Norfolk, headed by Kett, a tanner, which is suppressed by Thomas Dudley, Earl of Warwick (Jan. 10th).

Disgrace and arrest of the Duke of Somerset, on the charge of usurping royal power, at the instigation of the Earl of Warwick, who is appointed head of the council.

1552. The Earl of Warwick, who is created Duke of Northumberland, obtains the execution of Somerset, and many of his friends.

1553. Illness of the king, who is led by the Duke of Northumberland to make a new settlement of the crown, excluding his sisters Mary and Elizabeth, and naming as his successor Jane, eldest daughter of Henry Grey (Duke of Suffolk), by Frances, grand-daughter of Henry VII.

In violation of the will of Henry VIII., the Duke of Somerset was appointed protector. The powers of his commission were so soon afterwards still further enlarged, and to him, as well as to other members of the Council, lands were granted out of the spoils of the dissolved monasteries. During the absence of Somerset in Scotland, however, a rival appeared in the person of his younger brother, Thomas, Lord Sudeley. This nobleman had married the dowager queen Catherine Parr, and, after her death, had sought the hand of the princess Elizabeth. This and other ambitious projects excited the jealousy of Somerset, by whose influence the younger Seymour was convicted and executed, without being heard in his defence. The fall of the protector, however, was not far distant. Within eight months, Thomas Dudley, son of the rapacious minister of Henry VII., sought to replace him, and brought against him charges of an attempt to usurp the sovereign power. Somerset confessed the truth of these charges; and, although his life was spared at the time, he was executed within two years. The chief power was now lodged in the hands of Dudley (Duke of Northumberland). By his influence the settlement was effected by which the crown was bequeathed to Lady Jane Grey, the wife of his youngest son, Guildford Dudley, and the grand-daughter of Mary Tudor, by her second marriage with Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

To turn from the political to the religious events of this reign. One of the first steps of the protector was to establish the Protestant religion, the cause of which was favoured by most of the members of the council. To effect this, the penalties enacted by Henry VIII. against the profession of the Lutheran tenets were repealed, while those directed against the maintenance of the papal supremacy were allowed to remain. The education of Edward was entrusted to men holding the more advanced views of the reformers, opinions which he readily embraced. Visitors were sent over England, to make such alterations in the existing worship as would bring it into a nearer conformity with that of the foreign Protestant states. A collection of offices for public worship was prepared, which was, in 1549, adopted by parliament. It is, for the most part, the same as the Book of Common Prayer now in use. In 1552, forty-two articles of religion, afterwards reduced to thirty-nine, were agreed upon. The bishops and the members of the council who opposed these changes were committed to prison.

The princess Mary was ordered to conform to the established form of worship. The demand of her counsellor, Charles V., that she should be allowed the private exercise of her religion, was rejected. A threat of a declaration of war, however, alarmed the council; and before the resolution to employ severe measures was adopted, the death of Edward, who had been for some time suffering from disease of the lungs, occurred (6th July, 1553).

During this reign, the office of Lord Lieutenant of the county was instituted. The sons of peers were now first allowed to sit in the House of Commons.

ACCESSION A.D. 1547
DEATH . . . 1553

Observations.

QUEEN OF SCOTLAND.

MARY.

KINGS OF FRANCE.

Francis I. . . . . died A.D. 1547
Henry II.

EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

Charles V. (Charles I. of Spain)

KING OF SPAIN.

Charles I.

Marriage of Jane, daughter of Henry D'Albret, King of Navarre, to Antoine de Bourbon, Descended in the male line from Robert, the fifth son of Louis IX. (1448); whence the royal house of Bourbon.

The "Interim" is issued at Augsburg by Charles V. to the protestants (1518).

The factions of Condé and of the Guises in France (1446).

John Frederic is deprived by Charles V. of the Electorate of Saxony, which is conferred on Maurice (1424).

Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, is sent to France, and imprisoned in the Dauphin Francis (1443).

Treaty of Paris, between Charles V. and the Elector of Saxony, allowing the two exercises of the pontifical religion (1425).

MAKERS OF NOTE.

Leland, Antiquary . . . died A.D. 1558
Habebas, Sacerdos . . . . 1468
22. MARY.

**Principal Events.**
The daughter of Henry VIII. and Catherine of Aragon, meets with the opposition of the Council, who proclaim Lady Jane Grey Queen (10th July).
Mary, nine days later, is proclaimed in London, at the age of thirty-six (19th July).
Coronation of the queen at Westminster (1st Oct.).
An act is passed, abolishing the reformed liturgy of Edward VI., and restoring that used in the last year of Henry VIII. Gardiner becomes Chancellor.
Archbishop Cranmer, attainted by Parliament of High Treason, is committed to the Tower.
Execution of Lady Jane Grey, her husband (Lord Guildford Dudley), and her father (the Duke of Suffolk).

The celebration at Winchester of the marriage of the queen with the Archduke Philip (afterwards Philip II.) of Spain (19th July), who consents to the regulations of Parliament to secure the independence of the English crown.

England is formally reconciled to the see of Rome by Cardinal Pole, the papal legate. Parliament stipulates that the alienated Church property be held by its present possessors.


1556. Sentence is pronounced on Archbishop Cranmer, who suffers at Oxford (21st March).

1557. War is declared by England, in alliance with Spain, against France.

1558. Loss of Calais, which, after having been held for 200 years by the English, surrenders to the Duke of Guise.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accession a.d. 1553</th>
<th>Reign 5 Years 5 Months</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Death . . . 1558</td>
<td>Age . . . 42 Years</td>
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</table>

**Observations.**
For two days the death of Edward was kept secret, and an unsuccessful plot was laid by the council to obtain the person of Mary. An address, signed by Cranmer and twenty-one councilors, was sent to her, requiring her to resign her false pretensions. But, though some of the clergy preached in support of the claims of Lady Jane Grey, her cause was unpopular. In a few days, Mary found herself at the head of 30,000 volunteers, and was proclaimed in London with enthusiasm. Northumberland, whose ambition had rendered him odious to the nation, and two of his associates, suffered for this plot. The Duke of Suffolk received a pardon. Sentence was pronounced against Lady Jane, who had accepted the crown with reluctance, but there was no intention of carrying it into effect.

One of the first acts of the queen was to liberate from prison the aged Duke of Norfolk, still lying under sentence of death, and the bishops imprisoned during the reign of Edward VI. When parliament met, it repealed all the statutes with regard to religion passed in the late reign, and restored the forms of worship used in the last year of Henry VIII. An order was issued about the same time, ordering foreign Protestants to leave the kingdom.

The plot in favour of Lady Jane Grey had been easily suppressed. Within seven months, however, a second revolt took place in Kent. The Duke of Suffolk, taking advantage of the discontent at the projected marriage of the queen with Philip of Spain, again raised his tenants. Sir T. Wyatt advanced to London, and for some days the queen's person was in peril. This second instance of treason on the part of Suffolk sealed the fate of his daughter. The council overcame the reluctance of the queen, and Lady Jane and her husband suffered death.

For one year and a half Mary had now reigned, and no one had suffered for the cause of religion. It would have been well for the memory of this princess if a similar policy had continued till the close of her reign. After the events mentioned above, however, the unhappy resolution was adopted by the council of employing severe measures against the party of the Reformers, and a circular was addressed to the magistrates, ordering them to prosecute those accused of heresy. The remonstrances of Cardinal Pole, and the reluctance of the bishops to carry out these orders, did not stop the violent measures of the council. A second letter was sent to the bishops, ordering them for their leniency, and ordering them to proceed with greater rigour.

The most celebrated of those who suffered in the persecution, by which the remainder of this reign was disgraced, were Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer (though these may be said, whatever were the nominal grounds of their sentence, to have suffered religiously), and Bishops Hooper and Farrer. To these we must add a mournful list of upwards of two hundred victims of religious intolerance, all of whom were drawn from the lower ranks of life.

The alliance contracted by England with Spain, in the war carried on by the latter country with France, resulted in the loss of Calais; an event for which Mary expressed bitter regret, and which was soon followed by her death.

**Contemporary Events.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Queen of Scotland</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mary (Stuart).</td>
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<tr>
<td>King of France.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Henry II.</td>
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</tbody>
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**Empire of Germany.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Charles V.</th>
<th>Abdicated A.D. 1556</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ferdinand I.</td>
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</table>

**Kings of Spain.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Charles I.</th>
<th>Abdicated A.D. 1556</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Philip II.</td>
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</table>

Jane of Navarre gives birth to a son, afterwards Henry IV. (1553).

The Emperor Charles V. resigns Spain and its dependencies to his son Philip, and the empire to his brother, Ferdinand (1556).

Mary of Guise, the queen mother, becomes regent of Scotland (1554).

The Diet of Augsburg confirms the Treaty of Passau, securing religious freedom to the Protestants (1555).

Death of Henry d'Albert, Lower Navarre descends to his daughter Jane, and her husband, Antoine de Bourbon.

Treaty between the Emperor Charles V. and Henry II. of Navarre (1556).

War between Henry II. of France and Philip II. of Spain (1556-1598).

The French are defeated at St. Quentin.

The Condeable Montmorency is taken prisoner (1557).

The Deed of Union is signed by the Congress of Reformers in Edinburgh (1557).

Marriage of Mary Stuart with the Dauphin of France, afterwards Francis II. (1559).

**Names of Note.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Holbein, Painter .</th>
<th>Died a.d. 1543</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ridley, Bishop .</td>
<td>1555</td>
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<tr>
<td>Latimer, Bishop .</td>
<td>1556</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cranmer, Archdeacon</td>
<td>1556</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ignatius Loyola, Jesuit</td>
<td>1556</td>
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<tr>
<td>W. Gwenneth, Biographer</td>
<td>1557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Calvin, Servant .</td>
<td>1557</td>
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<tr>
<td>S. Tyndale, Servant</td>
<td>1558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>De la Pole, Servant</td>
<td>1558</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Married, Philip II. of Spain.
23. ELIZABETH.

Principal Events.

The first measures of this reign were to restore religion to the same state as in the time of Edward VI., to re-establish the royal supremacy, and to make the denial of it, on the third offence, subject to the penalty of high treason. Convocation opposed these acts. The sovereign, however, received the support of the new parliament, in which the Protestant interest prevailed. In the hope of lessening opposition it was at the same time provided that the new religious test was not to be tendered to the peers, in whose loyalty the queen professed entire confidence. The bishops, who refused to take the oath, were deprived of their sees, which were given to men favourable to the principles of the Reformation. The exercise of the Queen's Supremacy was entrusted to a court, called the Court of High Commission; and an act was passed,—the "Act of Uniformity,"—by which the use of any but the established liturgy was prohibited under severe penalties.

Elizabeth assists the Scotch malcontents against the Queen Regent.

She supports the French Huguenots against Charles IX., and is by them in possession of Havre-de-Grace.

Havre is surrendered to the French.

The Second Parliament of this reign confirms the queen's supremacy over all estates, ecclesiastical as well as temporal.

Robert Dudley, son of the late Duke of Northumberland, is received into favour, and is created Earl of Leicester.

Elizabeth obtains the person of Mary, Queen of Scots, who lands in Cumberland (16th May.)

Conference at York (4th Oct.), subsequently removed to Hampton Court, before which commissioners of Mary and the Regent of Scotland appear.

Negotiations are entered into for a marriage between Elizabeth and the Archduke Charles of Austria.

Projected marriage of Mary Stuart with the Duke of Norfolk, who is committed to the Tower.

Insurrections of Lords Northumberland and Westmoreland, and of Lord Dacre, for the liberation of Mary, for which eight hundred persons are executed.

Observations.

The Peace of Carlowtunbridg, between France and Anstris, (1590.)

Catherine de Medici, regent of France during the minority of her sons, Francis II., (1559), and Charles IX., (1560-63.)

The conspiracy of Amiens is concerted by the Huguenots, (1568.)

Temporary coalition of the Queen of Scots with the Huguenots, (1568.)

The Reform in Scotland is established by Knox (1561.)

The Huguenots, under Condé (Bourbon) and Coligny, take up arms, and are defeated at Dreux, (1568.)

The Emperor Maximilian establishes a general toleration, (1568.)

Mary Stuart makes prisoner by the condes of lords James VI., becomes king under the regency of Earl Murray, (1567.)

Commencement of the sixty-six years' war between Spain and Holland, (1568.)

The Huguenots are defeated at Jarnac and Montcontour, (1569.)

Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye, between Francis II. and the Huguenots, (1570.)

The Turks are defeated at Lepanto by the forces of Spain and Venice, under Don John, natural son of Charles V., (1571.)

The massacres of the Huguenots at Paris on St. Bartholomew's day, (1572.)

Death of Sigismund Anasitus, the last of the male line of the house of Jagellon. The
1570. Excommunication of Elizabeth by Pius V.
1571. The Commons assert their right to freedom of debate.
1572. Trial of the Duke of Norfolk, who is convicted by a jury of twenty-five peers, and is executed.
1573. Elizabeth assists the revolted Dutch provinces against Philip II. of Spain.
1580. She receives proposals of marriage from the Duke of Anjou.
1584. Conspiracy of Francis Throgmorton for the liberation of Mary, for which he is executed. The Spanish ambassador is ordered to leave England.
1585. Execution of Parry for a conspiracy for the assassination of the queen.
Sir F. Drake and Frobisher attack the Spanish settlements in the West Indies.
Babington, convicted of conspiracy for the rescue of Mary, is executed with fourteen others.
Trial and condemnation of Mary, (11th Oct.)
1587. Execution of Mary at Fotheringay, (8th Feb.)
1588. The Spanish Armada enters the English Channel, and is defeated near the Straits of Dover by Admiral Lord Howard of Effingham.
1595. Rebellion in Ireland of the Earl of Tyrone, who is supported by Philip II. of Spain.
1596. Alliance between Elizabeth and Henry IV. of France.
1597. The Earl of Essex is created Earl Marshal.
1598. Essex, who fails to repress the insurrection of Tyrone, is superseded by Lord Mountjoy.
1600. Trial of Essex, who is pardoned.
1601. Insurrection and execution of Essex.
Successes of Mountjoy over Tyrone.
An act is passed in the tenth and last parliament of this reign for the relief of the poor.

With a courage worthy of the most heroic of her predecessors, the English fleet was placed under the command of Lord Howard of Effingham, while under him served Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher. Storms delayed the Spanish armament in the Channel, and the succession of able attacks on the part of the English prevented its junction with the troops of the Duke of Parma. The decisive attack was made by fire-ships in Calais roads (28th July, 1588). Weakened by the loss of several vessels, the Spanish Admiral desired to return homewards. As the Channel was in the possession of the English, the Armada sailed round the North of Scotland. When near the Orkneys, it encountered severe storms, and so many of the vessels were disabled or wrecked on the coasts of Ireland, Scotland, and the adjacent islands, that scarcely one-half of the fleet returned to the shores of Spain.

For many years the favour of the queen was enjoyed by Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester (the fifth son of the late Duke of Northumberland), who was, however, disgraced for a time, (1580), in consequence of a private marriage with the Countess of Essex. On the death of Leicester, (1588), his successor in the affections of Elizabeth was his step-son, Robert, Earl of Essex, by whom the celebrated Francis Bacon was first brought into notice. The fall of Essex is to be traced to his failure in suppressing the insurrection of Tyrone, and to the intrigues of the Cecils and of Sir Walter Raleigh, by whom the party at court hostile to the favourite was headed. The death of Elizabeth is generally supposed to have been hastened by regret at having signed the warrant for the execution of Essex, in consequence of the foolish plan of insurrection concerted by him with the object of removing from the royal council the ministers obnoxious to him.

The wealth and power of England increased during this long and brilliant reign. Commerce was greatly extended: the spirit of maritime discovery was encouraged: the coinage was improved: the colonies of North America were founded. The reputation of Elizabeth was, doubtless, increased by the great men who flourished during this reign. Among the names of those who rendered this period of our history renowned, must be mentioned those of Cecil, Walsingham, Sir N. Bacon, and Sir Philip Sydney, distinguished as statesmen; Sir W. Raleigh, Drake, Frobisher, Cavendish, and Hawkins, famous as navigators and discoverers; Shakespeare, the greatest of our poets, and Spenser, the author of the "Faery Queen." Ben Jonson, Massinger, Ford, Marlow, Greene, and others, are distinguished as theatrical writers.

The discontent which had existed in Ireland since the commencement of this reign, broke out in 1608 into open rebellion. The Irish, headed by O'Neale, Earl of Tyrone, were victorious over the English at Blackwater. They were, however, with their Spanish allies, ultimately defeated by Mountjoy, and Tyrone was allowed to capitulate on honourable terms, (1602).

The spirit of religious persecution was not idle during this reign. Its victims were chiefly Roman Catholic priests; one hundred and twenty-six of whom suffered death under a statute which made it treason for them to remain forty days in England. The party known as Puritans, who sought to effect further changes in the national religion, and who now first acquired influence in parliament, were also subjected to severe measures.

The Archbishops of Canterbury during this reign were Parker, Grindal, and Whitgift; the Lord Chancellors, or Lord Keepers, were Sir N. Bacon, Bromley, Hatton, Puckering, and Egerton; among the names of the Secretaries of State appear those of W. Cecil (Lord Burleigh), Walsingham, and E. Cecil.

Contemporary Events (continued).

Monarchy of Poland becomes elective, (1572.)
By a fourth treaty of peace, the Hungarians gain the free exercise of their religion, (1572.)
William of Orange heads the insurgent Netherlands, relieve the siege of Leyden, (1574.), and is added to the States General.
Edict of Pacification in favour of the Huguenots granted by Henry III., (1576.)
Henry of Guise organizes the Catholic League in France, (1578.)
Fifth civil war in France. War of the three Henrys.
Union of Utrecht between the seven northern provinces of the Netherlands.
Annexation of Portugal to Spain on the death of Cardinal King Henry, (1586.)
The Raid of North Sea, James VI. is seized by the Earl of Gower, (1602.)
Reformation of the calendar by Gregory XIII. (1582.)
William I. of Orange murdered, (1594.), is succeeded by his second son Maurice as Stadholder, (1600.)
The Guises are assassinated by Henry III., who supports the Huguenots, but is himself assassinated by Clement, (1603.)
Henry of Navarre takes the title of Henry IV., declares the League at Ivry, (1595), and is recognized as king, (1594.)
Edict of Nantes, which secures religious liberty in France, (1598.)
Peace of Vervins between France and Spain, (1598.)
Death of Ferdinand, of Russia, the last of the main line of the House of Rurik.
The conspiracy of the Arminians to assassinate James VI. of Scotland (1600.)

Names of Note.
Malmesbury, Reformer died A.D. 1606.
N. Pusey, Parlett, (1604.)
Michael Angelo, Painter, (1606.)
Calvin, Hoet, &c., (1606.)
J. Knox, Reformer, (1607.)
Tytten, Painter, (1607.)
Campeius, Poet, (1608.)
Sir R. Scudamore, (1618.)
Holinh, Hoet, (1619.)
Buchanan, Poet, (1620.)
Sir Phil. Sidney, Poet, (1621.)
Walsingam, Statesman, (1622.)
Marlowe, Dramatist, (1630.)
Tassam, Poet, (1630.)
Drake, Navigator, (1630.)
E. Sermont, Poet, (1634.)
Lord Huirleigh, Statesman, (1638.)
Tychode Drake, Astronomer, (1639.)
Remarks on the Tudor Line.

Government and Laws. We have rapidly described the increase of popular liberty, and the limitations imposed by the Commons on the power of the Crown, under the Plantagenet kings. During the reigns of the Tudors, on the other hand, we meet with an extension of the royal prerogative utterly incompatible with the liberty of the subject.

The student of Constitutional history cannot fail to observe the infrequency of parliaments during the reigns of the Tudors, as compared with those held by the Plantagenet princes. In the thirty years of the reign of Edward III., there were no fewer than fifty-three parliamentary sessions. On the other hand, in the long reign of Elizabeth, occupying forty-three years, only thirteen parliaments, and in the twenty-five years of Henry VII. only seven parliaments were held.

Further evidence of the increase of the royal power during the Tudor dynasty may be gathered from the fact that, in the contests between the parliamentary party and the adherents of prerogative, during the 17th century, the precedents brought forward by the former in favour of popular liberty were drawn exclusively from Plantagenet times.

Attention has also been called to the contrast between the language of writers who describe the English Constitution in the 16th century, and that employed by those who wrote a century and a half later. In his work on the "Laws of England," Chief Justice Fortescue, during the reign of Henry VI., describes England "not as an absolute but a limited monarchy, which exists only from the free choice of the nation, where the king cannot make laws, nor take goods of his subjects without their consent." The sovereign of England is, on the other hand, spoken of as absolute by Raleigh, Davies, and other writers, who were contemporary with the last of the Tudor princes.

Much of the despoticism of the Tudors is, doubtless, to be traced to the removal of the restraint caused by the power of the aristocracy, before the Commons had acquired sufficient influence to enable them to resist the arbitrary measures of the Crown. The subserviency of parliament during this period has often been pointed out; at the same time it must be remembered that, happily, by the preservation of parliamentary forms, an institution was left standing, by means of which the nation was, at a later period, enabled to regain its rights.

The chief constitutional changes deserving notice during the reign of Henry VII. were—

The making recoverable by course of law the exactions known as Benevolences, which had been abolished by parliament in the reign of Richard III. —the frequent grants of monopolies, and the erection of corporate bodies with exclusive privileges—and the extension of the jurisdiction of the Court of the Star Chamber. This Court appears to have succeeded to some of the powers of the Ordinary Council (Ordinarius Concilium) of the early Norman kings, against which several statutes had been enacted since the reign of Edward III. It received its name from the Camera Stellata, or Star Chamber, a room in the palace at Westminster where it held its sittings. This Court was reconstructed in the 3rd year of Henry VII. Its Judges were the Chancellor, the Treasurer, and the Lord Privy Seal, to whom at a later period the President of the Council was added. Its criminal jurisdiction extended to the offences of forgery, perjury, fraud, libel, conspiracy, and especially to violations of the statutes against maintenance. Cases were tried by this tribunal without the intervention of a Jury, and it could award any punishment short of death.

In this reign an important statute was passed, providing that no person who should assist a king de facto should be liable to punishment.

The progress toward arbitrary rule, though with outward regard to constitutional forms, was more marked in the reign of Henry VIII. By the discharge of the king, in 1529, from all debts contracted by him within six years previously,—by affixing the penalty of High Treason to numerous trivial offences, in opposition to the statute of Edward III.,—and by passing attainder without allowing the accused parties to be heard in self-defence, little security was left for the property or person of the subject. By empowering the king to repeal all Acts of Parliament made previous to his attaining the age of twenty-five,—and, finally, by declaring Royal Proclamations to be, in certain cases, of equal force with statutes, the advance toward despotism may be said to have been completed.

The same severity characterised the laws which were passed in this reign with regard to religious belief. The refusal to take the oath abjuring the Supremacy of the Pope was subjected to the pains of High Treason, whilst by the Law of the Six Articles those who maintained the views of the Reformers on the doctrines of the Real Presence, communion in one kind, and private masses, or on the subjects of confession, the celibacy of the clergy and the monastic life, were liable to be burnt.

In the reign of Edward VI. many of the new treasons created by Henry VIII. were abolished, and the important addition was made to the Statute of Edward III. that no person should be convicted of High Treason except on the testimony of two witnesses. The act giving to Royal Proclamations the force of law was repealed. These were important concessions, but we find Royal Proclamations still issued during this and the succeeding reign, which were enforced under penalty of fine and imprisonment.

One of the first acts of Mary was to restore the law of Treason to the same state as in the reign of Edward III. It is just to the memory of this princess to mention the words addresse to her by the Chief Justice, that "notwithstanding the old error among judges did not admit any witness to speak, her Majesty being party, yet her Highness's pleasure was, that whatsoever could be brought in favour of the subject should be admitted and heard." We still, however, find the Judges endeavouring to intimidate Jurors, and punishing by imprisonment verdicts unfavourable to the Crown. In 1557 we meet with an unconstitutional exertion of the prerogative. On the declaration of war with France, the Queen levied an army by conscription, and gave orders that the corn in Norfolk and Suffolk should be seized for the victualling of the fleet.
REMARKS ON THE TUDOR LINE—(CONTINUED).

The success of the foreign and domestic policy of Elizabeth cannot blind our eyes to the despotic character of the government of the last of the Tudors. The chief instruments, by which the unconstitutional power of the Sovereign was carried out during this reign, were the Court of High Commission and the Star Chamber. At the time of the Reformation the Ecclesiastical jurisdiction, hitherto exercised by the Pope, had been transferred to the Crown. By the Act of Supremacy (1st Elizabeth), the Queen was empowered to appoint Commissioners "to reform, repress, and correct all errors, heresies and schisms." Under this Act several temporary commissions were appointed, and, in 1583, the Court of High Commission was finally established. This Court consisted of 45 members, 12 of whom were Bishops, any 3 being empowered to form a Court, and to pass sentence upon offenders. Its authority extended over all classes, and it was authorised to employ not only legal methods of proof, but to obtain evidence by methods unknown to the Courts of Common Law. Suspected persons were required to answer on oath all questions put to them, and even torture and the rack were employed. The punishments inflicted by this Court were fines, imprisonment and excommunication. The Court of the Star Chamber, to which attention has been already directed, had been now strengthened with fresh powers. Among its arbitrary acts, it punished severely disobedience to proclamations, and the unsatisfactory verdicts of Jurors. The Crown also frequently interfered in the selection of Jurors, and the nomination of members to sit in Parliament. Nor must we omit to mention, among the unconstitutional practices of this reign, the illegal exercise of power by individual Privy Councillors, who committed men to prison on their own responsibility—a tendency so flagrant that, in 1692, the Judges remonstrated against it. But a body was slowly rising into power, which was to supply an effective check to the excesses of arbitrary rule.

In this reign we first meet with the appearance of a body of men in Parliament, well read in the history of their country, attached to the principles of freedom, and courageous enough to risk the displeasure of the Crown in asserting them. Scarce a session passed without a contest between the Crown and the Commons on some constitutional question of importance. Of these, two particularly deserve notice:—In 1593 Wentworth moved that a petition be presented to the Queen, praying her to entail the succession to the Crown. For this he was committed to the Tower. In the same session, Morrice, a Puritan, made a motion for the redress of abuses in the Bishops' Courts, and specially in the Court of High Commission. The Queen sent for the Speaker, and, after requiring the Bill of Morrice to be delivered to her, said that her purpose in summoning this Parliament had been twofold—to have laws enacted to enforce uniformity of belief, and to provide for the defence of the nation; but she had expressly enjoined them not to meddle with matters of state or religion. We find that Morrice was subsequently seized in the House itself by a Sergeant-at-arms, and imprisoned for several years.

In 1601, the subject of monopolies, which had already led to frequent complaints, was again revived. Patents had been granted to individuals by the Queen for the exclusive sale of certain commodities. Of these illegal grants the Commons complained, and a Bill was introduced for their abolition. Seizing the determination of the Commons, the Queen, with characteristic prudence, yielded part of her asserted prerogative. She sent a message to the House, that she would revise all the grants made without the sanction of Parliament, and would revoke such as were oppressive.

FOREIGN RELATIONS OF ENGLAND.—Henry VII was the first of our kings who attempted a pacific concert to preserve the "balance of power" in Europe. The Magna Carta (England's first great commercial treaty) was negotiated by him, in 1496, with the Archduke Philip, and promoted our commerce with the great trading cities of the Netherlands. A company which had been in existence since the commencement of the fourteenth century was incorporated, in 1566, as the Company of Merchant Adventurers. The discoveries of Columbus, Cabot, and Vespucci were made about this time, greatly extended foreign commerce; and the success which attended the expeditions of Drake, Cavendish, Raleigh, and others, during the reign of Elizabeth, stimulated the desire of the English to share in the lucrative trade carried on with the New World. The reign of this Prince was marked also by the opening of the trade to the East Indies. Stevens was the first Englishman who sailed to the Indies by the Cape of Good Hope, A.D. 1600. Shortly afterwards an association was formed in London for prosecuting the trade to the East. The Adventurers obtained a Charter of Incorporation (A.D. 1600). The Corporation was called, "The Governor and Company of Merchants in London trading to the East Indies." Such was the origin of the celebrated East India Company. In this reign Sir T. Gresham founded the Royal Exchange; and established a Company to advance money to the Crown. The punctual repayment by the Queen of her loans raised the credit of the English Exchequer, and attracted to England many of the merchants of Italy and Flanders.

CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.—The accession of the Tudor dynasty may be regarded as the epoch at which the abolition of villainage was generally complete; but the newly enfranchised labourers were still subject to various enactments affecting their wages, dress, and daily life. Such laws aggravated the temporary pressure of changes destined ultimately to work out the greatest benefits. The influx of the precious metals, consequent on the discovery of America, raised the rate of wages; but the price of articles of necessity was at first raised more rapidly. The abolition of the monasteries threw those who had been dependent upon them helplessly adrift. The rapid growth of the great centres of commerce, especially London, attracted hosts of "valiant and sturdy rogues, masterless men, vagrants, and maimed soldiers" (Stow). Severe legislation exhausted its resources; vagrants multiplied in spite of the stocks and whipping post; and the gallowes, which, it is said, disposed of 2,000 of the troublesome classes every year under Henry VIII., still claimed its annual tribute of 300 under Elizabeth. Even the ludicrous expedient was tried of stopping the growth of London by a proclamation forbidding the building of new houses, in 1689. At length, an Act of the 39th Elizabeth provided for the appointment of overseers of the poor in every parish, who were to make a rate for their relief, with the consent of the justices; and this was followed by the more complete enactment of the 42nd Elizabeth (1601), which formed the Poor Law of England and Wales, till the passing of the Act of 1834. The population of England and Wales, at the end of the 16th century, has been estimated at about 4,600,000.
GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE TUDOR LINE.

John of Gaunt (4th son of Edward III.) = Catherine Swinesford (Issue legitimated by Richard II.)
died 1399

John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset, died 1410

John Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, died 1444

Queen Catherine = Sir Owen Tudor
(Widow of Henry V.)
died 1461

Margaret Beaufort = Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond

Henry VII. = Elizabeth of York
1485–1509

Arthur, died 1502

Henry VIII. = 1. Catherine of Arragon
James (Stuart) IV. = Margaret = Earl of Angus
James V. = Margaret = Earl of Lennox
Louis XII. = Mary = Charles Brandon
Duke of Suffolk

2. Anne Boleyn

3. Jane Seymour

4. Ann of Cleves

5. Catherine Howard

6. Catherine Parr

(By Jane Seymour)
Edward VI.
died 1553

(By Catherine of Arragon)
Mary
died 1553

(By Anne Boleyn)
Elizabetht
died 1553

James I.

Arabella Stuart = Sir W. Seymour (afterwards Duke of Somerset)

Sir W. Seymour = Arabella Stuart

* On the death of Elizabeth, the parliamentary right to the throne was vested in this nobleman, as representative of Mary, Duchess of Suffolk.
THE STUART LINE AND PERIOD.

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24. JAMES I. (STUART).

**Principal Events.**

The great grandson of Margaret Tudor, eldest daughter of Henry VII., by her first husband, James IV. of Scotland, succeeds to the throne by the appointment of Elizabeth, as well as by the right of succession. He is proclaimed at Whitehall (24th March).

He is met by the Privy Council at Theobald’s, Hertfordshire (3rd May), reaches London (7th May), and is crowned at Westminster (25th July).

An alliance between James and Henry IV. of France.

Suppression of a conspiracy by Lord Cobham and Sir Walter Raleigh in favour of Arabella Stuart, great granddaughter of Margaret Tudor, by her second husband.

1604. A conference is held at Hampton Court between the Episcopal and Puritan divines, at which the king presides (14th-16th Jan.).

Proclamation enforcing the Act of Uniformity.

He meets his First Parliament (19th March), from which he obtains the recognition of his title. He assumes the title of king of Great Britain.

1605. Gunpowder Plot for destruction of the king and the two Houses of Parliament—for which Sir Everard Digby, Guy Fawkes, and others suffer.

1607. A legislative union between England and Scotland proposed by the king.

1608. He bestows the lands in Ulster forfeited by O’Neale and O'Donnell, on English and Scotch settlers.

1609. The renewal of the charter of the East India Company.

Rise of the king’s favourite, Robert Carr.

1610. Disputes between the king and the parliaments as to the right of the crown to modify the rates of the customs. The Commons attempt to limit the royal prerogative.

**Observations.**

James the first of England and sixth of Scotland, the son of Mary Stuart and her cousin Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, was born at Edinburgh, June 10th, 1566. He was a descendant from the first Scotch monarch of the House of Stuart. At the time of his accession he was thirty-seven years of age, during thirty-six of which he had been king of Scotland. The crowns of the two kingdoms were thus united, though Scotland still retained a separate parliament.

No mourning for the late queen was allowed. The Howards and some others who had suffered in the cause of Mary Stuart, were restored to their titles and estates.

The accession of James was soon followed by a double conspiracy—one known as the Bess, the object of which was said to be to force the king to dismiss the Cecilis, and to grant a general toleration—the other known as the Main, the object of which was to place Arabella Stuart on the throne. In the former, Sir J. Markham and the Puritan Lord Grey were implicated: in the latter, Sir W. Raleigh, Lord Cobham, and his brother, Sir George Brook, were two others executed. Sentence of death was passed upon Raleigh; and although it was not carried into effect at the time, he was detained in prison. Arabella Stuart was allowed to remain at liberty till her marriage with William Seymour, grandson of the Protector Somerset, when she was confined in the Tower until her death in 1616.

The Roman Catholics had, up to this time, borne with much patience the infraction of the severe penalties to which the profession of their creed had been rendered subject. On the renewal of the persecution against them, two years after the accession of James, a desperate resolution was formed by a fanatic named Catech, of destroying the king and the two Houses of Parliament, and of placing one of the younger children of James on the throne. Catech, who had at one time embraced Protestantism but had afterwards again professed his early creed, imparted his design to a few of his associates. They hesitated as to the lawfulness of a measure by which the innocent would equally suffer with the guilty. By an answer obtained from a Jesuit named Garret to a question propounded by Catech, the scruples of his accomplices were removed. Vauxhale, the House of Lords was hired, and were filled with destructive materials. A mysterious letter to a Catholic peer betrayed the secret. The letter was sent to the Privy Council. The plot was discovered, and most of the conspirators were captured and executed.

The First Parliament of this reign, after it had existed for nearly seven years, was dissolved in 1611. The Second Parliament, which was summoned in 1614, attempted to abridge the powers of the crown, and was dissolved before a single measure had been passed. After an interval of seven years, a Third Parliament assembled (a.d. 1621). The Commons asserted their liberties and privileges, and entered in their Journal the memorable Protestation, that every member has a right to perfect freedom of speech. James, having sent for the Journal, tore out the record with his own hands, and soon afterwards dissolved the House (a.d. 1622). Sir Edward Coke, Selden, Fynm, and some of the members of the popular party were committed to prison. The Fourth Parliament of the reign, which assembled in 1624, had not been dissolved at the time of the king’s death.

On the death of Prince Henry, the eldest son of James (a.d. 1612), Charles

**Contemporary Events.**

**KINGS OF FRANCE.**

Henry IV. . . . died a.d. 1610.

Louis XIII.

**EMPERORS OF GERMANY.**

Rudolph II. . . . died a.d. 1621.

Mathias . . . . died a.d. 1619.

Ferdinand II. (cosim).

**KINGS OF SPAIN.**

Philip III. . . . died a.d. 1621.

Philip IV. . . .

Accession of Charles IX. in Sweden (1604).

Colonization of Virginia (1607).

The "Twelve Years Trouble" between Spain and Holland (1609).

Final expulsion of the Moors from Spain by Philip III. (1610).

The Evangelical Union, under Frederic of the Palatinate, and the Catholic League, under Maximilian of Bavaria (1610).

Henry IV. is assassinated by Ravillac (1610).

Discovery of Hudson’s Bay (1610).

The Remonstrance is presented by Armenians to the states of Holland (1610).

Batavia is founded by the Dutch (1610).

Mary de Medici, Queen Mother, Regent of France during the minority of Louis XIII. (1610).

The thermometer is invented (1610).

Colonization of Newfound Land (1610).

Guatia Adelaida becomes queen of Sweden (1611).

The first English settlement in India is founded at Surat (1613).

Michael III. founds the dynasty of the Romanoffs in Russia (1613).

Logarithms are invented by Napier of Merchiston (1614).

The last assembly of the States General in France (1614).

The Prince of Condé places himself at the head of the Huguenots (1615).

Peace of Stolbowa between Prussia and Sweden (1617).

Commencement of the Thirty Years’ war.

The Bohemians rise under Von Thurn (1618), and offer war to the Elector Palatine, Frederich V. (1619).
1611. The Order of Baronets is instituted. The dignity is purchased.

1612. Death of Prince Henry.

1613. Marriage of Elizabeth, daughter of the king, with Frederick V., the Elector Palatine—whence sprang the House of Brunswick.

1614. The Second Parliament of this reign ("Addled Parliament"), meets (5th April), and is dissolved (7th June).

1615. George Villiers (afterwards Duke of Buckingham) acquires influence at court.

1617. James holds a parliament in Scotland, and introduces Episcopacy into that country.

A fruitless expedition of Sir Walter Raleigh to South America, which is followed by his execution.

1618. Assembly of a third parliament, by which licences and patents are abolished. Sir E. Villiers, brother of the Duke of Buckingham, Yelverton, the Attorney General, and others are punished. Lord Chancellor Bacon is impeached and fined.

A protestation of their rights is made by the Commons (18th Dec.). The entry is torn from their Journal by the King.

1622. Dissolution of parliament (8th Feb.). Some of the members of the Commons are imprisoned. Lords Oxford and Southampton are committed to custody; whence may be dated the commencement of parliamentary opposition in the Lords.

1623. Visit of Charles, Prince of Wales, to Spain, to negotiate a marriage with the Infanta.

1624. The Fourth Parliament of this reign is held (19th Feb.). The Lord Treasurer, the Earl of Middlesex, is impeached and fined for corruption.

War is proclaimed against Spain and Austria. Subsidies are voted by parliament to assist the Elector Palatine.

Treaty for the marriage of the Prince of Wales with Henrietta Maria of France (12th Nov.).

Married, Anne of Denmark. Issue, Henry, died aged 17. CHARLES I. Elizabeth, married Frederick V., Elector Palatine.
25. CHARLES I.

Principal Events.

The third but only surviving son of James I., succeeds to the crown, in his twenty-fifth year (27th March).

Charles espouses, by proxy, at Paris, Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France (1st May), who arrives at Canterbury (13th June), where the contract of marriage is renewed.

He summons his First Parliament (18th June), which, on account of the plague, is adjourned to Oxford (1st Aug.). It votes Tonnage and Poundage for one year only, and, on demanding a redress of grievances, is dissolved (12th Aug.).

1626. Coronation of the king at Westminster (2nd Feb.).

Charles summons a Second Parliament (6th Feb.), which agrees articles of impeachment against the Duke of Buckingham, and is dissolved (11th June).

He raises supplies by levying the duties of Tonnage and Poundage, and by forced loans.

1627. War is proclaimed against France.

1628. A Third Parliament is summoned (17th March) which passes the Petition of Right (7th June), and votes five subsidies.

Assassination of Buckingham (23rd Aug.).

1629. A remonstrance against innovations in religion, and against Tonnage and Poundage, passed by the Commons (2nd March), is followed within eight days by their dissolution, and the imprisonment of Sir J. Elliot, Hollis, Selden, and six other members, after which no parliament is held for eleven years.

1630. Charles concludes peace with France (April) and Spain (Nov.).

1631. Monopolies are revived, and the power of the Court of the Star Chamber is enlarged.

1633. Charles visits Scotland, where he is crowned.

Lord Wentworth (afterwards Earl of Strafford) is appointed Lord Deputy of Ireland.

The early years of this reign were embarrassed by the war with Spain, and by the unpopularity of Buckingham. The opposition to the Court in the Upper House, which had originated in the preceding reign, was strengthened by the unwise refusal of Charles to grant a writ of summons to the Earl of Bristol. Meanwhile, owing to the changes which had been gradually working their way in the social state of England, the Commons had acquired sufficient strength to exercise that control over the prerogatives of the Crown, which the nobles had ceased to exert since their depression by the Wars of the Roses.

The First Parliament of this reign refused to vote the supplies necessary for the prosecution of the Spanish war, and, on its demand for a redress of grievances, it was dissolved within three weeks.

The Second Parliament (a.d. 1628) assumed a hostile attitude to the Court. It complained of the abuses of the administration, and its impeachment of Buckingham was followed by its dissolution.

To add to the embarrassments of the king, the personal dislike of Buckingham to the great Cardinal Richelieu involved England in a war with France. A fleet of one hundred vessels under the command of Buckingham sailed in 1627 to relieve the Huguenot fortress of Rochelle, which was at that time besieged by Louis XIII. The Duke failed in effecting his object. A second expedition in 1628 was equally unsuccessful. In the summer of 1628, Buckingham was preparing to take the command of a third expedition, when he fell by the hand of the assassin, Felton.

In 1628, Charles summoned his Third Parliament. To check the violent exertions of prerogative by forced loans arbitrary imprisonment, and the levy of taxes without the consent of the Commons, the assent of the king was required to a bill which enacted, 1st, That no loan or tax might be levied but by the consent of parliament. 2nd, That no man might be imprisoned but by legal process. 3rd, That no commissions should be granted for executing martial law. To this bill, called "The Petition of Right," as implying that the privileges secured by it had been already enjoyed, Charles reluctantly assented.

In the following session the Commons proceeded to pass a remonstrance against the impost of Tonnage and Poundage, certain duties on the import of wine and other merchandise,—the levy of which had never been governed by fixed rules, when they were disputed amid a scene of great violence (a.d. 1629).

Until 1629 Sir Thomas Wentworth had acted with the popular party. In that year he was unhappily appointed to the king's councils, and henceforth became his principal adviser. He was appointed president of the Council of York, an important tribunal created by Henry VIII.; in 1633 he was invested with the government of Ireland, and in 1639 he was created Earl of Strafford.

For eleven years, from 1629 to 1640, Charles reigned without parliament. The system of government advocated by Strafford, and which was designated by him "Thorough," was to render the king independent of parliament. All acts of again summoning that body seemed to have been abandoned. As Charles was unable to obtain the ordinary supplies, a system of unconstitutional taxation was continued. The royal revenue was increased by the sale of licenses to go abroad, by the levy of fines on the confirmation of doubtful titles.
1634. First writ for the levy of Ship-money (20th Oct.).

1637. Prymne is punished by the Star Chamber.

Judgment against Hampden for refusing payment of Ship-money.

Introduction of the Liturgy into Scotland.

1638. The National Covenant for resistance to Episcopacy is signed in Scotland.

1639. The Scots rise in arms under the Earl of Leven.

Pacification of Berwick (17th June).

1640. The Fourth Parliament is assembled (13th April), and is dissolved in three weeks (5th May).

The Scots enter England and occupy Newcastle (28th Aug.)

Assembly of a Council of Peers at York (24th Sept.).

Treaty of Ripon (26th Oct.).

The king assembles the Fifth, called "the Long Parliament" (3rd Nov.).

1641. The act for Triennial Parliaments is passed. Strafford is impeached, attainted by Act of Parliament, and executed (12th May).

The Courts of High Commission and of the Star Chamber are abolished.

Insurrection in Ireland (23rd Sept.).

1642. The king in person attempts to arrest Lord Kimbolton and five members of the Commons, who are accused of High Treason (4th Jan.).

The Commons order Sir J. Holthe to secure Hull.

The king sets up his standard at Nottingham (22nd Aug.). Outbreak of Civil War.

Indecisive Battle of Edge Hill (30th Oct.).

Charles establishes his winter quarters at Oxford, and the Earl of Essex his at Windsor.

1643. The Royalists, defeated by Sir W. Waller near Gloucester (23rd March), are victorious at Bramham Moor (29th March).
1643-1645.—CHARLES I.—continued.

Principal Events (continued).

Surrender of Reading to the Earl of Essex (27th April).
The Royalists are victorious at Stratton, in Cornwall (16th May).
The Scotch League and Covenant is adopted by parliament (15th June).
Skirmish at Chalgrove, near Oxford, in which Hampden falls (18th June).
Defeat of Lord Fairfax on Atherton Moor (29th June), and of Sir William Waller at Lansdown, near Bath (5th July), and at Roundway Down, near Devizes (13th July).
Oliver Cromwell and Sir T. Fairfax are victorious at Horncastle.
The First Battle of Newbury (20th Sept.).
1644. Nantwich is taken by Sir T. Fairfax (25th Jan.).
The Scottish army enters England (19th Jan.)
The Royalists are repulsed at Cheriton Down, near Winchester (29th March).
Success of the Royalists at Cropredy-bridge (29th June) followed by the capitulation of the Parliamentary army under Essex.
Battle of Marston Moor (3rd July).
Surrender of Taunton (20th July) and Bridgewater (23rd July) to the Parliamentary army.
The Second Battle of Newbury (27th Oct.).
Surrender of Newcastle by the Royalists (29th Oct.).
The Self-denying Ordinance is proposed by Cromwell, rendering the members of both Houses ineligible to all offices (9th Dec.).
1645. Execution of Archbishop Laud (10th Jan.).
Introduction of the new Directory, and suppression of Episcopacy.
Negotiations at Uxbridge (30th Jan.) broken off (24th Feb.).

Observations (continued).
The events which happened in Ireland at this time added to the power of Parliament. The success of the Scots in preserving their national religion encouraged the Irish to make a similar attempt. The system of confiscation pursued in former reigns had been continued by Strafford. Every legal pretext was employed to dispossess the native Irish, and, on the plea that the land primarily belonged to the king, an inquisition into the titles of the occupants was carried on, and if they were found wanting the lands were forfeited. The Irish, while owning allegiance to the king, took to arms: the English and Scotch settlements in Ulster were attacked, and many excesses were committed.

At this crisis Charles confined to parliament the charge of conducting the Irish war, thus supplying them with weapons destined to be employed against himself. They proceeded to pass a Remonstrance against his previous government, and to impeach the bishops who had professed against the proceedings of the Lords in their absence. At length the fatal step was taken by Charles of attempting to seize in person five of the Commons on a charge of treason (4th Jan., 1645). Though he afterwards offered to make every satisfaction for this breach of the privilege of parliament, the irritation of the popular party was by this act carried to its height.

After obtaining possession of the Tower, Hull, and Portsmouth, the Commons demanded the control of the militia. The king refused, and Civil War followed.

Charles left for the north, where he found the gates of Hull closed against him by Sir J. Hotham. The Royal Standard was unfurled at Nottingham (26th August).

The issue of the battle of Edge Hill (1642) was doubtful. During the winter of 1643 Charles established his head quarters at Oxford, and Essex fixed those of the Parliamentary army at Cambridge. The civil war was protracted by sieges and skirmishes till the First Battle of Newbury, in which no decisive advantage was gained on either side.

The most distinguished among the Royalist Generals were Prince Rupert (son of the Electress Palatine, sister of the king), the Marquises of Newcastle, Worcester, and Hertford, and Lords Falkland and Goring. The Parliamentary forces were led by the Earls of Manchester, Essex, Holland and Bedford, Lord Brooke, Sir W. Waller, Lord Fairfax, and his son Sir T. Fairfax; but the reputation of these early leaders was destined to be eclipsed by that of a more successful general.

In 1658 we first meet in the debates of the Commons with the name of Oliver Cromwell. He was returned for Cambridge in the Long Parliament. On the outbreak of civil war he raised a troop of horse. He was present at Edge Hill, but his military skill first appeared conspicuously at Marston Moor, where the Royalist forces were routed. The Second Battle of Newbury ended in the complete defeat of Charles. Then was passed the resolution known as "the Self-Denying Ordinance." By this resolution, which excluded the members of both Houses from all military offices, Essex, Manchester, Waller and several others, were deprived of their commissions, and the younger Fairfax was appointed to the supreme command, while Cromwell, with the rank of Lieutenant-General, became in reality though not in name the General of the army.

Negotiations for peace, known as the treaty of Uxbridge, were carried on, but they were rendered fruitless by the opposition of the Puritans; and, though

Contemporary Events (continued).

France acquires Alsace. Hostilities are continued between Spain and France (1645).

Ladislaus of Poland is succeeded by his brother, John Casimir (1646).

Names of Note.

J. Fletcher, Dramatist died a.d. 1625
Lord Bacon, Chancellor 1626
Malherbe, Poet 1628
Sped, Chronicler 1629
Kepler, Astronomer 1630
Davila, Historian 1631
Dryton, Poet 1631
Sir H. Cotton, Antiquarian 1631
E. Fairfax, Poet 1632
G. Herbert, Poet 1633
Sir H. Cokes, Jurist 1634
Lope de Vega, Dramatist 1635
Ben Jonson, Dramatist 1638
Rubens, Painter 1640
P. Massinger, Dramatist 1640
Du Chasteau, Historian 1640
Duc de Sully, Statesman 1641
Spelman, Antiquarian 1641
Vandyke, Painter 1642
Domescimone, Painter 1642
Guido, Painter 1642
Galileo, Astronomer 1642
J. Hampden, Patriot 1643
Pym, Patriot 1643
R. Baker, Chronicler 1645
Grotius, Theologian 1646
Torriscetti, Philosopher 1646
Chillingworth, Theolog. 1647
Lord Herbert of Cherbury 1648
J. Vesalae, Philosopher 1649
W. Drummond, Poet 1649

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Principal Events (continued).

Battle of Naseby (14th June), in which the Royalists are defeated.

Victories of the Royalists under the Duke of Montrose in Scotland.

Surrender of Bristol to Fairfax and Cromwell (11th Sept.).

The Duke of Montrose is defeated at Philiphaugh by the Covenanters (13th Sept.).

The king retires to Oxford (5th Nov.)

1646. He surrenders to the Scots at Newark (6th May).

1647. He is delivered up to the Parliamentary Commissioners (30th Jan.), and is conducted to Holmby House (16th Feb.).

He is taken by the army to their head quarters at Newmarket (4th June).

Escape of the king to the Isle of Wight (3rd Nov.).

Proposals for the settlement of the kingdom are made by the parliament to the king (4th Dec.).

1648. The Scots take up arms for the king, and are defeated at Preston (17th Aug.).

Surrender of Colchester (28th Aug.).

Treaty of Newport (18th Sept.) broken off (27th Nov.).

The king is removed to Hurst Castle (30th Nov.).

Resolutions are passed by the Commons in favour of negotiation.

The Presbyterian members of the House are excluded by Colonel Pride (6th Dec.).

Charles is removed to Windsor.

Resolution to proceed against the king (28th Dec.).

1649. Charles is brought before the High Court of Justice, whose jurisdiction he denies (20th Jan.), and by which he is condemned (27th Jan.).

Execution of the king at Whitehall (30th Jan.).


Observations (continued).

The cause of the king was brilliantly supported by the Marquis of Montrose in Scotland, the battle of Naseby was fatal to his hopes. He passed the winter at Oxford, and, seeing that his affairs were desperate, surrendered to the Scots at Newark. By them he was delivered up to the Parliamentary Commissioners, and was conveyed to Holmby House.

The hostility already seen to exist between the Presbyterians and the Independents was at this time still further heightened. The army, among whom the views of the Independents prevailed, proceeded to impeach twelve of the leading Presbyterian members, and forcibly removed the person of the king from the custody of the Parliamentary Commissioners to their own head quarters.

Proposals for a settlement of the kingdom were about this time submitted to Charles by the officers. They were rejected by him, as were four bills sent to him by the Parliament after his escape to the Isle of Wight, upon which a vote was passed by the Commons constituting it treason to hold further communication with the king.

The efforts of the Scots about this time in behalf of the royal cause proved unsuccessful, and only afforded another opportunity for the display of the military genius of Cromwell.

The imprisonment of the king continued during the year 1648. By the restoration of the impeached members, the Presbyterians once more recovered for a time the ascendency in the Commons. Suffering under military usurpations, they sought to lessen the influence of their opponents by again entering into negotiations with Charles, who were advancing favourably, when at this juncture the army, victorious over the Scots, entered London, and assumed an absolute control over the Parliament. Colonel Pride was sent to seize and dismiss the Presbyterians members, and the Council of Officers became the supreme power in the state.

Whatever had hitherto been the motives by which Cromwell had been actuated, his conduct henceforth was marked by determined hostility to Charles. The remaining members of the Commons, not above fifty or sixty in number, determined to proceed to the trial of the king. They resolved that their enactments, without the concurrence of the peers, had the force of law—declared it high treason for the sovereign to levy war against the parliament—and named one hundred and thirty-three Commissioners for the trial of Charles. Of this body Bradshaw was appointed Lord President. Charles, who had been removed by the army from the Isle of Wight to Hurst Castle, and thence to Windsor, was brought before this Court, and condemned by it to suffer death. The warrant for his execution was signed by fifty-nine of his judges, and on the 30th January, 1649, the sentence was carried out in front of the newly erected Banqueting House at Whitehall.

Archbishop Abbott, who died in 1633, was succeeded as Primate by William Laud. After the death of the latter prelate, the see of Canterbury remained vacant for sixteen years. During this period the Presbyterian form of worship was established by Parliament, and the Prayer Book was superseded by a Directory. In effecting these changes, Parliament was aided by an assembly of Divines convened at Westminster (June, 1643), which consisted of 121 Ministers, 10 Peers, and 24 Commoners.

The Civil War.

Battles andSieges.

Battle fought by Royalists are marked R. &


J. E. Newbury, 1st Battle. 8th Sept. 1643.

Newbury, 2nd Battle. 10th Sept. 1643.

Newbury, 3rd Battle. 6th Sept. 1643.

Newbury, 4th Battle. 16th Oct. 1644.

Newbury, 5th Battle. 23rd Dec. 1644.

Newbury, 6th Battle. 16th Feb. 1645.

Newbury, 7th Battle. 5th March 1645.

Newbury, 8th Battle. 20th March 1645.

Newbury, 9th Battle. 10th April 1645.

Newbury, 10th Battle. 10th July 1645.

Newbury, 11th Battle. 21st Oct. 1645.

Newbury, 12th Battle. 20th Nov. 1645.

Newbury, 13th Battle. 19th Dec. 1645.

Principal Events.

The Commons resolve that "the House of Lords is useless" (6th Feb.), abolish the office of king (7th Feb.), and appoint a Council, consisting of thirty-nine members.

Charles II. is proclaimed in Scotland (5th Feb.).

Cromwell, appointed Lord Deputy of Ireland, takes Drogheda (11th Sept.), and Wexford (11th Oct.), and reduces the royalists.

1650. Charles accedes to the terms of the Covenanters, and arrives in Scotland (23rd June).

Cromwell enters Scotland, and defeats the Scots at Dunbar (3rd Sept.).


The Navigation Act is passed.

1652. War is proclaimed against Holland.

1653. Naval victories over the Dutch, by Blake, off Portland (18th, 19th, 20th Feb.), and by Monk off the North Foreland (June 2nd).

Cromwell summons the "Barebones Parliament" (July 4th).

Defeat of the Dutch off the Texel (July 29th).

The Barebones Parliament resign their authority to a Council of Officers, by whom "The Instrument" is prepared which appoints Cromwell Lord Protector (12th Dec.).

Oliver Cromwell is proclaimed Lord Protector (16th Dec.).

1654. Peace is concluded with Holland (5th April).

The Protector summons his first Parliament (4th Sept.) which refuses to make the office of Protector hereditary (13th Oct.), and is dissolved at the end of five months (31st Jan.).

Observations.

PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT, A.D. 1649—1660.

The first acts of the Commons, after the execution of the king, were the abolition of the office of royalty and of the House of Lords, the sale of the church and crown lands, and the punishment of some of the more distinguished royalists. The Duke of Hamilton and Lords Holland and Capel were condemned, and suffered death. A Council of State was appointed, of which Bradshaw was the President, and Milton the Foreign Secretary.

The Scots had taken no part in the trial of the late king, and, on his death, had proclaimed Charles II., on condition of his signing the National Covenant. The Marquis of Montrose, who attempted to establish the authority of the king, independent of the restrictions imposed upon it by the Covenanters, was defeated by them and executed (A.D. 1650).

Such is the influence of established authority, that, for four years, the remnant of the Long Parliament, allowed to remain by the army, and known as "the Rump," carried on the government. It furnished Cromwell with resources to embolden the royalists in Ireland, where, by a campaign marked by great vigour, he reduced the country to subjection; to enter Scotland at the head of 18,000 men, where he defeated the Scots, who had espoused the cause of Charles after his acceptance of the Covenant; and in the following year to gain a signal victory over the royal army at Worcester. Charles fled in disguise, and after forty-five days succeeded in escaping to France.

Successful on all sides, the Parliament, jealous of the growing power of the army, now proposed its reduction. But the measure was frustrated by Cromwell, who, surrounding the House with a body of soldiers, dismissed it in a violent manner. A new assembly, elected under his influence, and called, from the name of one of its members, the "Barebones Parliament," was not sufficiently submissive to his views. Its resignation of power was procured by a manoeuvre, when the Council of Officers invested Cromwell with the supreme authority, by an ordinance called The Instrument. By this ordinance it was provided that the government should reside in a single person, the Captain-General, Oliver Cromwell, under the title of Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland; that a Parliament should be summoned every three years; that the Protector and his Council should make laws during the intervals of Parliament, and that he should have power to proclaim war and peace.

THE PROTECTORATE, A.D. 1655—1659.

For four years and eight months, Oliver Cromwell held the office of Protector.

The administration of Cromwell was vigorous. He upheld the reputation of England abroad—the liberties of the Protestants of Savoy were secured by him—commerce flourished—the army and navy were raised to great efficiency. An insurrection of the Scots was repressed by General Monk; and, in a series of brilliant engagements with the Dutch and Spaniards, the honour of the British flag was upheld by Monk and Blake. In the contest with Spain, the rich island of Jamaica was obtained, which has remained ever since a possession of England.

Contemporary Events.

KING OF FRANCE.

Louis XIV.

EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

Ferdinand III. . . . died a.d. 1657

Leopold I.

KING OF SPAIN.

Philip IV.

The civil war of the Fronde, in France, is suspended by the treaty of Rueil (1648).

Unsuccessful attempt of Prince William of Orange to obtain absolute power in Holland, as a follower of his death. The Stadholdership is abolished (1650).

The Fronde, re-organized by the Great Council, is temporarily joined by Turenne (1660).

Settlement effected by the British in North Carolina (1669).

The Care of Good Hope is occupied by the Dutch (1660).

Louis XIV. is declared of age (1661).

Oenae, Join the Spaniards and in victorios at the Toulouse (1665). End of the civil war of the Fronde (1668).

The Jansenists are condemned by a Papal Bull (1643).

Act to exclude William of Orange from the Stadholdership in Holland. John de Witt, the Great Pensioner, prevails over the administration of affairs (1644).

Brasil is recovered by the Portugueses from the Dutch (1664).

Christina resigns the crown of Sweden to her cousin Charles X. Gustave, the Great Patriotic, the House of D’anjou is placed on the throne, and embraces the Catholic religion (1654).

Commencement of war between Louis XIV. and the House of Austria, which lasts thirteen years with Austria, and twenty-five years with Spain (1654).

Charles X. of Sweden enters into hostilities with Poland (1658), Denmark and Prussia (1657).

The Portuguese possessions in Oyton and Malabar are taken by the Dutch (1656).

John Casimir, King of Poland, recognizes the Independence of Prussia, of which
**Principal Events (continued).**

1656. Alliance with France against Spain.

The Protector summons his second Parliament (Sept. 17th), into which those only who produce a warrant of the Council are admitted.

1657. A plot for the assassination of Cromwell.

The Commons enlarge the powers of the Protector by the "Humble Petition and Advice."

A new House of Lords is summoned.

1658. The two Houses assemble (20th Jan.), and, in consequence of disputes as to the powers of the second House, Parliament is dissolved (4th Feb.).

The partition of Flanders between England and France is projected. The Spaniards are defeated by the combined English and French armies, at the battle of the Dunes (4th June).

Dunkirk is given up by France to the English.

Death of Cromwell (3rd Sept.)

Richard Cromwell is proclaimed Protector.

1659. He summons a Parliament, which, by a remonstrance of the army, he is obliged to dissolve, and abdicates his office (25th May).

The remains of the Long Parliament, or "the Rump," are recalled, but are dispersed by Lambert and other officers, who elect a Committee of Safety (13th Oct.).


A new or Convention Parliament meets (25th April), and passes a resolution in favour of the restoration of royalty.

**Observations (continued).**

The government of Cromwell, however, was a despotism, entirely dependent upon the army for its support. Arbitrary imprisonment was practised, the disaffected were frequently sold as slaves, the press was subjected to a licence. Vane, Bradshaw, and other republicans, who opposed the power of the Protector, were committed to prison; and England was divided into twelve districts, over each of which a Major-General was placed with arbitrary authority. Cromwell called four Parliaments, and summarily dismissed them. Although his authority was confirmed and extended by the enactment of the "Humble Petition and Advice" (1657), which offered to him the royal dignity, the fears of the republican army forced him to refuse the title of King. The hostile attitude of the Commons towards the body nominated by Cromwell as a House of Lords, to which only eight Peers of royal elevation were nominated, led to the dissolution of his last Parliament.

The royalists and the discontented republicans, known as "Levellers," at the head of whom were Sazby and Wildman, joined in conspiracies against the person or authority of the Protector. Special Courts of Justice were erected for their trial, by which Gerard and Vowel, in 1654, and Slingby and Howitt in 1658, were brought to the scaffold.

The latter days of Cromwell were rendered unhappy by the dread of assassination, and by domestic losses. In his sixtieth year he was seized with an attack of ague, and died at Whitehall, on the 3rd September, the anniversary of the victories of Dunbar and Worcester.

On the death of Cromwell, his son Richard was proclaimed Protector. A Parliament was now summoned, but, on the remonstrance of a party of the officers, headed by Lambert and Fleetwood, known, from their meeting at the residence of the latter, as the Wallingford House Cabal, Richard was forced to dissolve it, and soon afterwards he resigned his office. His brother Henry, Viscount of Cork, followed his example, and the family of the Cromwells, which, by the genius of one man, had been raised to the highest power in the state, returned into obscurity.

**Period of Anarchy, 1659—1660.**

On the resignation of Richard Cromwell, the army agreed to reinstate the Long Parliament, on the ground that it could not have been dissolved but by its own consent. Disagreement, however, soon arose, and it was again dispersed by the Convention. The officers, headed by Lambert, then invested a body called the Committee of Safety with the supreme authority.

Meanwhile, Monk, who at this time commanded in Scotland, and who, although he had served under Cromwell, belonged to a royalist family, determined to oppose the schemes of Lambert. He advanced to London, and re-admitted to the House of Commons the Presbyterian members, who for twelve years had been excluded from their seats. The Commons appointed Monk general of the forces, issued writs for new elections, and then dissolved themselves. When the new assembly met, it was found to contain a large proportion of members favourable to the royal cause; and Monk, who had hitherto acted with impenetrable reserve, now entered into a correspondence with Charles. Letters from the prince were, shortly afterwards, laid before the two Houses. A declaration made by him at Brede, promising amnesty and toleration, was favourably received; and commissioners were sent to invite him to assume the government.

**Contemporary Events (continued).**

**NAMES OF NOTE.**

Descartes, Philosopher died a.D. 1650

John Ford, Dramatist

Hugo Jones, Architect

Selden, Antiquarian

Gosnen, Diplomatist

Usher, Archbishop

Hall, Bishop

Harvey, Physicist

Friderick William becomes the hereditary Duke (1637).

Peace of Roskilde, between Sweden and Denmark (1658).

Aurungezebe acquires the Mogul sovereignty in India (1658).

The Peace of the Pyrenees, between Spain and France, by which Louis XIV. obtains in marriage Maria Theresa, the eldest daughter of Philip IV., and acquires the provinces of Artois, Luxembourg, and part of Flanders (1659).
26. CHARLES II.

**Principal Events.**

Accession (de jure) A.D. 1649
Accession (de facto) . 1660
Death . A.D. 1685
Reign 36 years. (A.D. 1660–1685.

**Observations.**

After a period of twelve years, monarchy was restored. Charles II. entered London amid general rejoicing. Monk was created Duke of Albemarle, and Sir E. Hyde (Lord Clarendon) was made Lord Chancellor and First Minister.

The Commons, having been summoned without the royal consent, were, at first, called only a Convention, and it was not until an act was passed for the purpose that they received the title of Parliament.

In accordance with a promise made by Charles at Breda, an Act of Indemnity was passed. The persons immediately concerned in the death of the late king, as well as Vane and Lambert, were excluded by Parliament from the benefit of this Act. Ten of the regicides were, accordingly, executed. Vane suffered death two years later; Lambert was banished to Guernsey.

In return for the abolition of the burden on lands by the feudal tithes, a revenue of £1,200,000 was granted to the king. The army was disbanded, no more troops than a few guards being retained. The clergy were reinstated in their benefices, and the bishops in their sees. An attempt was made to effect such changes in the Liturgy as would enable the Presbyterians to remain in the Church of England. With this object, a conference was held between the leading Episcopalians and Puritan divines. The Prayer-book was revised by convocation, but the alterations made were not of such a nature as to remove the scruples of the Presbyterians.

The Convention Parliament was dissolved in 1660. A new Parliament, which assembled in 1661, restored the right of petitioning, and passed the Corporation Act, by which it was enacted that all municipal officers should be in communion with the Church of England, and should assert the unlawfulness of resistance to the king under any circumstances. The Act of Uniformity, which was passed in the following year, required that all clergymen should declare their assent to the Book of Common Prayer. By this Act, which came into operation before the Feast of St. Bartholomew, 1662, about 2,000 ministers lost their preferments. The attempt on the part of the Nonconformists to open separate places of worship led, in 1664, to the passing of the Conventicle Act, which rendered illegal any meeting for public worship in other manner than that allowed by the Liturgy of the Church of England.

In the following year, the Five Mile Act was passed, which forbade non-conforming ministers to come within five miles of any town sending members to Parliament.

The war with Holland, known as the Second Dutch War, was attended with no material benefit. By the treaty of Breda, New Amsterdam, since known as New York, was ceded to the English. The sale of Dunkirk, and the unsuccessful issue of the Dutch war, attributed to the counsels of Clarendon, caused the banishment of that minister.

No sooner was this concluded with Holland, than a triple alliance was negotiated by Sir William Temple, between that country, England, and Sweden, to oppose the progress of the arms of Louis XIV. in Flanders. Scarcely had that object been effected by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, when a secret arrangement was made, by which Charles engaged, for a pension of 3,000,000 livres, to assist Louis in his schemes against Holland, and to profess himself a Roman Catholic.

The result was a third war with Holland.

On the disgrace of Clarendon, a new ministry was formed, called the King's

Contemporary Events.

King of France.
Louis XIV.

Emperor of Germany.
Leopold I.

Kings of Spain.
Philip IV. . . . . died A.D. 1665
Charles II.

Marriage of Louis XIV. with Marie Theresia, daughter of Philip IV. (1660).

Charles XI. becomes King of Sweden, under the regency of the Queen-mother, Ulrica Eleonora.

The treaties of Oliva, between Sweden and Poland, and new commercial treaties between Sweden and Denmark, give peace to the North.

The diet of Denmark gives absolute power to the king.

Death of Masani. Louis XIV. governs alone (1661).

Alliance of Austria, France, and Italy against Turkey (1664).

Marriage of the Emperor Leopold with Margaret Theresa, daughter of Philip IV. of Spain (1665).

Louis XIV. claims the Spanish Netherlands in place of his wife, and invades that country (1667).

Triple Alliance of England, Sweden, and Holland, who mediate the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle between France and Spain. France retains her conquests from Spain (1668).

England mediates the treaty of Lisbon, by which Spain recognizes the independence of Portugal (1668).

Louis XIV. succeeds in dissolving the Triple Alliance, and invades Holland (1672).

The Dutch are murdered. The perpetual enmity against the Stadtholdership is renewed, and William IV. (of Orange) is appointed Captain-General and Stadtholder (1672).

Alliance of Austria, Spain, and Holland, against Louis XIV. (1674).

Indisputable basis of Saaz. between William of Orange and Conrad (1674).

Willy von Oranien is declared hereditary Stadtholder (1674).

Alliance of Louis XIV. with Sweden (1675).

Cabal—a word already in use for a secret council. Its chief members were the Duke of Buckingham, Lords Arlington and Lauderdale, to whom were soon added Lord Ashley and Sir T. Clifford. In 1674, by the death of Clifford, and the disgrace of Ashley (Earl of Shaftesbury), who now joined the opposition, the Duke of York, and Sir T. Osborne (Earl of Danby, and afterwards Duke of Leeds), became the first minister. In 1675, the disclosure by Montague, the English minister at Paris, of the fact that Danby had been a party to a second secret treaty with Louis, by which Charles had engaged to support the foreign policy of the French King, for a pension of 100,000 livres, led to the impeachment of that minister. By the advice of Temple, the government was now entrusted to a council, in which, for a time, the Liberal party was included, with Shaftesbury as President. The second Parliament of Charles II., sat by prorogation for 18 years. During this period, the public profession of the Roman Catholic religion by the Duke of York led to an attempt to pass a Bill excluding him from the succession. The supporters and opponents of this Bill were known as “Addressers” and “Abborers,” apppellations afterwards changed to those of Whigs and Tories. An Act was passed—the Test Act, requiring from all public officers an oath abjuring the Roman Catholic religion. The efforts of the Whigs to carry their Exclusion Bill led to the dissolution of the third and fourth Parliaments of this reign. The short session of the third Parliament is memorable from the passing of the Habeas Corpus Act, which provided important guarantees for personal liberty. About this time the nation was alarmed by rumours of the discovery of a plot for the murder of the king. This plot, the existence of which rested upon the testimony of an informer, named Titus Oates, was ascribed to the Roman Catholics, who had shown an unshaken loyalty to the king during the recent civil troubles. On evidence utterly incredible and self-contradictory, the lives of several innocent persons were sacrificed, among others the venerable Earl Stafford, the lion representative of the Plantagenet line. The last memorable event of this reign was a plan of insurrection,headed by the Duke of Monmouth, the son of the king by Lucy Walters, the Earl of Shaftesbury, Lords Grey and William Russell, and Algernon Sidney. At the same time, but with their knowledge, a desperate resolution was taken by some of the inferior members of the conspiracy to kill the king at a farm, called the Rye House, in Hertfordshire. Monmouth and Grey escaped, Shaftesbury having previously withdrawn to Holland; but for their part in these transactions, though in violation of the letter and spirit of our laws, Lord W. Russell and Algernon Sidney were executed. The detection of this conspiracy strengthened the career of arbitrary power, and aided the king in his attempt to control the municipal institutions of the country, by issuing writs (known as “Quo Warrantos”), in virtue of which the charters of some of the Corporations were declared to be forfeited. On Feb. 2, Charles was seized with apoplexy. He refused to receive the Sacrament from the clergy of the Church of England; but he consented, at the request of his brother, to see a Roman Catholic priest, who administered to him the last rites of the Church (1685). The Primes during this reign were Juxon, Sheldon, and Sancroft; the Chancellors, or Lord Keepers, were the Earls of Clarendon, Shaftesbury, and Nottingham, Sir O. Bridgman, and Lord Guildford.

Contemporary Events (continued).


Names of Note.

### 27. JAMES II.

**Principal Events.**

The only surviving son of Charles I., is proclaimed King (6th February).

The King and Queen Mary d’Estre of Modena are crowned at Westminster (23rd April).

Titus Oates and Dangerfield, convicted of perjury, are sentenced to be whipped and imprisoned.

A Parliament is summoned (19th May). It settles tonnage and poundage on the king for life.

Insurrection in Scotland by the Duke of Argyle, who is arrested and executed (30th June).

The Duke of Monmouth lands at Lyme (11th June), is defeated at Sedgemoor (6th July), and is beheaded within nine days.

Lord Chief Justice Jeffries commences "the Bloody Assize" at Winchester, for the trial of the insurgents (7th August).

1686. The Judges afirm the power of the King to dispense with the penal laws against Dissenters (21st June).

An Ecclesiastical Commission is appointed, by which Compton, Bishop of London, is suspended.

1687. Lord Tyrconnel is appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

A mandate of the King to admit Alban Francis (a Benedictine monk) to a degree at Cambridge, without taking the usual oaths, is resisted by the Vice-Chancellor (7th February), who is deprived.

All Penal Laws and Tests are suspended, and liberty of conscience is proclaimed (4th April).

Mandate to elect A. Farmer President of Magdalen College, Oxford (11th April). Refusal of the Fellows who are expelled (10th December).

The Benchers and Barristers assert the dispensing power of the king (9th June).

The army encamps on Hounslow Heath.

Dissolution of Parliament (2nd July).

### Observations.

James II. of England, and VII. of Scotland, ascended the throne at the age of fifty-one. In his first speech to his council he declared his intention to abide by the laws; an assertion morally affected, however, by his exaggerated notions of the extension of the royal prerogative. With great imprudence, he ordered a levy of the taxes which formed the ordinary revenue of the crown, including those which had been granted only during the lifetime of the late king.

The ministers of Charles II. were retained in office. They were the Earls of Clarendon and Rochester (the brothers of the King’s first wife), Lord Halifax, to whose able opposition the defeat of the Exclusion Bill in the late reign had been chiefly owing, and Lords Sunderland and Middleton.

The coronation oath in use at this time had only bound the sovereign to preserve the Church in the same state as in the time of Edward the Confessor. No express guarantee, therefore, was provided for the security of the established religion. James, however, referred to the zeal generally shown by the Church of England in the cause of monarchy, and promised it his support.

When Parliament met, it confirmed the levy of taxes already made, voted the King a revenue for life, and acceded to the measures of the Court. It is impossible, therefore, not to pass the severest censure on the step taken by James, of soliciting at this early period the continuance of the pension from France.

Scarcely had these events happened, when the Duke of Monmouth, who, on the detection of the Rye House Plot, had taken refuge in Holland, determined to invade England. He landed at Lyme in Dorsetshire, proclaimed himself the "Defender of the Protestant Religion," took the title of King, and set a price upon the head of "James, Duke of York." An encounter with the royal troops took place at Sedgemoor—the scene of Alfred’s concealment—when Monmouth was defeated by Lord Feversham, and forced to flee. He was taken two days later, and, having been twice guilty of treason, was justly sentenced to death. Many of his followers fell on the field, and the remainder were tried by the court of Lord Jeffers, whose progress from Winchester to Cornwall on this occasion was known as "the Bloody Assize." The attempt made by the Duke of Argyle, who, in concert with Monmouth, made a descent upon Scotland, was equally unsuccessful. The Duke was seized while attempting to escape in disguise, and suffered death.

The authority of James seemed now fully established. The University of Oxford had lately preached obedience unlimited and without restriction, and the clergy taught the unlawfulness of resistance to the King under any circumstances. But the stability of the royal power was undermined by a series of unwise and unconstitutional acts.

The existence of a power in the crown to dispense with the penalties of the laws allowed from ancient times to exist, though its limits were not defined. James now resolved to bring the question to a legal decision. Sir E. Hales was prosecuted for holding a command in the army without having taken the test introduced in the last reign. Hales pleaded a dispensation, and eleven out of twenty judges decided in favour of its legality. On the strength of this decision, Roman Catholics were appointed to various offices.

Opposition was now raised in the pulpit, and, on the refusal of Compton, Bishop of London, to suspend one of his clergy for a sermon obnoxious to the
Principal Events (continued).

The Papal Nuncio is received by the King at Hampton Court (9th July).

1688. A second Declaration of Liberty of Conscience is issued (27th April), and is ordered to be read in the churches. Seven of the Bishops petition against this order, and are committed to the Tower (8th June).

Birth of James, Prince of Wales, afterwards known as the Old Pretender (10th June).

Trial and acquittal of the seven Bishops (27th June).

An invitation is sent to the Prince of Orange by Lords Devonshire, Shrewsbury, Danby, and Lumley, Compton (Bishop of London), Admiral Russell, and Henry Sydney, afterwards Lord Romney.

James re-instates Bishop Compton, abolishes the Ecclesiastical Commission, and restores the charters of the municipal corporations forfeited in the late reign.

William of Orange sails from Helvoetsluys (19th October), and lands at Torbay (5th November).

He advances to Exeter (8th November), and is joined by several of the peers and gentry.

The King goes to Salisbury (16th November) to join his army: is deserted by the Duke of Grafton, Lord Churchill, and others, and returns to London (27th November).

William advances to Hungerford, and enters into negotiations with Commissioners sent by James (8th—9th December).

Flight of the King, involving his abdication (11th December).

Observations (continued).

Court, the unconstitutional step was taken of erecting a Court of Ecclesiastical Commission, consisting of three bishops and four laymen, by whom Compton was suspended. The refusal of the Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge to admit Francis to a degree without taking the oaths was followed by a sentence of excommunication. At the same time, the disobedience of the fellows of Magdalen College, Oxford, to the mandate of the King to elect Farmer as their president, led to their expulsion.

A measure still more fatal followed. A Declaration of Liberty of Conscience, issued by the king, was ordered to be read in the churches, on two successive Sundays, the 20th and 27th of May, 1688. Against this the Primate, Sancroft, and six of the bishops, drew up a respectful petition, which was construed by the court as a libel. They were committed to the Tower; and, three weeks after the birth of the Prince of Wales, they were put upon their trial. Their acquittal was received by the nation with triumph.

William III., Stadholder of the Netherlands, and Prince of Orange (himself the grandson, through his mother, of Charles I.), had married Mary, the eldest daughter of James. In the absence of a male heir to the throne, William had long looked forward to the probable acquisition of the English crown by right of his wife, as the solution of the existing troubles. The birth of a Prince of Wales presented an obstacle to the attainment of this object; and, while publicly congratulating his father-in-law on the birth of a son, William instructed his envoy in England to foment the growing discontent.

On the very day of the liberation of the bishops, an address signed by Lords Shrewsbury and Devonshire, and five others, was sent to William, inviting him to come to England to redress the grievances of the nation.

Carefully concealing his projects till they were ready to be executed, William made his preparations. James, though warned by Louis XIV., for some time refused to distrust the intentions of his son-in-law, and even when the alliance of Louis was proposed it was declined. The object of William, however, could not long be concealed. Open disaffection broke out in London; and James sought too late to regain by concessions the confidence of his subjects.

After publishing a declaration of the reasons of his conduct, William sailed from Holland, and landed at Torbay (5th November). With 16,000 men, he marched to Exeter. At first few joined him, and he even thought of abandoning his enterprise. But the defection from the royal cause of Lord Churchill and other officers emboldened him to proceed. Plymouth was placed in his hands by its governor, the Earl of Bich. Deserted at this juncture by his children and courtiers, James, who had lately returned from the head quarters of the army at Salisbury, attempted to leave England, in disguise, throwing the Great Seal into the water as he passed over the Thames. Interrupted in his flight at Faversham, he was brought again to the capital, which he entered amid acclamations. The first act of the Prince under these circumstances was to arrest Lord Faversham, who was sent with proposals for a conference; his next, to take possession of the palace of Whitehall. James was in a few hours ordered to leave London, and was escorted by Dutch troops to Rochester. After four days he again resolved on flight, and left for France, where he arrived on Christmas Day. The ex-king died at St. Germaine, 16th September, 1701.

28. WILLIAM III. AND MARY II.

Observations.

ACCESSION A.D. 1689

DECLARATION OF RIGHTS (17th Dec., 1689—17th Feb., 1690).

The throne being held to have become vacant by the flight of James (11th Dec.), an Interregnum commenced, which continued until the acceptance of the crown of William and Mary (13th Feb., 1689).

William entered London shortly after the departure of James (18th Dec.). A few days later an address was presented to him by about ninety peers and bishops, and an assembly consisting of some of the Members of the Parliament of Charles II. and the Lord Mayor and Common Councilmen of London, authorising him to issue a warrant for the assembly of a Convention.

When this Convention met, the Commons voted that "James, having violated the fundamental laws, and withdrawn himself out of the kingdom, had abdicated the government." Warm debates followed, whether a Regency should be appointed, or the crown be conferred on the Princess Mary. The rejection of both of these proposals by William led finally to a settlement, carried in the House of Lords by a majority of only two, conferring on the Prince and Princess of Orange the title of King and Queen, but vesting the exercise of the royal authority in William alone. To this settlement of the crown, Parliament annexed the famous Declaration of Rights, by which the powers of the regal authority were abridged, and the liberties of the nation were confirmed.

WILLIAM III. AND MARY II. (JOINTLY) A.D. 1689—1694.

William and Mary commenced their reign on Feb. 13, 1689. A bill was passed constituting the Convention a Parliament. The revenue was fixed at £1,200,000.

An act was passed, the Toleration Act, which prohibited dissenters from certain penalties to which they had been subjected. A new oath of allegiance was drawn up. The bishops were excommunicated about four hundred of the clergy refused to take this oath, and were deprived of their benefices.

A Convention, which met in Scotland (14th March), voted that James had forfeited the crown, drew up a Declaration of Rights, in which the abolition of the Episcopacy was demanded, and conferred the sovereignty upon the Prince and Princess of Orange. The cause of the exiled king was, however, supported by the brave Graham of Claverhouse, now Viscount Dundee, who successfully defeated the troops of William at Killiecrankie; but fell in the moment of victory.

In Ireland, where he was still acknowledged, James landed in the month of March, and found himself at the head of 40,000 men. His first repulse was at Londonderry, which had declared for William, and which was defended in a siege of forty days with great bravery by a clergyman, named Walker. William now resolved to conduct the Irish war in person, and the hostile armies met on the banks of the river Boyne; where, though the veteran Schomberg fell, the English troops won the victory. The Irish troops only fought in the war, but were defeated at Aughrim, where their general, St. Ruth, was killed. They made their last stand at Limerick, which capitulated on terms which were but too faithfully observed.

Although resistance was subdued in Scotland and Ireland, yet William found

DEATH A.D. 1702.

"  1694.

Contemporary Events.

KING OF FRANCE.

Louis XIV.

KING OF GERMANY.

Leopold I.

KING OF SPAIN.

Charles II.

Philip V. (House of Bourbon).

KING OF PRUSSIA.

Frederick I. from a.d. 1701.

Hostilities are commenced between the Allies and Louis XIV. (1689).

Death of Christina of Sweden at Rome (1689).

Peter the Great, aged 12, takes the government into his own hands, and revokes his letter from the regency of Russia (1699).

Ernest Augustus, Duke of Brunswick-Luneburg, is created Elector of Hanover (1695).

An English factory is established at Calcutta (1690).

Savoy joins the confederacy of European States against Louis XIV. (1691).

The French are victorious in the Netherlands under Luxembourg; in South under Vendome; and in Savoy under Catinat (1690).

The peace of Turin, between Louis XIV. and Savoy (1692).

Accession of Charles XII. of Sweden, followed by the Great Northern war (1697).

The Turks are defeated by Prince Eugen at Zenta (1697).

Death of John (III.) Sobiesky. Frederic Augustus, Elector of Saxony, is chosen king of Poland (1697).

The peace of Sevres is concluded between France, Austria, England, Spain and Holland. France restores her conquests from Spain: Dissolution of the League of Augsburg (1697).

Peter the Great visits England (1698).

A Scotch colony is established in the isle of Darlon (1698).

Death of Ernest Augustus, first elector of Hanover, who succeeded by his son George I., afterwards George I. of England (1698).

Treaty of Karlowitz between Austria, Prussia, Poland, Venice, and Turkey. Azoff is ceded to Russia (1699).
1691. The Irish are defeated at Aughrim (22nd July).
Surrender of Limerick by treaty, and cessation of hostilities in Ireland (3rd Oct.).

1692. Massacre of the MacDonalds of Glencoe.
Defeat of the French off La Hogue (19th May).
William embarks for Holland, and is defeated at Steinkirk (24th July), and at Lauden (1693).

1694. An unsuccessful expedition to Brest.
The Bank of England is established.
The Triennial Act is passed (22nd Dec.).
Death of Queen Mary at Kensington (28th Dec.).

1695. William's second parliament is dissolved (11th Oct.). The third parliament meets (22nd Nov.).

1696. A new law of treason is passed.
A conspiracy, by Sir J. Barclay, to assassinate the king. Sir J. Fenwick is attainted.

1697. Peace is concluded with France at Ryswick.
Louis recognises the title of William.

1698. Parliament is dissolved (2nd July).
Conclusion of a treaty between William and Louis XIV. for the partition of the Spanish Monarchy.

A Fourth Parliament meets (6th Dec.).

1699. William is forced by parliament to reduce the army and to dismiss the Dutch guards.

1700. Conclusion of a second Partition Treaty.
1701. Act settling the HANOVERIAN SUCCESSION.
The Partition Treaties condemned by parliament, and Lords Somers and Halifax impeached.
Parliament is dissolved (24th June).

The GRAND ALLIANCE is concluded between England, Austria, and Holland.

Death of the ex-king, James II. Louis XIV. recognises his son as James III.

The Fifth Parliament meets (30th Dec.).

Observations (continued).

himself exposed to the treachery of the men from whom he might reasonably have expected support. Among those who were ready to betray the cause of the prince whom they had recently placed on the throne, and to enter into correspondence with the exiled monarch, were Lords Halifax, Godolphin, Sherbrooke, and Marlborough. Information secretly sent by the latter to the court of France led to the failure of an attempt, made on the part of the English, to depossess the monarch at Braintree. The cause of the adherents of James was, at the same time, strengthened by the occurrence of the massacre of the MacDonalds of Glencoe, in virtue of a warrant signed by William to gratify the private revenge of a Scotch nobleman, Lord Breadalban. A plan for a rising by the Jacobites, in concert with a French fleet, was arranged. The attempt to re-establish James on the throne of England might have succeeded, had it not been for the victory of La Hogue, where the French fleet was defeated by Admiral Russell.

The favours shown to the Churchills by the Princess Anne had led to estrangement between the sisters; and before a reconciliation had been effected, Mary caught the smallpox and died (28th Dec. 1694).

II.

WILLIAM III. (ALONE) A.D. 1694—1702.

For eight years William was the sole ruler. To this period may be referred the introduction of three important constitutional changes. 1.—The adoption of the Triennial Act, which provided that no parliament should sit for more than three years—an Act superseded by the Septennial Act, passed in 1716.

2.—The establishment of the Civil List. Until the time of the Revolution, the whole of the supplies granted by Parliament had been generally placed at the disposal of the sovereign. In 1694 a definite sum was, however, fixed for the support of the king, called the Civil List, while the other grants made by the Commons were annually appropriated by them to specified purposes.

3.—The Act of Settlement. At the period of the Revolution it had been provided that the succession of William and Mary without issue, the crown should descend to the Princess Anne and her issue. The death of the Duke of Gloucester, her only surviving child, in 1700, rendered a new settlement necessary. This settlement passed over the descendants of Anne Henrietta, the daughter of Charles I., and those of the elder children of Elizabeth, the Electress Palatine, daughter of James I., (who were Catholics), and limited the succession to her fifth daughter, the Princess Sophia, and her issue, being Protestant. This statute supplied some omissions in the Bill of Rights, and contained several important constitutional provisions.

Of the thirteen years of the reign of William, eleven were spent in war. Although the object of his policy was ostensibly to check the ambition of Louis XIV., yet the power of France was but little lessened. By the treaty of Ryswick, concluded after a long and expensive war, little was gained by the allies; and, by the Partition Treaties, important advantages were conceded to France. The secrecy with which these treaties were concluded, and the failure of his foreign wars, lessened the popularity of the king, until he joined in the Grand Alliance, the result of which was the renewal of hostilities with France. But before the formal declaration of war, William, while riding near Hampton Court, met with an injury by a fall, which proved fatal.

On the deprivation of Archbishop Sancroft, the Primacy was conferred upon Tillotson; who, in 1692, was succeeded by Tenison.
29. ANNE.

Principal Events.
The second daughter of James II., by Anne Hyde, succeeds to the throne, according to the first Act of Settlement (8th March).

Anne is crowned on St. George's day, at Westminster (23rd April).

War is declared by England, in alliance with Austria and Holland, against France and Spain (4th May).

Parliament is dissolved (May).

The Duke of Marlborough is appointed to the command of the allied army.

A new parliament (the first of Anne) assembles, of which Harley is chosen speaker (20th Oct.).

1703. The Great Storm (which lasts from 26th Nov. to 1st Dec.)

The “Methuen Treaty of Commerce” is concluded with Portugal.

1704. Queen Anne’s bounty is instituted.

Gibraltar surrenders to Sir G. Rooke (22nd July).

The victory of BLENHEIM is gained by the Allies under Marlborough (13th Aug.)

Gibraltar is besieged by the French and Spaniards.

1705. Expedition of the Earl of Peterborough to Spain.

The Second Parliament meets (25th Oct.).

1706. The victory of Ramilies (2nd May), followed by the conquest of the Netherlands.

The Articles of Union between England and Scotland are signed by the Commissioners. The last Scottish Parliament is convoked.

1707. The Articles of Union are sanctioned by the Scottish Parliament, and the Act receives the Royal Assent. UNION BETWEEN ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND (1st May).

ANNE, who on the death of William III. succeeded to the English crown, to the succession of her brother James was in the thirty-eighth year of her age. She had married, in 1694, Prince George of Denmark. The Prince sat in the House of Peers, as Duke of Cumberland, and held the offices of Generalissimo and High Admiral, but he had neither the authority nor the title of King.

In her youth a friendship had been formed by the Queen for Sarah Jennings, one of her attendants. This lady had afterwards married John Churchill, who, in consideration of his military services, was created successively Earl and Duke of Marlborough. By the influence of this able general and that of his colleague Lord Godolphin, Lord High Treasurer, Anne was induced to give her support to the confederacy of European States formed in the preceding reign, and which was rendered necessary by the unsettled state of the affairs of Spain.

The expected death of Charles II. (son of Philip IV.), who was childless, had led to questions as to the succession to his dominions, which threatened to disturb the peace of Europe. Among the claimants for the succession, the principal were the Dauphin of France, son of Maria Theresa, eldest daughter of Philip IV.; the Electoral Prince of Bavaria, grandson of Margaret Theresa, second daughter of Philip IV.; and the Archduke Charles of Austria, whose right was by his grandmother, daughter of Philip III. This prince, who was also a descendant in the direct male line from Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, had been named heir by Philip IV. The conditions of the arrangement concluded between William III. and Louis XIV., known as the first Partition Treaty, were that Naples and Sicily should be assigned to the Dauphin, that the Archduke Charles should succeed to Milan, and that the Electoral Prince should inherit the crown of the Netherlands, and the Indies. The death of the young Elector, however, frustrated this arrangement, and led to the conclusion of the Second Partition Treaty, by which it was agreed that the Archduke Charles should succeed to Spain, the Indies, and the Netherlands; and the Dauphin to the Italian States, including Milan. The knowledge of this arrangement was publicly announced, and the Elector of Bavaria, the younger brother of the Dauphin, was proclaimed King of Spain, by a declaration of the Spanish Cortes. The war against France was continued by the Emperor Leopold, who had ascended the throne of Austria in 1658. The French were defeated at the Battle of Blenheim (21st Aug.), and the Spanish and French troops were driven from Italy. The Treaty of the Pyrenees was signed at Utrecht (1713), by which Spain ceded most of the territory she had acquired in the reign of Charles II., and recognized the succession of the House of Bourbon to the French throne.

The war between the Allies and Louis XIV., known as the War of the Spanish Succession, opened with a campaign in the Netherlands (1702), in which, owing to the inactivity of the Dutch, but little effect was produced. In the following year, some of the frontier towns of Germany were captured. In 1704 Marlborough crossed the Rhine, and, having effected a junction with Prince Eugene of Savoy, signally defeated the French and Bavarians at Blenheim on the Danube. By this victory, the Empire was saved. In Flanders the campaign of 1705 was comparatively barren in results; but in Spain the Earl of Peterborou...
Principal Events (continued).

Meeting of the First United Parliament of Great Britain (the third of Anne), 23rd Oct.

James Francis, the Pretender, sails from Dunkirk with French troops, arrives on the coast of Scotland, and is driven back by Sir G. Byng.

Death of Prince George of Denmark (the husband of the Queen), at the age of fifty-five.

Incorporation of the East India Company.


The Allies are victorious at Oudenarde (11th July, 1708), and at Malplaquet (11th Sept., 1709).

1710. Dr. Sacheverel is impeached by the House of Commons.

The Whig ministry is dismissed. Harley is appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer.

The Fourth Parliament meets (25th Nov.). The Act against Occasional Conformity passed; repealed in 1718.

The Barrier Treaty between England and Holland condemned by Parliament.

The Duke of Marlborough dismissed from his employments.

1712. Cessation of hostilities between England and France.

1713. Peace is concluded with France by the Treaty of Utrecht (31st March).


1714. The Fifth Parliament meets (16th Feb.).

Death of the Princess Sophia, leaving her son, George, Elector of Hanover, heir under the Act of Settlement. (6th June).

The Schism Act passed; repealed in 1718.

Oxford is driven from office (27th July).

Illness of the Queen (29th July). The Duke of Shrewsbury is appointed Lord High Treasurer. The Whigs restored to office.

Observations (continued).

which was followed, two years later, by the victory of Oudenarde. The capture of Lille and the reduction of a great part of Flanders closed the brilliant campaign of 1708, and the series of Marlborough's victories was ended in the following year by the bloody battle of Malplaquet. This war was also signalled by the capture of Gibraltar by Sir George Rooke (A.D. 1704), of Sardinia and Minorca by Sir John Leake (A.D. 1708), and of Acadia (now Nova Scotia, A.D. 1710). In Spain, the Allies were defeated by the French at Almena (A.D. 1707); and the victories of Stahremberg and Stanhope, which carried the Archduke Charles to Madrid (A.D. 1710), were reversed by decisive defeats from Marshal Vendôme (1711); while Charles, on the death of his brother, Joseph I., gave up the contest for Spain, to receive the Imperial crown.

While the glory of the English arms was supported by Marlborough abroad, his influence in the English Councils declined. His wife had been replaced in the affections of the Queen by Mrs. Masham, a relative of the Duchess. The war, too, chiefly supported by the Whig party, had become unpopular from the decay of trade and the increase of the public debt. Mrs. Masham proceeded to introduce into the palace Robert Harley, a Tory in politics and an enemy of Marlborough.

The unpopularity of the Whigs was about this time increased by their prosecution of Dr. Sacheverel for a sermon in which he had given expression to views at variance with the principles of the Revolution. The cause of Sacheverel was popular. By the influence of the government, however, his conviction was secured, and he was suspended for three years. His sermon was ordered to be burnt by the hands of the common hangman, as well as the decree of the University of Oxford, on the occasion of the Bye House plot, asserting the doctrine of non-resistance and passive obedience.

Such was the change in public opinion, that the fall of the Whig ministry was the immediate result of this trial, and Harley and St. John, the leaders of the Tory party, acquired the chief influence in the government. By these ministers the Queen was induced to desert the cause of the Allies, and to conclude with France the Treaty of Utrecht.

The Tories, however, were now divided. One party, headed by Harley (now Earl of Oxford), was in favour of the Hanoverian succession; the other, headed by St. John (now Lord Bolingbroke), and supported by the Dukes of Ormond and Buckingham, was favourable to the claims of the son of James II., known as the Chevalier de St. George. The influence of St. John prevailed, but before a Jacobite ministry could be formed, the illness of Anne occurred.

Measures were concertd between the Duke of Shrewsbury and others of the Whig leaders. A meeting of the Privy Council, the Dukes of Somerset and Argyle took the usual step of entering the Chamber, although not summoned, and proposed that the Queen should be requested to confirm the Treasurer's staff on the Duke of Shrewsbury. She acceded. The Whig party resumed power, and steps were taken to secure the Hanoverian succession.

In this reign the Union between England and Scotland took place. This measure became necessary in consequence of the Scottish Parliament having passed an Act, the Act of Security, which provided that, in certain cases, a successor should be named, who should not be the successor to the crown of England. The Articles proposed were adopted by both Parliaments, and became law, 1st May, 1707.

Contemporary Events (continued).

Savoy. Philip V. renounces the succession to the Crown of France.

Peace of Rastadt, between Louis XIV. and the Emperor Charles VI. Shoes of the war of the Spanish Succession. The Right of the house of Bourbon to the crown of Spain is confirmed. Naples, Milan, the Spanish Netherlands, and Sardinia fall to Austria; and Sicily to the Duke of Savoy, with the title of King (1114).

Names of Note.

J. Locke, Philosopher, died A.D. 1704
Humeat, Hidhop. 1774
Bour ailer, Kerencia. 1774
I. Gordano, Painter. 1768
J. Ray, Naturalist. 1768
I. Hayn, Philosopher. 1768
F. Baye, Philosopher. 1768
U. Sherlock, Theologian. 1777
U. Vendercorf, Painter. 1777
Beveridge, Hidhop. 1774
Ihleau, Poet. 1774
Goulart, Philosopher. 1774
Lord Godolphin. 1774
A. Cooper (Third) Earl of Shaftesbury, author of the Characteristic, &c. 1774

REMARKS ON THE STUART LINE.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS. Little can here be added to the details already given with reference to the reigns of the two first princes of the House of Stuart. We may, however, briefly advert to some of the causes which contributed to bring about the memorable struggle between prerogative and liberty by which this period was marked.

Among these causes may, first, be mentioned the effects produced upon society by the Revival of Letters. An impulse to investigation into political questions had undoubtedly been supplied by the advance of knowledge consequent upon that movement. The spirit of free inquiry, which had been called into exercise by the changes in religion, was now directed to an examination into the principles of civil government; while the more general adoption of the art of printing gave an opportunity for the diffusion of the arguments of writers by whom those principles were discussed.

Meanwhile, by the advance of Commerce, the middle classes had increased in social importance; and the Commons had been slowly acquiring an influence in the State, which enabled them to offer a successful resistance to the power of the Crown. A few remarks must also be added upon a peculiarity in the constitution of the House of Commons, which was attended with important results.

Owing to the union of the representatives of the lesser tenants of the Crown with the Burgesses, a large number of the descendants of the wealthy landowners, many of whom were entitled to hold manorial courts, and who in any other country would have remained noble, had sunk into the class of commoners. Possessing no seat in the Upper House, their wealth and influence naturally secured for them seats in the representative body, and their presence in that body, while it formed a connecting link between the aristocracy and the commons, gave to the Lower House an importance which it would not have otherwise possessed.

In the third Parliament of Charles I., the property of the Commons was so considerable, that it was computed to surpass three times that of the Peers.

Already, in the reign of James I., the claims to despotic power put forth by the Sovereign had provoked that spirit of resistance, which had been warded off by the skillful policy of his not less despotic predecessor. In comparing the reigns of the Tudors with those of the Stuarts, it may be said that the latter put forward abstract claims to the possession of powers which the former rather carried into practice than asserted in theory.

But, while James I. was asserting the doctrine of the Prerogative in the most extravagant terms, and was denying the right of the subject to oppose, under any circumstances, the will of the Prince, several important concessions were gained by the Commons. They secured the privileges of deciding all questions affecting the validity of the election of their own members; they re-established their ancient right of impeachment; they renounced the use of Royal Proclamations; they asserted their right of freedom of speech; and they abolished the power of the Crown to grant monopolies. The Protestation, though torn from their journal by the king's own hand, asserted the principle, since universally accepted, that the liberties of Parliament are the birthright of the English people.

The struggle, thus commenced during the reign of James I., was continued during that of his successor. The conflict carried on by the popular party, was not so much an attempt to confine the power of the Crown within the limits already defined by the Constitution, as to enlarge and to render those limits more effectual. In justice to both parties, it may be observed that each had precedents on its side in favour of its pretensions; that the boundaries between the liberty of the subject and the prerogative of the Crown were ill defined, and required re-adjustment. By the unwise refusal of a writ of summons to the Earl of Bristol, and by the arbitrary imprisonment of the Earl of Arundel for a private offence, Charles I. encountered in his first Parliament the opposition of the Peers, while he refused to redress the grievances complained of by the Commons. The illegal acts of power, by which his government was marked, led to the determination on the part of his third Parliament to obtain his assent to the Petition of Right, which is justly considered the second great charter of English freedom. In the words of the 10th and 11th Articles,—"They" (that is, the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons), "do therefore humbly pray your most excellent Majesty, that no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or such like charge, without common consent by Act of Parliament: and that none be called to make answer, or to take such oath, or to give attendance, or be confined, or otherwise molest or disquieted concerning the same, or for refusal thereof; and that no freeman, in any such manner as is before mentioned, be imprisoned or detained: and that your Majesty would be pleased to remove the said soldiers and mariners, and that your people may not be so hurried in time to come: and that the aforesaid commissions for proceeding by martial law may be revoked and annulled: and that hereafter no commissions of like nature may issue forth to any person or persons whatsoever, to be executed as aforesaid, but by colour of them any of your Majesty's subjects be destroyed or put to death, contrary to the laws and franchise of the land. All which they most humbly pray of your most excellent Majesty as their rights and liberties, according to the laws and statutes of this realm."

To this Petition Charles returned an ambiguous answer, and the Commons refused to vote the requisite subsidies. They were proceeding to threaten Buckingham, when the king gave his assent in the usual terms—"Suis droit fait, comme est désiré." (Let right be done, as is required.) By this formula the Petition became a Statute. The conduct of Charles in cancelling the impression of the Petition of Right containing his full assent, and requiring another copy with his first answer to be circulated, cannot but be condemned. It is unnecessary to dwell upon the events which followed in the interval between 1629 and 1640. To this period belongs the celebrated trial of Hampden for refusing the payment of ship-money. The nation heard with alarm the doctrines put forward at this trial by the Judges, that "no statute, derogatory of a prerogative, can bind a king," and that "the king used law as a servant to rule by, not as a master to restrain him." In this state of the public mind the Long Parliament met. Its early proceedings are allowed to have been moderate and judicious; "and it is rather from 1641," Mr. Hallam observes, "than any other epoch, that we may date the full legal establishment of our civil and political privileges." At length, after the attempted seizure of the five members, an open rupture occurred between the king and the Parliament. An appeal was made to the sword, and the struggle which ensued terminated only with the execution of the Sovereign.
REMARKS ON THE STUART LINE—(CONTINUED).

Legally the reign of Charles II. begins at the death of Charles I. No acts of a public nature, passed during the Commonwealth, had the force of law, unless re-enacted subsequently; as the Navigation Act of 1661 was enacted in 1660. But the period thus ignored bore permanent fruits in the settlement of the Constitution. On the one hand, the refusal of the royal title by the Protector, the failure of his attempt to create a new peerage, and the obstinacy of his Parliament, testify to the permanent vitality of the three estates of the realm. The relative claims of the three, on the other hand, were finally settled by the experience gained during the “Great Rebellion.” M. Guizot has pointed out two important constitutional principles which were hitherto established:—

1. “The King could never again separate himself from the Parliament. The cause of monarchy was gained, but that of absolute monarchy was lost for ever.”

2. “The House of Commons was in effect the preponderant branch of the Legislature”; and this at the very moment when its claim to formal sovereignty was annulled. The reactionary policy of the Restoration was held in check by the surviving spirit of the popular party, and by the tact and regard for his own safety, which kept back Charles II. from such extremes as ruined his father and brother. The Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission were not revived. The compact of the Restoration, though violated in religious matters, restrained the prerogative of the Crown. The Convention Parliament abolished Purveyance and Feudal Tenures, and in their place settled a revenue of £1,500,000 on the King, whose extravagance rendered this sum quite inadequate to relieve him from dependence on Parliament; and Charles only evaded the natural result by becoming the pensioner of Louis XIV.

The Acts of Charlese’s first regular parliament (the “Pension Parliament”) which sat for 18 years, were entirely reactionary; but they incidentally confirmed the right of petitioning by their Statute (13 Car. II., st. 1, c. 6) which forbids any assemblies of more than ten persons to repair to His Majesty, or both or either of the Houses of Parliament, on the pretext of presenting a petition.

The Second Parliament of Charles, which placed Shaftesbury in power, and from which may be dated the system of Cabinet government, immortaled its brief existence of three months by passing the Habeas Corpus Act (31 Car. II., c. 2). The ancient writ of Habeas Corpus was the instrument by which effect was given to the right of personal liberty, secured by the Great Charter; and its due issue had been provided for by the Petition of Right. But the various devices of subversive judges and sheriffs to evade it called for this new enactment. Being the protection of the innocent, not the defence of the guilty, it excepts such prisoners as have been duly convicted, or are detained in execution by legal process, and such as are committed for treason or felony expressed in the warrant. All other persons held in restraint may obtain a writ from the Lord Chancellor, or any of the judges in vacation, returnable within a limited time according to distance, not in any case exceeding twenty days. The return must specify the charge upon which, and the authority by which, the prisoner is held in custody; and the court is to decide on the sufficiency of the warrant, and to recommit, or bail, or release the prisoner, as the case may be. No person once delivered by habeas corpus is to be re-committed for the same offence. Most stringent penalties are assigned to a judge’s refusal to issue the writ, and to any hindrance or evasion of it by the custodian; while the attempt to evade it, by sending the prisoner out of the country, subjects the offender to the penalties of praemunire. The Act also provides for the trial of persons duly committed for treason or felony in the first week of the next term, or the first day of the next Session of eyre and termination; and for his discharge in case of an acquittal or if he is not tried in the second term or session; when the sessions are once opened, may any person be removed by habeas corpus till they are ended, but he must be left to the justice of the judges of assize.

The provisions of this Act bear the clearest witness to the corruption and denial of justice, which formed the greatest curse of the Restoration. What judges and sheriffs left undone, was supplied by the coercion of jurors; but to the very excess of the evil we owe a judicial decision which put it down. When, as in early times, jurors were witnesses rather than judges, they were justly punishable for giving false evidence; and, under this pretense, in the Tudor age, the Star Chamber punished jurors with fines and imprisonment for verdicts alleged to be against evidence. The same power was next assumed by the judges, who, before the Revolution, held their commissions during the King’s pleasure.

In 1670, the firmness of a jurymen, named Bushel, obtained the acquittal of Penn (the Quaker) and Mead on a charge of unlawful assembly. The Recorder, who tried the case, fined each of the jurors forty marks; and Bushel, refusing to pay, was committed to prison.

To the writ of habeas corpus a return was made, that Bushel had acquired Penn and Mead contra plenum et manifestum/evidentiam; but, after a full argument, Chief Justice Vaughan pronounced the return insufficient, and the fine and imprisonment illegal. “From that time forth,” says Sir Edward Creasy, “the invaluable doctrine, that a jury in the discharge of their duty are responsible only to God and their consciences, has never been shaken or impeached.”

The triumphant reaction at the end of Charles’s reign, and the illegal acts of James II. led to the Constitutional Settlement established by the Bill of Rights, the chief provisions of which will be found detailed in the subsequent paragraph. Among the arbitrary measures of these sovereigns, it may be well to enumerate the forfeiture of municipal charters by Charles; the first act of James, in the levy of taxes by his own authority; his assumption of the dispensing power, supported by eleven out of the twelve judges; his restoration of the Court of High Commission; and his attack on the liberty of petition in the case of the Bishops.

THE REVOLUTIONARY SETTLEMENT. The Convention bore witness to the fundamental principle of civil government, by their resolution that James had abdicated the throne “by violating the constitution, breaking the original contract between king and people, and withdrawing from the kingdom.” The Bill of Rights, which formed the very condition under which the Convention offered, and William and Mary accepted the crown, was a new wording of that “original contract,” supplemental to those already embodied in the Great Charter and in the Petition of Right; and it is justly called the third great bulwark of English liberty. Its full title is “An Act for declaring the Rights and Liberties of the Subject, and setting the succession of the Crown.” § I. recites the Declaration made by the Lords and Commons of the Convention, on Feb. 13th, 1688 (1689 N.S.), to William and Mary, Prince and Princess of Orange, enumerating, under twelve distinct heads, the acts by which “the late king, James II., did endeavour to subvert and extirpate the Protestant
REMARKS ON THE STUART LINE—(CONTINUED).

religion, and the laws and liberties of this kingdom," and setting forth, under a similar classification, the following principles:—(1, 2, 3, 4, 6) the illegality of the suspending and dispersing powers; of the late court of commissioners for ecclesiastical causes; of the levy of money, and the keeping of a standing army, without the consent of Parliament: (5, 7, 8, 9) the right of petitioning the king; of carrying arms by Protestants; of freedom of Parliamentary elections and debates, not to be questioned in any other court or place: (10,) denounced excessive bail, excessive fines, and cruel and unusual punishments: (11,) the due empanelling and return of jurors: (12,) declaring all grants and promises of fines and forfeitures of particular persons before conviction, illegal and void: (13,) and that, for redress of all grievances, and for the amending, strengthening and preserving of the laws, Parliament ought to be held frequently. All these “they do claim, demand, and insist, as their undeniable rights and liberties;” and in consideration of the Prince of Orange’s declaration to the same effect (§ II.), they settle the crowns of England, France, and Ireland, (1) on William and Mary during their lives (the sole exercise of regal power to be in William during their joint lives); (2) on the heirs of Mary; (3) on the Princess Anne of Denmark and her heirs; (4) on the heirs of the Prince of Orange. § III. prescribes the Oaths of Allegiance and Abjuration. §§ IV. and V. recite the acceptance of the crown by William and Mary, “according to the resolution and desire of the said Lords and Commons, contained in the said declaration,” and their constitution of the Convention as a Parliament. § VI. prays their Majesties to make the Declaration an Enactment. §§ VII., VIII. and IX. confirm the above settlement of the Crown, but to the exclusion of Catholics, or any King or Queen who shall marry a Catholic; declaring that, in such cases, the people of the realm are resolved from their allegiance, and the succession is to pass on as if the person so offending were naturally dead. § X. prescribes the Coronation Oath and the Declaration against the Roman Catholic religion to be made by each new Sovereign. § XI. contains the enacting clause; and § XII. forbids all dispensations to any statute, except such as may be provided for by Statute.

The Act of Settlement (12 and 13 Will. III., c. 2), which was passed towards the close of William’s reign (1701), in consequence of the death of Anne’s only surviving child, the Duke of Gloucester, further limits the succession to the next heir who was a Protestant, viz., the Princess Sophia, Electress of Hanover, granddaughter of James I., and to her heirs, being Protestants. This Act added eight new securities (to take effect from the accession of the House of Hanover), in part dictated by jealousy of a foreign dynasty. (1) The Sovereign must join in communion with the established Church of England. (2) This nation shall not be obliged to go to war for the defence of his Continental dominions, without consent of Parliament. (3) He shall not leave the realm without consent of Parliament (repealed in the first year of George I.). (4) He must act with his Privy Council, and resolutions taken in Council must be signed by the Councillors who advise and consent to them. (This attempt to restore to the whole Council the power which, under Charles II., had gradually been transferred to the Cabinet, was judged to be impracticable before it came into operation; and the clause was repealed in the reign of Anne). (5) No foreigner is to be a Privy Councillor, or a Member of Parliament, or to hold office, or to have grants of land, etc., from the Crown. (6) No person holding a place of

profit under, or a pension from, the Crown, shall be capable of sitting in the House of Commons. (This provision, aimed at the means by which the Crown corrupted the House, was superseded by the Statute of Anne, subjecting Members of the House, who accept office under the Crown, to re-election, and absolutely excluding certain classes of pensioners and placemen. The Statute is held not to apply to such subordinate Ministers as hold office from their chiefs,—as Under-Secretaries of State and others,—and the Reform Act of 1867 permits a transference from one to another of the chief offices, without the seat being vacated). (7) The judges are to hold their commissions quamuis in bona gestantur, and only to be removable upon the address of both Houses of Parliament:—our best security for judicial independence. (8) No pardon under the Great Seal shall be pleasurable to an impeachement by the Commons. The Act repeats, and ratifies by the consent of the King, the solemn acknowledgment that the laws of England are the birthright of the people thereof, and binding upon all her Kings and their Ministers.

The bearing of the Act on the principle of legitimacy should not be overlooked. In case of the failure of the Hanoverian line, no descendant of any former reigning house could have any right to the throne, except under a new title, to be created by Parliament. It is expressly provided by a further Act of Anne “for securing the Protestant succession” (4 and 5 Ann., c. 20 : 1700) that it was treason to maintain in writing that the Queen was not a lawful sovereign, and that the Kings or Queens of England, with and by the authority of Parliament, cannot limit the descent of the Crown; and that preaching or advising speaking to the same effect incurs a praemunire.

The clause in the Bill of Rights against a standing army gave an indirect guarantee for the annual meeting of Parliament, in order to pass the annual Mutiny Act, but for the renewal of which the army would dissolve of itself. The long vexed question of the command and discipline of the militia (at that time, the military force of the kingdom) was brought to an issue in the very first month of William’s reign (March, 1689), by the mutiny of two Scotch regiments under orders to embark for Holland. Thereupon, the Convention Parliament passed the first Mutiny Act (1 Will. and Mar., c. 6), which first condemns the keeping up an army in time of peace, without the consent of Parliament, and forbids any subject to be punished except by the established laws of the realm; and then proceeds to declare the present expediency of maintaining an armed force, and authorises their Majesties to grant commissions to general officers for trying and punishing such offences as mutiny and desertion. This was the constitutional origin of our standing army.

Another security for the annual meeting of Parliament, and for the power of the Commons, was created by the settlement on the Crown of a revenue of £1,200,000, to be voted annually, half for the Civil List, and the other half for the public defence; and the votes were limited to their specified purposes, under severe penalties, by the annual Appropriation Act. “Thus,” Mr. Hollam remarks, “has given the House of Commons so effectual a control over the executive power,—or, more truly speaking, has rendered it so much a participation in that power, that no administration can possibly subsist without its concurrence; nor can the session of parliament be intermitted for an entire year, without leaving both the military and naval force unprovided for.”

To secure the dependence of the House of Commons on its constituents, the Triennial Act...
REMARKS ON THE STUART LINE (continued).

Act (8 & 7 Will. & Mar. c.2) provided that three years should be the maximum duration of a parliament. It was superseded by the Septennial Act of 1716 (1 Geo. I., st. 2, c. 35), to avoid the danger of a Jacobite Parliament. *

One of the first acts of the Convention Parliament was to secure the enjoyment of religious liberty (within the limits then still deemed necessary) by the Toleration Act (1 Will. & Mar. c. 18, 24th May, 1689), which relieves from the penalties against separate conventicles, or absence from the Established Church, all such Dissenters as shall take the oaths of allegiance and subscribe the declaration against the Roman Catholic religion: so conventicles are to be held with closed doors; all such meeting-houses are to be registered, and are protected from insult: but it is provided "that no part of this toleration be extended to Papists, or as such deny the Trinity." The first step to universal freedom of thought, and to its influence upon the government of the country, was made by the concession for which Milton had so eloquently pleaded, when the last act passed to restrain unlicensed printing (4 Will. & Mar. c. 24) was suffered to expire in 1693. There remains one most important statute of William III., the Act "for regulating of trials for Treason or Misprision of Treason" (7 & 8 Will. III. c. 3, 1696). It allows the accused counsel a copy of the indictment, and of the panel of jurors, and process to compel the attendance of witnesses. The prosecution is to be commenced within three years of the alleged treason: two witnesses are necessary, "either both of them to the same overt act, or one of them to another overt act of the same treason:" and no evidence is to be produced on the trial of any overt act not mentioned in the indictment. The further concession of a list of the witnesses was made in the reign of Anne (1709), when the English law of treason was extended to Scotland. By the same Act, torture, disused since James I., was formally abolished, excepting the horrible infliction of the pesus forte et dure (or pressing to death) on persons refusing to plead, which was retained till 1772.

The Tory reaction, in the fourth parliament of Anne's reign, was signified by the imposition of the property qualification for Members of Parliament (9 Ann. c. 5), repealed in the reign of Victoria; as well as by the passage of the Sedition Act, requiring all teachers to conform to the Established Church, and of the Act against Occasional Conformity, to put a stop to the practice of persons, who habitually attended dissenting worship, taking the Sacrament in the Established Church to qualify for municipal offices. Both Acts were repealed in 1715, under the government of Stanhope.

But the great measure of Anne's reign was the legislative union of England and Scotland.

(The name of Great Britain had already been adopted for England, Wales, and Scotland, after the accession of James I., in 1604). The Act provides for the perpetual union of the two kingdoms, under the name of Great Britain; for the succession of the crown according to the Act of Settlement; for a parliament of the United Kingdom; for the community of commercial and other rights; for the identity of the laws concerning public right, policy, and civil government, and for the preservation to Scotland of her laws of private right and her courts of judicature. Scotland is to be represented in Parliament by 16 elected peers and 45 commoners: (the latter number was increased to 63 in 1832, and to 60 in 1868). The peers of Scotland are to rank next after the English peers of like degree: and the crown is not to create new Scotch peers. The regalia and public records of Scotland are to remain in the country; the Church of Scotland is to retain its Presbyterian government and form of discipline.

COMMERCE AND COLONIZATION.—The cessation of civil war left Great Britain free to resume the progress on which she had entered when the defeat of the Armada dispelled the alarm of foreign invasion. Commerce was even aided by the Dutch wars, which transferred much of the carrying trade of Holland to English ships. The amount of our shipping was computed to have been doubled from the Restoration to the Revolution; and, of the total of about 210,000 tons, one-third belonged to London, whose population was about 360,000. Bristol owed her rank as the second sea-port of the kingdom to her commerce with the American and West Indian colonies and plantations. The beginning of successful Colonization dates from the reign of James I., with the foundation of Jamestown, in Virginia (1604). The settlements of the "Pilgrim Fathers" in New England began in 1620; and, two years later, Scottish colonists gave to Acadia the name of Nova Scotia. The islands of St. Christopher (St. Kitts) and Barbados were settled in 1623 and 1624. To the time of Charles I. belong the Puritan settlement of Massachusetts (1627), Connecticut (1639 and 1650), Rhode Island (1663), and the Roman Catholic Maryland (1632). Jassicas was taken from the Spaniards in 1555; and New York (then New Amsterdam) from the Dutch in 1644 (ceded, with New Jersey and Delaware, by the Peace of Breda). To the reign of Charles II. belong, also, the colonies of Carolina (1669), and Pennsylvania (1682). Thus all the thirteen original "States," except Georgia (1733), were settled before the Revolution. In 1770, the Hudson's Bay Company obtained its charter for opening a trade in minerals and furs. The East India Company, after obtaining factories at Madras (1664; erected into a Presidency, 1665), Bombay (ceded to Charles II. as his queen's dowry, 1662), and Calcutta (1698), was finally constituted by a union of the two rival companies in 1722, which received a new charter in 1799.

INSTITUTIONS AND POPULATION. Among the Institutions which we owe to this period (besides the Standing Army already noticed) are the Post Office, established for Great Britain in 1660, and for all the British dominions in 1710; the Bank of England, which originated with a company of merchants, who advanced £1,200,000 * to William III., and received a charter 27th July, 1694; the South Sea Company (1710), which became responsible for a Government debt of £8,971,335, in consideration of £68,279 10s. of annual interest and the exclusive trade to the South Sea; † and, last not least, the National Debt, of which an account is given in the "Remarks on the Hanoverian Line." The population of England at the Revolution has been ascertained, by three careful computations, to have been at the least 5,200,000, or, at the most, 6,600,000.

* This loan to Government, since increased to £14,000,000, forms the fixed capital of the Bank. It was originally lent at 8 per cent., the interest is now 5 per cent.

† The exclusive trade was abolished after the crash of the Company in 1720; and the South Sea Stocks were consolidated with the rest of the National Debt by Mr. Gladstone in 1833.

* The Triennial Act of William (that each Parliament shall only last three years) was quite different, in its nature and its object, from the Triennial Act of Charles I. (that more than three years should not pass without a Parliament.)
THE LINE OF HANOVER.
30. GEORGE I. (OF BRUNSWICK).

Principal Events.

Is proclaimed by a Council of Regency, consisting of seven of the great Officers of the Crown, and nineteen Peers named by the King (1st Aug.), in accordance with an Act passed in the late reign.

Lord Bolingbroke is removed from office.

George I. arrives from Hanover at Greenwich (18th Sept.); and, two days later, makes his public entry into London.

A new Ministry is formed, which is led by Lord Townsend, in conjunction with Sir Robert Walpole, Chancellor of the Exchequer.

Coronation of the King at Westminster (20th Oct.). 1715. A new Parliament is summoned (21st March).


A committee is appointed by Parliament to inquire into the late negotiations concerning the Treaty of Utrecht.

Bremen and Verden are ceded by Denmark to Hanover on the payment of £150,000. George I. engages to join in the coalition against Charles XII. of Sweden.

The Riot Act is passed (20th July). The Earl of Mar proclaims the Pretender in Scotland (30th Sept.).

Indecisive battle of Dumbline, or Sheriffmuir, between the Earl of Mar and the Duke of Argyle (15th Nov.).

The adherents of the Pretender, under Mr. Forster, are defeated at Preston. The Earl of Derwentwater, Lord Kenmuir, and 200 others, are made prisoners (13th Nov.).

Dutch auxiliaries of George arrive at Leith (4th Dec.). The Pretender lands at Peterhead, near Aberdeen.

In accordance with the Second Act of Settlement, the Crown, on the death of Queen Anne, descended upon George I. His father was Ernest Augustus of Brunswick; his mother, the Princess Sophia, fifth daughter of the Electress Palatine. By the accession of George I. the crown of Great Britain and Hanover were united till the death of William IV. (A.D. 1837).

Dependent for the security of his crown upon the support of the Whigs, George entrusted the government exclusively to members of that party. When the new Parliament met, a committee was appointed to enquire into the conduct of the late ministry, with regard to the Treaty of Utrecht. Of that committee Robert Walpole was the chairman. The Duke of Ormond and Lords Bolingbroke and Oxford were impeached. Bolingbroke and Ormond fled to the continent, where they joined the Pretender. Oxford was committed to the Tower; but, in consequence of a dispute between the Lords and Commons at his trial, two years later, his life was saved.

The popular feeling against the existing Government, which had been already shown on the occasion of the trial of Dr. Sacheverell, had now acquired greater strength. William III. was burnt in effigy at Smithfield. At Oxford, oak-leaves were worn on the 29th May, in honour of the Restoration. The Earl of Arran, brother of the Jacobite Duke of Ormond, was elected Chancellor of Oxford, in opposition to the Prince of Wales. The Earl of Oxford, on his way to the Tower, was received with the sympathy of the people. The Pretender was taken to London, where, in the presence of the crowds, he declared himself the "Riot Act," was passed, whereby an assembly of twelve persons might be forcibly dispersed.

The death of Louis XIV., after a reign of seventy-two years (1st Sept., 1715), altogether changed the relations between England and France. Louis XV. was a minor; and the Regent Duke of Orleans, placing little faith in the renunciation by Philip V. of the French crown, was desirous of establishing friendly relations with England. The Pretender, therefore, was unable to obtain from France that support which he had been led to expect when he issued his manifesto just before the death of Louis (29th August). The Jacobites had, however, already risen in the cause of the Stuarts. The Earl of Mar proclaimed James III. at Braemar, and was joined by 10,000 Highlanders. In the north of England, Mr. Forster and the Earl of Derwentwater took up arms. Two battles were fought on the same day (13th Nov.); the one between the Earl of Mar and the Duke of Argyle at Sheriffmuir, which was indecisive; the other at Preston, where the adherents of the Pretender were defeated. Notwithstanding these reverses, the Prince landed in Scotland after a few weeks; but he was soon forced to re-embark for France. Few, however, rose to support his cause, compared with those who desired its success.

By this time the Whig party had become so unpopular, that, desiring the results of the approaching election, they repealed the Triennial Act, and passed a bill to extend the duration of Parliament to seven years.

The peace of Europe was in 1717 disturbed by the ambitious designs of Philip V. of Spain, who sought to obtain the regency of France, during the minority of his nephew, Louis XV. The Regent Duke of Orleans joined in the Quadruple Alliance to maintain the European armaments settled by the Treaty of Utrecht. The only important circumstance which marked this war was

Contemporary Events.

KINGS OF FRANCE.

Louis XIV., ... died a.d. 1715.
Louis XV., ... (Minor).

EMPEROR OF GERMAN.

Charles VI.

KING OF SPAIN.

Philip V., ... died a.d. 1746.
Louis XV., ... died a.d. 1774.
Philip V, returned the crown.

KING OF PRUSSIA.

Frederick William I.

EMPEROR OF RUSSIA.

Peter I. (the Great), ... died a.d. 1725.
Katherine (widow).

Allerton becomes minister of Spain (1714).
Charles XII. of Sweden returns from Turkey to his own dominions (1716).
Regency of the Duke of Orleans during the minority of Louis XV. (1716).
Frederick William I. of Prussia accedes to the Northern League against Sweden (1716).
War is renewed between Venice, Austria and Turkey.
The Sultan Achmed III. is defeated at Belgrade by Prince Eugene (1717).
The Medes and Persians are annihilated by the Persians (1718).

The King of Spain invades Saroia (1717) and Sicily (1718).
The war between Austria, Venice, and Turkey is terminated by the Peace of Passarowitz. Belgrade is ceded to Austria (1719).

Charles XII. invades Norway, and is killed at Fredericshald (1714).
The Quadruple Alliance of England, Prussia, Austria, and Holland, assail the ambitious designs of Spain (1716).
The States of Sweden elect as Queen the Princess Eleonora, who rules Pomerania to Prussia, and Pettamno to Hanover, by the peace of Stockholm (1719).
The French invade Spina, and are successful at Pavia and St. Sebastian (1719).
PRINCIPAL EVENTS (continued).

(25th Dec.); but, after two months, embarks with the Earl of Mar for France, and his troops disperse.

1716. Lords Derwentwater and Kenmure are executed (24th Feb.).

The Septennial Act is passed (7th May).

1717. Dismissal of Lord Townsend. Lord Stanhope becomes First Minister.

Convocation is indefinitely prorogued.

Triple Alliance of England, France, and Holland.

1718. The alliance between England, France, and Holland against Spain (afterwards known as the Quadruple Alliance), is joined by Austria (22nd July).

The Spanish fleet is defeated by Sir G. Byng near Syracuse (11th Aug.).

1719. A Jacobite expedition, under the Duke of Ormond, sails from Cadiz, and is dispersed. Two frigates arrive on the coast of Scotland, and land 400 men, who are defeated at Olenhuis (10th June).

1720. The South Sea Company Act is passed (7th April).

1721. Parliamentary enquiry into the proceedings of the South Sea Company. The estates of the Directors are forfeited.

Death of Stanhope. Lord Townsend returns to office. Sir Robert Walpole is Lord Treasurer and Chancellor of the Exchequer.

A treaty of peace with Spain is concluded.

1723. Bishop Atterbury is impeached and banished.

1725. The Treaty of Hanover, between Great Britain and France.

1725. The Earl of Macclesfield is impeached for corruption.

1726. War with Spain is renewed. Unsuccessful attempt of the Spaniards to recover Gibraltar.


Death of Sophia Dorothea, wife of George I.

OBSERVATIONS (continued).

was the defeat of the Spanish fleet by Sir George Byng off Cape Passaro. In 1720 the terms of the Quadruple Alliance were accepted by Spain. Five years later, a defensive alliance was formed between the courts of Austria and Spain by the first treaty of Vienna. This treaty guaranteed the East India Company already established at Ostend, and contained articles injurious to the commercial interests of England. To counteract this confederacy, the English court concluded the Treaty of Hanover with Denmark and Prussia. A second war with Spain and the Empire followed. This war was chiefly remarkable for an unsuccessful attempt on the part of the Spaniards to recover Gibraltar. It had not terminated at the time of the King's death, though the influence of Cardinal Fleury had effected a peace with the Emperor.

During this reign England was involved in great commercial distress. Since the period of the Revolution it had been the custom of the Government, in place of levying sufficient taxes to meet the public expenses, to raise money by means of loans. A company, known as the South Sea Company, had been formed by Harley in a.p. 1710. In 1720, this Company, in return for certain mercantile advantages, to pay the sum of seven millions of pounds to buy up the debts due to other parties, and to lend the Government whatever money they needed at a lower rate of interest. Fraudulent means were employed to raise the value of the shares. All classes eagerly engaged in a speculation which promised extraordinary returns. Thirty-seven millions of pounds were subscribed to the Company. At length the delusion was exposed, and wide-spread ruin was the result. At this period, Walpole, after a temporary retirement, was recalled to office as First Minister, and, by his measures, restored the credit of the nation. He held power for twenty years.

One or two matters of interest in the domestic history of this reign remain to be mentioned. George I. married in 1682, Sophia Dorothea of Zell. On a charge of misconduct, generally believed to be unfounded, this unfortunate princess was, in 1694, imprisoned in the Castle of Alders, where she remained in confinement till the period of her death, which occurred only a few months before that of the King.

From an early part of this reign ill feeling had existed between the King and the Prince of Wales. A quarrel which occurred in 1717, at the christening of the son of the King, was, in open hostility. The Prince was ordered to leave the Palace of St. James's, and afterwards resided at Leicester House.

The Peerage Bill, which was introduced by Stanhope, was intended to restrain the royal prerogative in the creation of Peers. It provided that the English peerage should not be increased beyond six of their present number, except in favour of princes of the blood. The bill received the sanction of the Upper House, but was rejected by the Commons.

The power of Convocation had greatly declined before the accession of George I. In the time of Charles II., this body had abandoned the privilege of self-taxation. In consequence of a dispute between the Upper and Lower House, it was prorogued in 1717; and, until recently, it has not been reassembled to sit for the transaction of business.

Archbishop Tenison, who died in 1716, was succeeded as Primate by Dr. Wake. The Lord Chancellors during this reign were Lords Cowper and Macclesfield.

CONTEMPORARY EVENTS (continued).

An East India Company is established by Austria at Ostend (1719).

Marriage of Prince Charles Edward Stuart with Clementina Sobieska of Poland (1719).

Sicily, restored by Spain, is ceded to Austria. The Duke of Savoy receives in exchange Sardinia, erected into a kingdom (1700).

The plague ravages Marcellia (1705). Ulrico Eleonora resigns the government of Sweden to her husband, Frederick of Holstein-Gottorp (1700).

The Prince of Orange is elected hereditary Statholder of Dutch Guelders (1725).


Recognition by the States of Austria of the Pragmatic Sanction, by which the Emperor Charles VI. secures the succession to his daughter Maria Theresa (1725).

Philip V. reigns the crown of Spain to his son Louis, but renounces it on his death, seven months later (Aug., 1744).

Louis XV. marries Maria Leczynski, daughter of Stanislaus, late King of Poland (1754).

Treaty of Vienna between Austria and Spain.

Spain acknowledges the Pragmatic Sanction (1725).

Ministry of Cardinal Fleury in France (1760).

Sweden and Denmark join the alliance concluded at Hanover between England and France (1715).

NAMES OF NOTB.:
Pensions, Archbishop died a.p. 1718
Burnet, Bishop 1715
Malabrunche, Philosopher 1715
Lord Somers, Chancellor 1715
E. South, Theologian 1716
Lalbire, Philosopher 1716
Parcell, Poet 1717
Gravina, Critic 1719
Adams, Episcopist 1719
J. Playsted, Astronomer 1719
M. Prior, Poet 1719
Virgil, Theologian 1719
Duke of Marlborough, General 1720
Sir C. Wren, Architect 1720
Sir G. Kneller, Painter 1720
Fleury, Historian 1720
Vasburs, Dacianist 1720
Sir I. Newton, Philosopher 1727

Married, Sophia Dorothea of Zell. Issue: GEORGE II. SOPHIA DOROTHEA, MARRIED FREDERICK OF PRUSSIA.
31. GEORGE II.

Primary Events.

The only son of George I. succeeds to the throne at the age of forty-three (11th June), is proclaimed (15th June), and is crowned with Queen Caroline at Westminster (11th Oct.).

1729. A treaty of peace with Spain is concluded at Seville, which, within two years, is confirmed by the Second Treaty of Vienna.


1731. Frauds in the "Charitable Corporations Company." Expulsion of six members of parliament.

1736. Riots in Edinburgh. Murder of Captain Porteous, who had illegally fired on the people.

1739. War with Spain is renewed. Capture of Portobello by Admiral Vernon.

1741. War of the Austrian Succession, in which Great Britain, as guarantee of the Pragmatic Sanction, supports the cause of Maria Theresa.

1742. Fall of Sir R. Walpole, who is created Earl of Orford, and who is succeeded by Lord Carteret (afterwards Earl Granville).

1743. George, at the head of the allies, defeats the French at Dettingen.

1745. The Duke of Cumberland is defeated at Fontenoy by Marshal Saxe.

Prince Charles Edward Stuart (the grandson of James II.) lands in Scotland (25th July), and is proclaimed at Perth. He defeats Sir J. Cope at Preston Pans, and enters England.

The royal troops are defeated at Falkirk.

1746. BATTLE OF CULLODEN (6th April). Prince Charles Edward is defeated by the Duke of Cumberland. He succeeds in escaping to France (30th Sept.).

1747. Naval victories over the French off Cape

Observations.

Shortly after the accession of George II., peace was concluded with Spain by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. The treaty was acceded to by the Emperor, who agreed to dissolve the Ostend India Company, on condition of England guaranteeing the Edict known as the Pragmatic Sanction, by which the succession to his dominions was settled upon his daughter, Maria Theresa. In six years a dispute on commercial grounds led to the renewal of war with Spain (1739), unattended, however, with any important results.

For a period of fourteen years the government was carried on by Sir Robert Walpole, to whom the title of Prime Minister was first given. The efforts of this minister, like those of his contemporary, Cardinal Fleury, in France, were directed towards the preservation of the peace of Europe. He succeeded in carrying several important financial measures. Many of the export and import duties were abolished. In 1730 a new Charter was granted to the East India Company. In 1733 Walpole introduced his well-known excise scheme. By this measure it was proposed to convert the duties of Customs into those of Excise—tor to exchange the duties levied upon articles at the Ports, for a tax upon the same articles, when taken out of bond for home consumption. The measure was strenuously resisted, and was at length abandoned.

The influence of the minister, lessened by the failure of an expedition to Carthagena (A.D. 1741), was still further weakened by the death of the queen, a woman of great talent and beauty, who had afforded him a steady support.

The adherents of the Prince of Wales, who, in 1737, had incurred the displeasure of his father, joined in the opposition to Walpole, and his fall followed.

The formation of the new ministry was entrusted to Pelham, Earl of Bath. It consisted of Lord Carteret (the real head), Mr. Pelham, and his brother, the Duke of Newcastle. In 1744, Carteret, now Earl Granville, yielded to the intrigue of his colleagues. A new ministry, of which Pelham was the head, was formed by a coalition of parties, and was known as the "Broad Bottom Ministry."

In 1745, a last effort was made by the friends of the Stuarts. Prince CHARLES EDWARD, the son of the "Old Pretender," landed in Scotland. The Highlanders flocked around him. The city of Edinburgh, with the exception of the castle, was taken. Sir John Cope was defeated at Preston Pans. Time, however, was lost, while Charles kept his court at Edinburgh; and an opportunity was afforded of recaling the English troops from the Continent. When at length the Prince entered England, the Jacobites of the north, dreading a repetition of the same which followed the rising of 1715, hastened to join him. At the head of less than 6,000 men he advanced as far as Derby, but at this important moment divisions arose among his followers, and he was compelled to retire.

Although threatened by two armies, the Prince succeeded in reaching Scotland, and defeated the royal troops at Falkirk. Forced, however, to retreat by the approach of the Duke of Cumberland, who had now returned from Holland, he was pursued as far as Inverness, near which town, on the plain of Culloden, his troops were totally routed. The rebellion was cruelly punished, and for

Contemporary Events.

KING OF FRANCE.

Louis XV.

EMPERORS OF GERMANY.

Charles VI. died a.d. 1740.

Charles VII. (of Bavaria). 1740.

Maria Theresa and Francis I.

KINGS OF SPAIN.

Philip V. a.d. 1724.

Felipe VI. a.d. 1740.

Charles III. a.d. 1759.

EMPERORS OF RUSSIA.

Catherine I. a.d. 1727.

Peter II. a.d. 1730.

Anna a.d. 1740.

Elisabeth a.d. 1741.

KINGS OF PRUSSLIA.

Frederick William I. a.d. 1718.

Frederick II. (the Great).

Peter II., the last of the male line of the House of Romanoff, is succeeded by Anne, niece of Peter the Great (1730).

War of the Polish succession. France, Spain, and Sardinia support Stanislaus Leszcinski. Austria and Prussia support Frederick Augustus II. (1733).

Maria Theresa marries Francis Duke of Lorraine (1738).

Coalition of Austria and Prussia against Turkey (1736).

Friends of Lorraine succeeds Guston, the last of the Medicis, as Grand Duke of Transylvania, and resigns Lorraine to Stanislaus (1737).

Preliminary of peace at Vienna are confirmed at Versailles, closing the war of the Polish succession.

Naples and Sicily ceded to Don Carlos, second son of Philip V., who is recognized as King of the two Sicilies.

Nadir Shah invades India and takes Delhi (1739).

Peace of Belgradia between Turkey, Russia, and Austria. Aided restored (1739).

Death of the Emperor Charles VI., the last male of the House of Hapsburg (1740).

The Elector of Bavaria contests with Maria Theresa the succession to the empire. Alliance of Austria, England and Holland, against Prussia, Bavaria, France, and Spain. Commencement of the Austrian Succession War (1741).

John V., nephew of Anne, is deposed by Elisabeth, youngest daughter of Peter the Great (1741).

Frederick, victorious over the Austrians at Altwitt, acquires Silesia (1741).

Charles Albert, Elector of Bavaria, is crowned emperor as Charles VII. (1743).
PRINCIPAL EVENTS (continued).
Finisterre by Admirals Anson and Warren (3rd May), and by Admiral Hawke (14th Oct.).
1748. Peace concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle, and mutual restitution of conquests.
1751. Death of Frederick, Prince of Wales, leaving his eldest son, George, heir apparent.
1752. The Gregorian Calendar, or new style, introduced—the 3rd of September being counted the 14th. Ministry of the Duke of Newcastle.
1754. Disputes with France on the boundaries of Virginia and Nova Scotia.
1755. Unsuccessful expedition of the British against the French Settlements on the Ohio, in which Washington distinguished himself.
1756. Great Britain engages in the Seven Years' War, in alliance with Prussia, against France, Austria, and Russia.
Minorca taken by the French; but restored in 1763. Admiral Byng, failing to relieve the island, is sentenced to death. Calcutta is surprised by Rajah Dowlah. One hundred and twenty-three British subjects lose their lives in the "Black Hole."
1757. Ministry of the elder William Pitt. The Duke of Cumberland, defeated at Hastenburg, signs the Convention of Kloster-Secken, by which Hanover is surrendered to the French.
Colonel (afterwards Lord) Clive defeats the Rajah Dowlah at Plassey, and conquers Bengal, thus founding the British empire in the East Indies.
1759. Colonial conquests in America, and capture of Quebec by General Wolfe (12th Sept.).
The French are defeated at Minden by the allies. The French Fleet is defeated by Admiral Hawke off Quiberon Bay.
Montreal surrenders (7th Sept.). The conquest of Canada is completed.

OBSERVATIONS (continued).
five months Charles Edward wandered among the mountains, until he succeeded in embarking for France, where he landed, Sept. 29th, 1746.
By the death of Frederick, Prince of Wales, in 1751, his son George (afterwards III.) became King. As this prince was only in his twelfth year, an act was passed, providing that, in the event of the king's death before the prince should reach the age of eighteen, his mother should be appointed Regent, subject to the control of a council, composed of the Duke of Cumberland and several of the principal officers of the crown.
During this reign England was engaged in two important foreign wars. The first was the War of the Austrian Succession, in which, according to his engagements, George II. supported the cause of Maria Theresa against the ambition of two princes, Frederick the Great of Prussia, and Charles Albert of Bavaria, who had formed an alliance with the court of France. The success of George at the battle of Dettingen—the last on which a king of England commanded in person—was counterbalanced by the defeat, two years later, of the Duke of Cumberland at Fontenoy; a defeat which was to be attributed to the inactivity of the Dutch auxiliaries. Peace was at length restored by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which several former treaties were confirmed, and it was agreed that the conquests made on each side during the war should be mutually restored.
The peace, however, concluded by this treaty was, before long, disturbed by the outbreak of the war known as the "Seven Years' War." In this war England was ranged on the side of her former opponent, Frederick of Prussia; while—an event almost unprecedented in history—an alliance was contracted between Austria and France, which was afterwards acceded to by Russia, Saxony, and Sweden. Disputes as to the limits of the English and French possessions in America and Hindostan had already arisen, and, as between England and France, the war became a contest for colonial supremacy. Hostilities began with the capture, by the Duke de Richelieu, of the island of Minorca—one of the keys of the Mediterranean—and the retirement of the English fleet under Sir G. Byng, for which this officer was sentenced to death. In Hanover, the Duke of Cumberland was compelled to retreat by the advance of the French, and was forced to sign the humiliating Convention of Kloster-Secken, by which the neutrality of Hanover was guaranteed.
These reverses drove from office the Duke of Newcastle, who had succeeded to power on the death of his brother in 1754, and afforded an opportunity to the elder Pitt to display the resources of his extraordinary genius. By his advice, the king was induced to annul the Convention of Kloster-Secken, and to adopt measures for the vigorous prosecution of the war, which were followed by a great extension of our colonial possessions. In the East, the victories of Clive laid the foundation of our Indian empire, while, in the West, Canada was added to the dominions of the British crown.
A measure was passed in this reign for the abolition of hereditary jurisdictions in Scotland. This act, the judicial powers hitherto possessed by the great landowners were transferred to professional judges, called "Sheriffs Depute."
The Princes during this reign were Drs. Wake, Potter, Herring, Hutton, and Scller. The Lord Chancellors were Lords King, Talbot, and Hardwicke.

CONTEMPORARY EVENTS (continued).
Peace is concluded between Austria and Prussia at Basle (1748). Frederick the Great restores hostilities with Austria (1744). An attack is made by the Emperor Charles VII. on the empire of the House of Lorena, in the person of Francesco I., husband of Maria Theresa (1745). Peace is concluded between Prussia and Austria at Dresden. Prussia retains Silesia (1745).
The Prince of Orange is appointed hereditary stadtholder of the United Provinces (1748). Peace is concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle by England, Holland, and Austria, with France and Spain (1748). Lisbon is partially destroyed by an earthquake (1755).
Alliance of Austria, France, and Russia against England and Prussia. Conclusion of the Seven Years' War (1763).
Frederick, victorious at Prague, is defeated at Kolín (1758).
Invasion of Prussia by the Austrians, French and Russians, and victory of the Prussians over the French at Hastenburg and at Liesse (1757).

NAMES OF NOTE.
Comryne, Poet Died A.D. 1739
Dr. Fox Died 1749
Dr. Hume Died 1750
Dr. Johnson Died 1755
Drs. Hahn and Seignac Died 1757
Drs. Hahn and Seignac Died 1758
Drs. Hahn and Seignac Died 1759
Drs. Hahn and Seignac Died 1760
Drs. Hahn and Seignac Died 1761
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Drs. Hahn and Seignac Died 1796
Drs. Hahn and Seignac Died 1797
Drs. Hahn and Seignac Died 1798
Drs. Hahn and Seignac Died 1799
Drs. Hahn and Seignac Died 1800

32. GEORGE III.

Principal Events.

1761. Pondicherry is taken from the French (17th May), whose power in India ceases.

1762. War is declared against Spain. The Havanah surrenders to the Earl of Albemarle (14th Aug., 1762; restored, 1763).

The Duke of Newcastle resigns. Lord Bute, minister.

1763. The Peace of PARIS, or Fontainebleau, ending the Seven Years' War.

Ministry of Mr. GEORGE Grenville (April).

1765. An act to impose Stamp Duties on the American colonies (22nd March).

Remonstrance of the Americans.

Ministry of LORD ROCKINGHAM (10th July).

1766. The American Stamp Act is repealed (18th March); but Parliament declares its power to bind the colonies in all cases.

Second ministry of Pitt (created EARL OF CHATHAM), nominally under the Duke of Grafton (2nd Aug.).


Lord Hildesborough first Colonial Secretary.

1768. Ministry of the Duke of GRAFTON.

Contest with Wilkes.


1770. Ministry of Lord NORTH (Jan. 28th).

Colonial taxes repealed, but tea duty retained.

The British settlements in North America now numbered 13 colonies, with a population of nearly 2,000,000. The hearing of the recent war upon their security was used as a pretext for calling on them to contribute to the burdens which it had entailed. In March, 1765, Mr. George Grenville easily carried through Parliament an act imposing stamp duties upon the colonists in America. The colonial assemblies, headed by Virginia, took up the attitude of resistance, and summoned a General Congress to meet at New York. At this time the first symptoms of the king's mental disease caused new troubles about the Journey Bill. Unable to come to terms with Pitt, the king formed a new ministry under the Marquis of Rockingham, who yielded to the resolution of the American colonists, the eloquence of Pitt, and the decisive evidence of Benjamin Franklin. But the repeal of the Stamp Act was neutralized by

Accession a.d. 1760. | Reign 64 Years. | Death . . 1820. | Age . . 82 Years.

Observations.

By the death of George II., the crown devolved upon his grandson, George III.

End of the Seven Years' War.

The "Seven Years' War" continued during the first two years of this reign,—a period marked also by the overthrow of the French power in India.

In consequence of the existence of a treaty between France, Naples, and Spain, known as the "Bourbon Family Compact" (Aug., 1761), Pitt, who still continued at the head of the government, was induced to propose a war with the latter country. The rejection of this proposal by the Privy Council led to his resignation. War was, however, before long, felt to be unavoidable, and was commenced by Lord Bute, the successor of Pitt in office. Although it was prosecuted with success, the hostile attitude of the Commons led Bute to accede to the terms of peace settled by the treaty of Paris (a.d. 1763). By this treaty France ceded to England Canada, Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton, and the islands of St. Vincent, Tobago, Dominica, and Grenada. The treaty was unpopular, and Bute retired.

John Wilkes and Juniors.

The short-lived ministry of George Grenville, besides giving the first provocation to the American colonies, began the contest with the demagogue John Wilkes, in which both Government and Parliament were worsted. Upon the publication of a libel on the king, in No. 45 of Wilkes's paper, the "North Briton," a General Warrant was issued against the author, printer, and publisher (April 30, 1763), and Wilkes was committed to the Tower. His expulsion from the House of Commons, his conviction and outlawry, his renewed expulsion, his repeated re-election for Middlesex, and the other incidents of the long contest, which ended in his quietly taking his seat in the parliament of 1774, are now of little moment in comparison with the ever memorable decision of Chief Justice Campbel (1774) in the case of General Warrants (1764), which was confirmed by parliament in 1766. The proceedings against Wilkes, and the conduct of the Government in general, were assailed by the brilliant and incessant "Juniors" in the Public Advertiser (from Jan. 1769 to 1772), who attacked the Dukes of Grafton and Bedford, and even the king himself, with unceasing violence and spite. But the seeds of greater troubles were already sown.

The American Revolution.

The British settlements in North America now numbered 13 colonies, with a population of nearly 2,000,000. The hearing of the recent war upon their security was used as a pretext for calling on them to contribute to the burdens which it had entailed. In March, 1765, Mr. George Grenville easily carried through Parliament an act imposing stamp duties upon the colonists in America. The colonial assemblies, headed by Virginia, took up the attitude of resistance, and summoned a General Congress to meet at New York. At this time the first symptoms of the king's mental disease caused new troubles about the Journey Bill. Unable to come to terms with Pitt, the king formed a new ministry under the Marquis of Rockingham, who yielded to the resolution of the American colonists, the eloquence of Pitt, and the decisive evidence of Benjamin Franklin. But the repeal of the Stamp Act was neutralized by

Contemporary Events.

KINGS OF FRANCE.

Louis XV. . . . . died a.d. 1774
Louis XVI. . . . . died a.d. 1792
The Dauphin, intermarried in the
List of Kings as Louis XVII.

Died in prison, a.d. 1770
Republic (Convention) . . . . . 1795

Napoleon I, First Consul till 1804
Napoleon I, emperor . . . . . 1814

Louis XVII.

EMPERORS OF GERMANY.

Francis I. . . . . died a.d. 1765
Joseph II. . . . . died a.d. 1790
Leopold II. . . . . died a.d. 1792
Francis II. . . . . a.d. 1790

End of the Holy Roman Empire.

EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA.

Francis I. (same as Francis II., as above) . . . . from a.d. 1804

KINGS OF SPAIN.

Charles III. . . . . died a.d. 1791
Charles IV. . . . . imprisoned a.d. 1808
Ferdinand VII. . . . . died a.d. 1836
Joseph Bonaparte . . . . died a.d. 1816

Ferdinand VII. restored.

EMPERORS OF RUSSIA.

Elizabeth . . . . died a.d. 1762
Peter III. . . . . died a.d. 1772
Peter II. . . . . died a.d. 1772
Katherine II. . . . . died a.d. 1796
Paul I. . . . . died a.d. 1801

Alexander I.

KINGS OF PRUSSIA.

Frederick II. (the Great) died a.d. 1786
Frederick William II. . . . . 1786
Frederick William III.

First partition of Poland by Russia, Austria, and Prussia (1772).

The "Society of Jesus" abolished by Clement XIV. (1773).

The "Assembly of the Notables" was convened in France (1787).
PRINCIPAL EVENTS (continued).

1771. Contest about parliamentary reporting.
1772. Royal Marriage Act (11th Feb.).
1773. WARREN HASTINGS first Governor-General of India.

Riot at Boston, caused by an attempt to levy the duty on tea sent from India (16th Dec.).

1774. Petition of the Massachusetts Assembly, presented by Benjamin Franklin, disapproved by the Pray Council.

Act for closing the port of Boston (14th March).

Meeting of American representatives at a Congress in Philadelphia.

1775. Commencement of hostilities. Encounter between the American militia and the British troops at Lexington (18th April).

The Thirteen colonies form themselves into a Union (29th May).

Indecisive battle at Bunker's Hill (17th June).

Unsuccessful attack of the Americans on Quebec.

1776. Boston is evacuated. Declaration of Independence by the American Congress (4th July).

1777. Defeat of Washington at Brandywine, and capture of Philadelphia (11th Sept.).

General Burgoyne, with 4000 men, surrender at Saratoga (17th Oct.).

1778. France joins the Americans.

Mitigation of the Penal Laws against the Roman Catholics (28th May).

1779. Spain joins the Americas.

The Windward Islands (Dominica, Guadeloupe, &c.) taken by the French.

1780. Riots in consequence of repeal of the Penal Laws, suppressed by the military (9th June). Lord George Gordon is committed to the Tower.

Armed neutrality of the Northern Powers.

War is declared against Holland (20th Dec.).

1781. The Dutch are defeated by Sir H. Parker, off the Dogger Bank (5th Aug.).

OBSERVATIONS (continued).

another act asserting the power of parliament to bind the colonies "in all cases whatsoever." The weakness of the Rockingham ministry caused the king to recall Mr. Pitt, who was created Earl of Chatham and Lord Privy Seal, leaving the dignity of First Lord of the Treasury to the Duke of Grafton. But Chatham's illness threw the Government into confusion; and, upon their defeat on the Land-tax, Charles Townshend, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, carried an Act for granting duties in America on glass, red and white lead, painters' colours, paper, and tea. When the new parliament assembled (May 10th, 1768), Chatham had completely retired from public affairs, and in November he resigned the Privy Seal. But in January, 1770, he reappeared in parliament to denounce the policy of the Government towards America. In the same month, the Duke of Grafton was succeeded as Prime Minister by Lord North, whose first act was to repeal the obnoxious duties, except that on tea. Even this concession had been announced by the new colonial secretary, Lord Hillsborough, in terms offensive to the colonists; but two years passed before the open rupture. Meanwhile, the Corporation of London wrung from the House of Commons the liberty of reporting the debates (1771); and the offense given to the king by the marriages of his brothers of Cumberland and Gloucester led to the Royal Marriage Act (1772).

In 1773, Parliament granted financial aid to the East India Company, and a Governor-General was appointed to reside in Bengal. The permission given to the company to export 17,000,000 pounds of tea to the colonies, the colonial tax being paid in the American ports, caused the riot at Boston, which proved the first overt act in the American Revolution (Dec. 16th, 1773); and the king was the first to suggest, in a letter to Lord North, "the pretensions of the Americans to freedom independent." The Boston Port Bill, and the Massachusetts Government Bill, restricting the charter of the colony, in vain opposed by the ignominious eloquence of Chatham, Burke, and Charles James Fox (second son of Lord Holland), were passed by both Houses with their doors locked; and General Gage arrived in Boston as governor, to carry them out by force of arms (May 13th, 1774). In the following year, the civil war broke out; and, the year after, the colonies were constituted by their Congress as the United States of North America. The unpursuing resolution of George Washington carried the American cause through great straits, till the capitulation of General Burgoyne at Saratoga led Louis XVI. openly to espouse their cause (Feb. 6th, 1782). In the meantime, the States-General of France had beenヨれarden. The accession of Spain to the American cause, in 1779, the armed neutrality of the Northern Powers, and the declaration of war against Holland, on account of her treaty with America (Dec. 20th, 1780), made the contest more of an international character. The Jacobin victory at the battle of St. Denis (Nov. 13th, 1792), the assassination of Louis XVI. (Jan. 21st, 1793), the invasion of Poland, the second Partition of Poland, and the Jacobin threat, with the Jacobin Club being suppressed (Oct., 1793), the invention of Terror, commoners (March, 1793). The Girondists are put to death (Oct.).

Third Constitution in France. Moderate Democracy. A Directory of Five (22nd Sept.).

CONTEMPORARY EVENTS (continued).

The United States General Assembly at Paris (5th May, 1789). Commencement of the French Revolution.

The Commons, or Third Estate, usurp the power of the three orders, and assume the title of the "National Assembly" (1st June).

General insurrection in Paris. The Bastille is taken (14th July).

Louis XVI. accepts a Declaration of Rights. General Convention at Paris in the Champ de Mars (14th July, 1790).

Flight of Louis XVI., who is re-arrested and brought back to Paris (23rd June, 1791).

Louis XVI. accepts the New Constitution (18th Sept.).

The Legislative Assembly meets (1st Dec.).

Gustavus III. of Sweden is assassinated (1792).

Ministry of the Girondists in France (8th April).

The Duke of Brunswick issues a manifesto against the Revolution (5th July).

The Tulleries are stormed (10th Aug.).

Massacres in Ireland (9th Aug.).

Opening of the National Convention (21st Sept.). The Jacobins acquire power.

The King is deposed, and a Republic is declared (26th Sept.).

Trial and execution of Louis XVI. (1793).

First Coalition of European States against France.

A Committee of Public Safety is established at Paris (6th April). The Jacobins, or Mountain Faction, gain the ascendancy.

The Revolutionary Government, or Bonaparte, are elected in the House of Lords. The accession of Spain to the American cause, in 1779, the armed neutrality of the Northern Powers, and the declaration of war against Holland, on account of her treaty with America (Dec. 20th, 1780), made the contest more of an international character. The Jacobin victory at the battle of St. Denis (Nov. 13th, 1792), the assassination of Louis XVI. (Jan. 21st, 1793), the invasion of Poland, the second Partition of Poland, and the Jacobin threat, with the Jacobin Club being suppressed (Oct., 1793), the invention of Terror, commoners (March, 1793). The Girondists are put to death (Oct.).

Second Coalition of Poland, between Russia and Prussia. The patriots are headed by Koebender. The Jacobins in America were guided over by the glory of the defeat of the Dutch off the Doggerbank (1781), by Elliot's (Lord Heathfield's) splendid defence of Gibraltar (1780—1782), and by the naval victory of Lord Hood over La Grasse in the West Indies (April 12th, 1782). On the other hand, Minorca was lost (Feb. 5th, 1782); and the contest in America had already been decided by the capitulation of Lord Cornwallis, with 7,000 men, to Washington and Lafayette, at York Town.

After a brief struggle to support the king in his obstinate resolution, Lord North resigned, and Lord Rockingham (a second time Prime Minister) conceded the claim of Ireland to Legislative Independence. In the same session, Edmund Burke carried an economical reform, and William Pitt (the second son of Lord Chatham) made a motion for Parliamentary Reform, which was lost by only 20 votes (May 7th). Pitt was Chancellor of the Exchequer in the
Principal Events (continued).  
Lord Cornwallis surrenders at York Town to General Washington (29th Oct.).  
1782. Port Mahon taken by the Spaniards (5th Feb.). Minorca finally lost.  
Fall of Lord North (29th March).  
Second Ministry of Lord Rockingham.  
The French fleet under De Grasse defeated by Admiral (Lord) Rodney, off St. Lucia (12th April).  
Pitt's motion for a Reform of Parliament (7th May).  
Legislative Independence granted to Ireland.  
Ministry of Lord Shelburne (July).  
Termination of the three years' siege of Gibraltar.  
Gen. Elliot reinforced by Lord Howe (Oct.).  
Peace of Paris with America (30th Nov.).  
1783. Peace of Versailles with France (20th Jan.).  
The Independence of the United States recognised.  
Formation of the Coalition Ministry (5th April).  
The India Bill of Mr. Fox is rejected.  
Ministry of the younger William Pitt (23rd Dec.).  
1784. Pitt's India Bill thrown out (23rd Jan.).  
His repeated defeats in Parliament.  
Pitt's India Bill passed (13th Aug.).  
1785. Resignation of Warren Hastings (Feb.).  
Private marriage of the Prince of Wales to Mrs. Fitzherbert (21st Dec.).  
1786. The Sinking Fund established.  
Impeachment of Warren Hastings (4th April).  
Attempt of a mad woman on the King's life.  
1788. The trial of Warren Hastings begins (13th Feb.).  
Illness of the King (Oct.). Debates on the Regency.  
1789. Recovery of the King (Feb.).  
Outbreak of the French Revolution.  

Observations (continued).  
short-lived ministry formed by the Earl of Shelburne on the death of the Marquis of Rockingham (July 1st, 1782), by which peace was concluded with America (Nov. 30th, 1782), and with France and Spain (Jan. 20th, 1783).  
The House of Commons censured the terms of peace, and Lord Shelburne resigned (Feb. 24th, 1783). The king reluctantly accepted a Coalition Ministry, in which Lord North and Charles James Fox were Secretaries of State, under the Duke of Portland; and he seized the opportunity of the defeat of Fox's ministry, and to confer the offices of First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer on William Pitt, now only in his twenty-fifth year (Dec. 19th, 1783). The Prince of Wales, who attained his majority this year, took his seat in the House of Lords as an adherent of the Coalition Ministry, and in open political opposition to his father (Nov. 11th, 1783).  

First Ministry of William Pitt.  
The government of Pitt lasted for the remaining seventeen years of the century. After a fierce contest with the hostile House of Commons, an appeal to the country gave a large majority to the King and Pitt, who began his career as the minister of peace and reform, financial and parliamentary.  
While restoring the balance between income and expenditure by new taxes, he set the example of reducing customs' duties, as the only preventive of smuggling. His India Bill established the Board of Control as a department of the government, to govern India in conjunction with the Directors of the Company. His scheme for improved commercial intercourse with Ireland was defeated in the Irish Parliament, and his plan of parliamentary reform was rejected, for the third time, by a majority of 74. Having obtained a surplus, Pitt attacked the debt by what has since been discovered to be the delusive method of a Sinking Fund; and gained the honour of concluding a Commercial Treaty with Spain, which, however, was annulled by the Revolution. But full effect was given to Pitt's great reform of the indirect taxation by a consolidation of the duties of customs, excise, and stamps. The alienation of the King and the Prince of Wales now became complete. The Opposition moved parliament to aid the prince; and the king at length instructed Pitt to obtain a vote for the payment of the prince's debts. In October, 1788, George III. was seized with a violent fever, resulting in a decided attack of insanity. In the ensuing debates, Fox maintained the Prince of Wales should assume the regency as of course; but Pitt vindicated the right of parliament to appoint the Regent, and defined the limits of his authority. Scarcely, however, had the bill passed the Commons, when the king recovered (Feb. 1789); and a public thanksgiving was celebrated with the utmost enthusiasm. The debates on the Regency embittered the king's hostility to the Whigs, and secured Pitt's place in the affections of his sovereign and of the nation.  

The French Revolution.  
At this climax of his power, the great champion of peace and reform was transferred to the scale of war. The outbreak of the French Revolution raised the alarm of aggression from abroad and of republican sympathies at home. At the opening of parliament in 1790, Pitt asked for an increase in the army estimates, as a precaution, but expressed his hope of "a long continuance of peace;" and the only important transaction abroad was the settlement of a dispute with Spain, about an insult to the British flag at Nootka Sound. Fox and Sheridan expressed in parliament  

Contemporary Events (continued).  
Rising of the sections of Paris suppressed by Barras and Napoleon Bonaparte (4th and 5th Dec.).  
Bonaparte, aged 26, is appointed Commander-in-Chief of the army in Italy (1796).  
Defeat of the Americans at Long Island (11th May).  
Napoleon at the Battle of Aspern (3rd May).  
Power of Godey in Spain. — Alliance of France and Spain (1796).  
Defeat of the Austrians at Rivoli (1797).  
The States of the Church are conquered (1797).  
Treaty of Peace with the Pope at Tolentino (19th Feb.).  
Peace of Campo Formio between France and Austria (1797).  
Negotiations are opened at Radstadt (9th Dec.).  
The Papal Government is suppressed. — Republic at Rome.  
Napoleon sails for Egypt (1798).  
The negotiations at Radstadt are broken off.  
Second coalition against France (1799).  
Savoy recovers Italy from the French (1799).  
New Constitution in France. — Napoleon First Consul (14th Dec.).  
Napoleon crosses the Alps (1800), and dictates the Austrians at Mantua (14th June). Morcion gains the battle of Hoechstlinden (3rd Dec.).  
Paul of Rusland is assassinated (1801).  
Peace of Lunéville, between Austria and France (9th Feb.).  
Spain and France declare war against Portugal (29th Feb.).  
French alliance with Russia and Turkey.  
Napoleon is elected Consul for life (1802).  
Execution of the Duke D'Aguigny (1804).  
Napoleon is proclaimed Emperor (18th May).  
Francis II. abdicates the elective title of Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, and assumes the hereditary title of Emperor of Austria (11th Aug.).  
Napoleon is crowned King of Italy at Milan (1805).  
The third coalition against France (1806).  
The Austrians are defeated at Austerlitz (2nd Dec.).  
The Peace of Presbourg (29th Dec.).  
Louis Bonaparte is made King of Holland (1806).  
Confederation of the Rhine (15th July).
1790-1796.—GEORGE III. —continued.

**Principal Events (continued).**

1790. Increase of the army estimates.

1791. Burke separates from the Whigs. Riots at Birmingham (14th July).

1792. Peace with Tippoo Sahib (Feb.). Resolution of the Commons for the gradual abolition of the Slave-trade (26th April).

Fox’s **Libel Bill** is passed. Proclamation against seditious meetings and writings (21st May).


1794. Threat of invasion from France. Militia enrolled. Conviction and transportation of Muir and Palmer. The **Habeas Corpus Act** is suspended (23rd May). Trial and acquittal of Horne Tooke, Hardy, and Thelwall, on a charge of high treason (22nd Oct.—5th Dec.). The French fleet is defeated off Ushant by Lord Howe (1st June).

1795. Warren Hastings is acquitted (23rd March). Marriage of the Prince of Wales (5th April). Disastrous expedition to Quiberon (5th June). Bread riots at the opening of parliament (29th Oct.). Further repressive measures (Dec.). The Cape of Good Hope and Ceylon taken from the Dutch (26th Aug.).

1796. Attempted invasion from France. The “United Irishmen” enrolled. War declared by Spain (6th Oct.). Birth of the Princess Charlotte of Wales (7th Jan.).

**Observations (continued).**

their admiration of the Revolution; while Burke openly separated himself from his friends, and powerfully stimulated popular indignation by his “Reflections on the French Revolution.” On the anniversary of the taking of the Bastille (14th July, 1791), a “Church and King” mob burnt the horses of Dr. Joseph Priestley and other Dissenters at Birmingham. Still Pitt adhered to neutrality and reform. On the 31st Jan., 1792, the King congratulated parliament on tranquillity and prosperity; on the 17th of Feb., Pitt made a masterly exposition of his financial policy; and on the 2nd of April, in a master-piece of eloquence, he supported Wilberforce’s motion for the abolition of the slave trade. Fox carried his **Libel Bill**, empowering juries to return a verdict of “guilty” or not guilty upon the whole issue. A coalition between Pitt and Fox was even proposed; but the public excitement defeated all moderate counsels. Mr. (afterwards Lord) Grey’s notice of motion for parliamentary reform was opposed by Pitt as ill-timed; and on the 21st of May, 1792, a proclamation was issued against seditious meetings and writings.

By the outbreak of Aug. 10th, 1792, in Paris, royalty was abolished, and a Republic proclaimed. On the death of Louis XVI. upon the scaffold, the French envoy was ordered to leave England, and war was soon commenced between England and France (a.d. 1793). This war was signalized by a succession of brilliant naval victories; those of Lord Howe, in the Bay of Biscay (a.d. 1794); of Lord St. Vincent over the fleet of Spain, which had entered into an alliance with the Republic (a.d. 1797); and of Admiral (Lord) Duncan, over the fleet of Holland, which had at this time become a province of France. In the midst of these victories the country was alarmed by a formidable mutiny at the Nore, which was suppressed after some weeks by the firmness of Lord Duncan. While her flag was triumphant by sea, success did not attend the earlier military operations of Great Britain. Two expeditious, sent under the Duke of York to the Netherlands, proved fruitless; and an attempt to relieve the inhabitants of Toulon, who had declared for Louis XVI., failed. Fœuds negotiations for peace were carried on by Lord Malmesbury in 1796 and 1797.

At home, meanwhile, the policy of the government was directed by the assumption that political reform was step by step to be speeded, and that reformers were the secret allies of France. This assumption was countenanced by the conduct of factions like Thomas Paine, who formed societies to advocate “The Rights of Man,” while the patriotism of the great body of the people, and their indignation at the judicial murder of Louis XVI., took form in the counter-associations in support of the Constitution.” This preponderance of the popular feeling, rallying round the person of the king, made the government all-powerful.

The **Traitorous Correspondence Bill** (March, 1793) deprived persons accused of treason of their statutory privileges. Early in 1794, two reformers, Muir and Palmer, were sentenced in Scotland to long periods of transportation; and a royal message to parliament, concerning the proceedings of certain societies, led to the **Suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act** on the 23rd of May. The Act was frequently suspended during the war. Then followed the memorable trials for the **Repeal of the Test Acts, Heresy, High Treason, and other***, whose acquittal was procured by the forensic skill and eloquence of Erskine. The repeated threats of French invasions inflamed the popular ardour, and “the spirit of Reform” was absolutely neutralized by the spirit of Patriotism.” It was in vain that even Wilberforce’s old friend of Pitt, raised his voice in parliament for peace (Dec., 1794). In 1795 took place the ill-omened marriage of the Prince

**Contemporary Events (continued).**

The Prussians are defeated at Jena (14th Oct., 1806).

Revin Decree of Napoleon against British commissaires (11th Nov.).

Fourth coalition against France (1807).

Battle of Friedland (14th June).

Peace of Tilsit, between France and Russia (8th July).

The Kingdom of Westphalia is created for Jerome Bonaparte (1807).

The royal family of Portugal embark for Brazil (17th Aug.).

The Milan Decree, prohibiting all commerce with England (11th Nov.).

French troops seize the States of the Church (1808).

Charles IV. abdicates the crown of Spain in his son Ferdinand VII. (1808).

Ferdinand VII. is compelled to renounce the Spanish crown. Joseph Bonaparte is made King of Spain (1808).

The Juntas of Seville declares war against France (1808).

Portuguese arms against France. Conference at Erfurt between Napoleon and Alexander (17th Sept.).

Napoleon enters Madrid (4th Dec.), leaves Madrid (Dec.).

Birth of Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte (son of Louis, King of Holland), new Emperor of the French (1808).

Fifth coalition against France (1809).

The Tyroleans under Hofer rise against the French (1809).

The Austrians are defeated at Eckmuhl (21st April) at Hanover (3rd April), and at Wagram (6th July).

Peace of Vienna between Austria and France (11th Oct.).

Napoleon divorces Josephine (16th Dec., 1809), and marries Marie Louise of Austria (1st April, 1810).

Decree for the burning of all British manufactures (18th Aug.).

Marshal Bernadotte is chosen heir to the crown of Sweden, as Charles John (1st Aug.).

Alexander withdraws from his alliance with Napoleon (1810).

Revolt of the Spanish colonies in South America (1810).

Birth of the King of Rome (1811).

French alliance with Prussia (24th Feb.), and Austria (23rd March).

Peace of Bucharest, between Russia and Turkey (1812).
1797—1804.—GEORGE III.—continued.

Principal Events (continued).

1797. Defeat of the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, by Admiral Jervis (Lord St. Vincent), 14th Feb.

Mutinies at Spithead and the Nore suppressed (6th April—12th June).

Frutile negotiations for peace.

Defeat of the Dutch fleet off Camperdown by Admiral (Lord) Duncan (11th Oct.).

1798. Rebellion in Ireland commences in March; is quelled in September.

Victory of the Nile (1st Aug.).

Pitt imposes an Income Tax.

1799. Seringapatam is taken by General Harris, and Tippoo Sahib is slain (4th May).

Bonaparte is repulsed by Sir Sidney Smith at Acre (20th May).


1800. Armed neutrality of the Northern Powers against England (Dec.).

1801. Union of Great Britain and Ireland (1st Jan.).

First Parliament of the United Kingdom meets (22nd Jan.).

Pitt resigns. Ministry of Mr. Addington.


Battle of Copenhagen (2nd April).

1802. Peace concluded with France at Amiens (27th March).

1803. War with France is renewed (18th May).

Battle of Assaye, in which the Mahrattas are defeated by Sir A. Wellesley (23rd Sept.).

Emmet’s Insurrection in Ireland.

French Preparations for invasion. Camp at Boulogne. The Volunteers are enrolled.

1804. Pitt resumes the government (18th May). Napoleon, Emperor of the French (18th May).

Observations (continued).

of Wales to the Princess Caroline of Brunswick; when parliament raised the prince’s income to £138,000, of which £73,000 were to be set aside to pay off his debts, amounting to £363,000.

Provisions grew very dear: the king, on his way to open parliament, was assisted with cries for “Bread” (29th Oct.), and the breaking of his carriage-window by a missile gave occasion for new coercive laws, against Treasonable Attempts, and against Sedition Meetings. On Saturday, the 25th of Feb., 1796, the Bank of England informed Pitt that their bullion was exhausted. The Council ordered the suspension of cash payments from the ensuing Monday; and this suspension was authorised by Pitt’s Bank Restriction Act, which remained in force till the 1st of May, 1821. Guineas were superseded by notes for £1 and £2.

In Ireland, important events had taken place. The Protestants had, in the year 1779, been formed into volunteer corps. At a meeting at Dungannon, A.D. 1781, they demanded, before laying down their arms, an alteration in the laws which rendered the Irish Parliament dependent upon the English Legislature. The obnoxious Act was repealed (1783), but other causes of discontent, however, remained. In 1791, a body, consisting at first chiefly of Protestant Dissenters of Ulster, was formed, known as the Society of United Irishmen, to effect alterations in the government. Concessions were made, but the disaffection continued, and, in 1797, insurrection broke out. The rebels were defeated with great loss by General Lake at their fortified post on Vinegar Hill in Wexford. Two years later, the ministry succeeded in passing a measure for a Legislative Union between England and Ireland (A.D. 1800). By this measure it was provided that Ireland should be represented in the Imperial Parliament by four spiritual Lords sitting by rotation, twenty-eight temporal Lords elected for life, and one hundred Commons.

In the French revolutionary army, by which Toulon was besieged, was a young officer of artillery, who was destined to take his place among the greatest generals of modern times—Napoleon Bonaparte. In a single campaign, Napoleon subverted the power of Austria in Italy; and in 1798, he sought, by an expedition into Egypt, to strike a blow at British influence in the East. He landed with a splendid squadron in Egypt, in pursuit of the British fleet that was in Egypt, in pursuit of the British fleet that was in pursuit under Admiral Nelson, then rising to fame. The French fleet was overtaken in Aboukir Bay, near the mouth of the Nile; and, after a battle lasting through the night, was defeated with great loss. Cut off from communication with Europe, and repulsed at Acre by Sir Sidney Smith, Napoleon returned to France. After his departure, a British force under Sir R. Abercromby was sent against the remains of the French army left in Egypt; and General Menou was defeated in a battle fought near Alexandria. The Northern powers, Russia, Sweden and Denmark, having about the same time combined to resist the maritime rights claimed by England, an expedition was sent to the Baltic, under Vice Admiral Collingwood, with Nelson attached as second in command. The Danish fleet moored off Copenhagen, and, after a severe engagement, the Crown Prince of Denmark consented to an armistice.

Peace of Amiens.

The year 1801 closed the first administration of Pitt, who resigned from inactivity, and peace was made for the relief of the Roman Catholics. He was succeeded by Mr. Addington (Lord Sidmouth). A negotiation with France was entered into, and a treaty of peace was signed at Amiens (A.D. 1802). Peace, however, was not of long duration.

Contemporary Events (continued).

Napoleon declares war against Russia (3rd June). Battle of Smolensko (17th June), and of the Borodino (27th Sept.). Napoleon enters Moscow (18th Sept.).

Burnous of Moscow (18th Sept.); Napoleon commences his retreat (19th Oct.), passes the Borodino (28th Oct.), and arrives at Paris (13th Dec.).

Treaty of Kalisch, between Russia and Prussia against France (1813).

Indiscreet battles of Lützen (3rd May), and Bautzen (19th May).

Austria declares war against France (10th Aug.). The Allies are repulsed by Napoleon at Dresden (7th Aug.).

Victory of the Allies at Leipzig (16th—19th Oct.). The consideration of the battle is dissolved.

Declaration of the Allied Sovereigns at Frankfurt (4th Dec.). Murat declares for the Allies (114).

Louis XVIII. is invited to return to France (1814).

Treaty of Kiel. Denmark cedes Norway to Sweden (1814).

Defeat of Murat at Mortemart. The Allies occupy Paris (18th March).

Abdication of Napoleon at Fontainebleau (6th April). The Isle of Elba is assigned to him with the title of Emperor. Louis XVIII. is declared King. By the Treaty of Paris France is reduced to the limits of 1793.

The Congress of Vienna opens (1st Nov.). The Elector of Hanover is created into a kingdom.

Napoleon leaves Elba (9th Feb., 1815) ; arrives in France (1st March).

Belgium is annexed to Holland. The Prince of Orange takes the title ofKing of the Netherlands (19th March).

Louis XVIII. withdraws to Ghent (19th March).

The Act of the Congress of Vienna is completed. A new constitution is formed in Germany (5th June).

Napoleon joins the army (19th June); after his defeat at Waterloo he gives himself up to Capt. Maitland of the Delphos (18th July) ; sails for St. Helena (9th Aug.), and arrives (19th Oct.). Louis XVIII. returns to Paris (8th July).

The Holy Alliance between Austria, Russia and Prussia (20th Sept.).

Murat attempts to recover Naples, and is shot (18th Oct.).

By a treaty with Russia, the Protectorsate of the Ionian Isles is ceded to Great Britain (6th Nov.).
1804-1810—GEORGE III.—continued.

**Principal Events (continued).**

Spain declares war (12th Dec.).
1806. Nelson buried in St. Paul’s (9th Jan.). Death of Pitt (23rd Jan.).
Ministry of LORD GRENVILLE and Ma. Fox (5th Feb.).
Impeachment and acquittal of Lord Melville. Defeat of the French at Maids, in Calabria, by
Sir J. Stuart (4th July).

Death of Fox (18th Sept.). Berlin decree against British commerce (21st Nov.).
Ministry of the DUCHESS of PORTLAND. Bombardment of Copenhagen, without a declaration of war (2nd Sept.).
Milan decree ordering British goods to be burned. Orders in Council affecting America.
Lord Cochrane’s (afterwards Earl of Dundonald) exploit in Aix Roads (April).
Disastrous expedition to Walcheren. A. Wellesley returns to Portugal, and defeats the French at Talavera (28th July). Jubilee of George III. (25th Oct.).
Death of the Duke of Portland (29th Oct.).
Mr. SPECKER PERCEVAL becomes Prime Minister.
1810. Sir F. Burdett committed to the Tower. Victory of Sir A. Wellesley: (Lord Wellington)

**Observations (continued).**

The second period of the French Revolutionary war extended with but little interruption from 1804 to 1815—a period of eleven years. In the former year, Pitt resumed office; and war was renewed. The Third Coalition of the Great Powers was formed against the designs of Napoleon, who had now become Emperor of the French. The commencement of the war was marked by the victory of Trafalgar (1805), in which Lord Nelson signalized the combined French and Spanish fleets, but fell in the moment of victory. In the same month which saw the solemn burial of Nelson in St. Paul’s, Pitt succumbed to his incessant toils, on the very day appointed for the opening of Parliament. A new ministry was formed under Lord Grenville and Mr. Fox. The death of Fox, however, who did not long survive his great rival, soon necessitated further changes. The Whigs remained in power some months longer, but a difference of opinion between the Ministry and the king, on the question of the removal of the civil disabilities of the Roman Catholics, led to their resignation. A new administration was formed, of which the leaders were the Duke of Portland and Mr. Perceval; Mr. Canning holding the office of Colonial Secretary, and Lord Castlereagh that of Secretary at War.* The secret treaty of Tilsit between Napoleon and Alexander I. of Russia (June 26th, 1807) having become known to Canning, an English armament was despatched a second time to Copenhagen, to prevent the navy of Denmark falling into the hands of these two hostile powers. The demands of the British Government being rejected, the city was bombarded, and the Danes were compelled to surrender their ships of war and naval stores. An expedition to Walcheren, which was attempted two years later, proved disastrous, but, at this time, the honour of the British arms was supported by Sir J. A. Wellesley in the Spanish Peninsula.

Charles IV. of Spain, having been induced by the advice of his Minister, Godoy, to become the ally of France, joined with Napoleon in a treaty for the dismemberment of Portugal (1806). Under this pretext French troops under Marshal Junot were allowed to cross the Pyrenees. In the following year Charles and his son Ferdinand were forced by Napoleon to resign their crowns, and the Emperor’s brother Joseph was placed upon the throne of Spain. The nation, however, rose against the yoke of a foreign sovereign. Sir Arthur Wellesley was sent to co-operate with the Spanish patriots, and landed on the 12th of July, 1808. He defeated Junot at Vina, but the advantage of this success was lost by a convention entered into at Cintra shortly afterwards by Sir Hew Dalrymple. By this convention the French were allowed to leave Portugal unmolested, and Sir John Moore, who meanwhile had entered Spain, was forced to retreat with the troops under his command. He was overtaken at Corunna by the enemy, and a general engagement ensued. The French were repulsed, but Moore was mortally wounded, and the British army sailed for England (1809). In a few months Sir A. Wellesley returned to Portugal as Commander-in-Chief. He crossed the Douro, in the presence of a large French army, entered Spain, and defeated the French at Talavera (1809). This victory gained for him the title which has become immortal in history, and the new Viscount became afterwards Earl, Marquis, and Duke of Wellington.

The victory of Talavera added a zest to the loyal enthusiasm with which the

* At this period, and down to the time of the Crimean war, the “Secretary of State for War and the Colonies” had the direction of military operations, the “Secretary at War,” a minister of interlocutory rank, being charged only with the details of army administration, chiefly financial. The former office is now divided into the two Secretaries of State for the Colonies and for War, and the latter is abolished.

**Contemporary Events (continued).**

By the Second Treaty of Paris £24,000,000 is to be paid to the Allies, and seventeen frontier fortresses are to be held in trust by an army of occupation for five years (29th Nov.).

Marshall Ney is shot (1st Dec.).
The Republic of Colombia is formed by the union of New Granada with Venezuela. Bolivar is President (1819).

**Names of Note.**

S. Richardson, Novelist. died A.D. 1791
Sharbon, Bishop. 1791
Headley, Bishop. 1791
Marmion, Essayist. 1793
Lady M. W. Thickem. 1794
W. Shute, Poet. 1794
Fulcray, Earl of Bath. 1794
W. Horetht, Painter. 1794
G. Churccll, Poet. 1794
Percy, Bishop. 1794
E. Young, Poet. 1794
L. Sterne, Novelist. 1795
Mark Arikins, Poet. 1795
T. Chatterton, Poet. 1795
G. Rawlinson, Stagnet. 1795
G. Whifield, Preacher. 1795
T. Gray, Poet. 1795
T. Smollett, Novelist. 1795
Brindley, Engineer. 1795
G. Skewesnor. 1795
Lord Chichester. 1795
Lord Lynd. 1796
Oliver Goldsmith, Poet. 1796
E. Ferguson, Astronomer. 1796
Henry Fox, Lord Holland. 1796
David Hume, Historian. 1796
Linnane, Botanist. 1796
W. Pitt, Earl of Chatham. 1796
Voltaire. 1796
J. J. Rossean. 1796
Dr. Adam, Mathematician. 1796
Catt, Cook, Navigator. 1796
Lord Lyndon. 1799
D. Garrick, Actor. 1799
Warburton, Bishop. 1799
Sir W. Blackstone. 1799
Leading, Philosopher. 1798
W. Hunter, Physicist. 1798
B. Kantoroff, Orde. 1798
J. Blakes, Philosopher. 1798
D’Alembert, Philosopher. 1798
Dr. Jewson, Essayist. 1798
Diderot, Philosopher. 1798
Mandeleasoon, Philosopher. 1798
1810—1814.—GEORGE III.—continued.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS (continued).

over Massena at Buaco (27th Sept.), and defence of the Lines of Torres Vedras (9th Oct.).
Retreat of Massena (15th Nov.).
Permanent insanity of the king (Nov.).
1811. The Prince of Wales becomes Regent (5th Feb.).
The French are defeated at Barossa by Sir T. Graham (5th March).
Massena is defeated by Wellington at Fuentes D’Onoro (6th May).
Soutt is defeated at Albuera by Gen. Beresford (16th May).
1812. Ciudad Rodrigo is taken by Lord Wellington (19th Jan.).
Badajoz is taken by storm (6th April).
Assassination of Mr. Perceval (11th May).
Ministry of Lord Liverpool (8th June).
War declared by America (18th June).
Battle of Salamanca (22nd July).
Retreat from Burgos (21st Oct.).
1813. Toronto captured by the Americans.
Engagement between the Shannon and Chesapeake (1st June).
Battle of Vitoria (21st June).
Soutt is defeated in the Battle of the Pyrenees (26th July).
San Sebastian is taken (31st Aug.).
Surrender of Pampeluna (31st Oct.), and retreat of Soutt.
1814. Soutt is defeated by Wellington at Orthez (27th Feb.), and at Toulouse (10th April).
First General Pacification of Paris (30th May).
Visit of the allied sovereigns to England.
Washington is captured and the capital burned by the British (24th Aug.).
Baltimore unsuccessfully attacked by the British (13th Sept.).

OBSERVATIONS (continued).

English people celebrated the Jubilee, or 60th year from the accession of George III. (25th Oct., 1809). Four days later, the death of the Duke of Portland put an end to his ministry, already weakened by the retirement of Canning and Castlereagh, who had quarrelled and fought a duel in consequence of the disastrous result of the Walcheren expedition (22nd Sept.). Mr. Spencer Perceval became Prime Minister, with Lord Liverpool as Secretary for War and the Colonies, and Lord Palmerston as Secretary at War.

The new ministry showed marked coolness towards Wellington, who, after Talavera, was compelled to retreat to the frontiers of Portugal before the superior forces of Soult spent six months in disciplining his army and his Portuguese allies, and in preparing that greatest work of his genius, the line of Torres Vedras, for the protection of Lisbon. The campaign of 1810 was necessarily defensive. Massena, after reducing Ciudad Rodrigo and Almeida, was defeated at Buaco by Wellington, who then placed his army in safety behind the lines of Torres Vedras, whence the baffled Marshal commenced his retreat on the 15th of November, 1810. It was in the same month that George III. suffered the final extinction of his reason.

THE REGENCY.

In consequence of the renewed insanity of the king, an Act was passed by Parliament (5th Feb., 1811), by which the Prince of Wales was appointed Regent, under the same restrictions as those proposed by Pitt in 1786. These restrictions were to continue until after Feb. 1st, 1812.

The fourth campaign in the Peninsula was marked by the success of the British troops at Barossa, Albuera, and Fuentes d’Onoro (1811). In the same year the invincible island of Java was taken from the Dutch. The next year commenced with the third advance of the British into Spain. Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz were taken, and, after the decisive victory of Salamanca (22nd July), Madrid was entered by the British (12th Aug.). Wellington advanced to the siege of Burgos, but the concentration of the French forces compelled him to retire to winter quarters at Ciudad Rodrigo (Nov.).

Meanwhile the assassination of Mr. Perceval by John Bellingham, in the lobby of the House of Commons, led to a series of political intrigues, which resulted in the premiership of Lord Liverpool, with Lord Castlereagh as Foreign Secretary; Mr. (afterwards Sir) Robert Peel being Secretary for Ireland. The country was troubled by riots, arising from the ignorant hostility of the working classes to the introduction of machinery. The offence of machine breaking was made capital, and sixteen Luddites (as the rioters were popularly called, from an idiot named Ned Ludd), were executed after the special assizes held at York in November, 1812.

In retaliation for the Berlin and Milan Decrees, by which Napoleon excluded all British goods from the continent, the English Government had, in 1807, issued Orders in Council, declaring all vessels bound to French ports liable to capture, unless they had first touched at British harbours. This step led to misunderstanding with the United States; the obnoxious orders were revoked; but still, while Napoleon was marching to Moscow, war was declared by Congress (18th June, 1812). The naval disasters with which the war opened were retrieved by some brilliant exploits. An attempt made by the Americans to invade Canada was repulsed; the fleet of the British Army upon Washington was scarcely less disgraceful than its repulse from New Orleans. Just before this disaster peace had already been concluded by the Treaty of Ghent.

The great struggle with Napoleon had also been decided, as was supposed,
1814-1820.—GEORGE III.—continued.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS (continued).

Peace is concluded with America at Ghent (34th Dec.).

1815. Defeat before New Orleans (17th Jan.).

Congress of Vienna (Jan.).

Napoleon lands at Cannes (1st March), and enters Paris (21st March).

Lord Wellington takes the command of the allied army in the Netherlands, on the return of Napoleon from Elba (5th April).

The Allies attacked by Napoleon at Ligny and at Quatre Bras (16th June).

Victory of the Allies at Waterloo (18th June).

Paris, invested by the Allies, capitulates (6th July).

Second Treaty of Paris (20th Nov.),

1816. Savings Banks founded.

Marriage of the Princess Charlotte (2nd May).

Excessive prices of corn. Riots in the agricultural and manufacturing districts.

The Algerines are defeated by Lord Exmouth (27th Aug.).

1817. Suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act.

Death of the Princess Charlotte (6th Nov.).


Commission on public charities.

Death of Queen Charlotte (17th Nov.).


1820. The Duke of Kent dies six days before the King (23rd Jan.).

MARRIED CHARLOTTE SOPHIA. Issue GEORGE IV.; FREDERICK, Duke of York; WILLIAM IV., Duke of Clarence; EDWARD, Duke of Kent; ERNEST AUGUSTUS, Duke of Cumberland; AUGUSTUS FREDERICK, Duke of Sussex; ADOLPHUS FREDERICK, Duke of Cambridge; CHARLOTTE, married FREDERICK, King of Wurttemburg; AUGUSTA SOPHIA; ELIZABETH married FREDERICK, Landgrave of Hesse-Homburg; MARY, married the Duke of Gloucester; SOPHIA; and AMELIA.

OBSERVATIONS (continued).

finally, the same winter, which saw Napoleon’s power destroyed by his rash attack on Russia, found Wellington prepared to reap the fruit of his long and far-sighted endurance. While the Emperor drained France of conscripts for his last and disastrous invasion in Germany, the little band of British veterans had set their last farewell to the frontier of Portugal, under Wellington, now supreme commander of the Spanish forces also (1813) The French fell back on Burgos (3rd June), only to abandon that fortress (12th June) and on the following day the British crossed the Ebro. The utter defeat of King Joseph Bonaparte and Marshal Jourdan at Vitoria (21st June) virtually delivered the Peninsula to the French and Soult arrived in Spain only to be beaten back in the series of engagements known as the Battles of the Pyrenees (July 20th—31st). By the capitulation of San Sebastian and Pamplona, the French lost their last hold on Spain; Wellington having already driven the Biscayens into France (Oct.).

While he retired for a few weeks into winter quarters, after forcing the line of the Nive, the van-guard of the Russo-German armies crossed the Rhine on the last day of the year (21st Dec., 1813); and Paris capitulated on the 31st March, 1814. Meanwhile the Battle of Osiris gave Wellington possession of Bordeaux; and his final victory was gained over Soult at Toulouse after the war had been ended by the fall of Paris.

Napoleon abdicated at Fontainebleau on the 4th of April, and retired to Elba, retaining the title of Emperor. While Louis XVIII. entered Paris on the 3rd of May. On the 28th of June, Wellington was carried up the beach at Dover on the shoulders of the Kentish men, and left England again to take part in the Congress of Vienna. The representatives of the four great powers were engaged in re-adjusting the territories of the European States, when they were interrupted by the news that Napoleon had returned to France, and entered Paris. Then followed the “Hundred Days” of Napoleon’s restoration, and his withdrawal to campaign in Belgium. The decisive struggle took place at Waterloo, and the army of Napoleon was routed by the Allies under Wellington. By the arrangement which subsequently took place, the Bourbons were a second time restored to France. Peace was concluded at Paris, Nov., 1815.

1816, an import duty on flour was passed—the Corn Law—by which the importation of wheat was prohibited, if the price was less than fifty shillings a quarter. The distress arising from the depression of trade, and the changes consequent upon the war to peace, led, in 1817, to general discontent. Repressive measures were adopted, and the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended. In 1818, discontent again became general. A meeting for Reform called at Manchester by the agitator, H. Hunt, was suppressed by force, and several lives were lost. Towards the close of the same year, Government passed several coercive measures—known as the Six Acts—giving increased power to the Executive.

The remaining events of the Regency, which deserve notice, were the defeat of the Algerine pirates by Lord Exmouth; the marriage of the Princess Charlotte (daughter of the Prince Regent) with Prince Leopold of Saxo-Coburg; the death of the Princess shortly afterwards, and the birth of the Princess Alexandrina Victoria, our present Queen.

The Primates during this reign were Drs. Secker, Cornwallis, Moore, and Manners Sutton. The Chancellor were Lords Northcoting, Camden, Bathurst, Thurlow, Leicester, Eldon, and Erskine.

NAMES OF NOTE (continued).

33. GEORGE IV.

Principal Events.

The eldest son of George III., succeeds to the throne, at the age of 58 (29th Jan.).

Discovery of the Cato Street conspiracy, for which Thistlewood and four others are executed.

The First Parliament of this reign meets (27th April).

Arrival of Queen Caroline from the Continent (6th June). By a message to the Commons, she challenges an enquiry into her conduct.

A Bill of Pains and Penalties against the Queen is introduced (5th July).

The trial of the Queen commences (19th Aug.); is closed (2nd Nov.).

The Bill of Pains and Penalties against the Queen is abandoned.

1821. An annuity of £50,000 is settled on the Queen.

Judicial decision of the Privy Council that a Queen Consort is not entitled of right to be crowned.

Coronation of the King (19th July).

George IV. visits Ireland. The King embarks for Hanover (24th Sept.); returns (8th Nov.).

1822. Accession of the Grenvilles party to the government.

Death of the Marquis of Londonderry. Mr. G. Canning is appointed Foreign Secretary.

The Currency Act of Mr. Peel comes into operation (1st May).

1823. Mr. Robinson (afterwards Lord Goderich) becomes Chancellor of the Exchequer, in the room of Mr. Vanmatt (Lord Bexley); and Mr. Huskisson, President of the Board of Trade.

1824. War between Great Britain and Burmah. Rangoon is taken by Sir A. Campbell.

1825. The motion of Sir F. Burdett, for the removal of Catholic disabilities, is rejected in the House of Lords.

Notes.

On the death of George III., George, Prince of Wales, who had governed England as Regent for nine years, became king under the title of George IV.

One of the first consequences of this reign was the discovery of a plot to assassinate the ministers of the crown at a Cabinet dinner, for which the chief conspirators suffered death. An insurrectionary movement about the same time at Bonnymuir, near Glasgow, since known to have been mainly instigated by spies, was suppressed.

The arrival in England of Queen Caroline of Brunswick, after an absence of six years, was followed by the introduction of a Bill for her degradation, and the dissolution of her marriage with the king, on the ground of misconduct. Although she was ably defended by Henry (Lord) Brougham, Thomas (Lord) Denman, and Dr. Lushington, the Bill passed a third reading in the House of Lords by 108 votes against 99; but the majority in favour of it was so small that it was abandoned.

An Act had been passed in 1819, generally known as "Mr. Peel's Act," which removed the restriction upon cash payments by the Bank of England, imposed in 1797. This Act was to come into operation 1st May, 1822. The Bank, however, anticipated this period by a year, and payments in gold were resumed in 1821.

In the course of 1822, the ministry of Lord Liverpool was strengthened by the accession of the party of Lord Grenville, Mr. Peel becoming Home Secretary in the place of Lord Sidmouth. The death of Lord Castlereagh (Marquis of Londonderry) led also in the same year to the return to office of Mr. George Canning, who had retired from the ministry in consequence of the course pursued by his colleagues towards the queen. The appointment of this statesman to the office of Foreign Secretary was followed by a greater liberality in our foreign policy, and a more marked dissent from the principles of the Holy Alliance. The independence of the South American States was recognised, and England refused to concour in the measures proposed by foreign powers for the suppression of constitutional principles in the Spanish Peninsula.

To the influence of Mr. Canning, and that of his colleague Mr. Huskisson, may be ascribed the adoption of a more liberal system of internal regulation. Several obsolete commercial statutes were repealed, the duties on silk were reduced, and the chief restrictions on the importation and exportation of wool were removed. By the "Reciprocity of Duties" Bill of Mr. Huskisson the Navigation Act was modified, and the strictness of the laws protecting British shipping was relaxed. To increase the prosperity of the country, and the excessive issue of paper money, led, about this time, to an excess of mercantile speculation which was followed, in 1825, by a commercial and monetary crisis producing wide-spread distress and suffering. This panic led to a modification of the charter of the Bank of England, and to an Act allowing the establishment of Joint Stock Banks within seventy miles of London (1826).

In the year 1827 occurred the termination of the Premiership of Lord Liverpool, and lasted fifteen years, when Mr. Canning succeeded as Prime Minister (12th April). His accession led to the resignation of the Earl of Eldon, the Duke of Wellington, and Mr. Peel, whose sentiments on the question of Roman Catholic Emancipation differed from those of the Premier. A section of

Contemporary Events.

KINGS OF FRANCE.

Louis XVIII. . . . . . died A.D. 1824
Charles X.

EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA.

Francis I.

KING OF SPAIN.

Ferdinand VII.

EMPEROR OF RUSSIA.

Alexander. . . . . . . . . died A.D. 1825
Nicholas I.

KING OF PRUSSIA.

Frederick William III.

Assassination of the Duke de Berry (second son of the Count d'Artois). His Duchess gives birth to a son, the Duke de Bordeaux (1820).

Ferdinand VII. of Spain is forced by the army to promulge the restoration of the Constitution of 1812, and assembles the Cortes (1820).

The Floridas are ceded by Spain to the United States (1820).

A Congress of Sovereigns assembled at Troppau by Prince Metternich is transferred to Lagnieu (1820).

John VI. of Portugal, on his return from Brazil, orders to observe the constitution established during his absence by the Junta of Oporto (1821).

Commencement of the war of Greek independence. A provisional government is established (1821).

The Grand Duke Constantine of Russia renounces his right to the crown in favour of his younger brother Nicholas (1821).

Death of Napoleon Bonaparte at St. Helena (1821).

The Independence of Greece is proclaimed at the congress of Iena (1822).

Separation of Brazil from Portugal. Dom Pedro the son of John VI., is proclaimed Emperor (1822).

Assembly of a congress at Verona (1822).


Surrender of Cadiz. The Constitution is abolished (1823).

Death of John VI. of Portugal. His son Dom Pedro retains Brazil, and gives up Portugal to his daughter Maria (1826).
Principal Events (continued).

1826. Revolt at Bhurtpore suppressed by Lord Combermere.

1827. Mr. G. Canning becomes Prime Minister. Lord Goderich is Secretary for the Colonies. Sir J. Copley (Lord Lyndhurst) is Lord Chancellor. Treaty of London, between Great Britain, France and Austria, for the independence of Greece.

Death of Mr. Canning. Ministry of Lord Goderich.
Battle of Navarino. The Turkish and Egyptian fleets defeated by combined British, French, and Austrian squadrons (20th Oct.).

1828. Resignation of Lord Goderich. The Duke of Wellington becomes Prime Minister. Mr. Peel is Home Secretary, Mr. Goulburn Chancellor of the Exchequer (25th Jan.). Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts (9th May). A motion of Sir F. Burdett on the Catholic claims passes the Commons (8th May), is rejected by the Lords (10th June).

Secession of Mr. Huskisson and Lord Palmerston from the ministry (30th May). Act by which the duties on the importation of corn are regulated by a sliding scale (15th July).

1829. Resolutions for the removal of Catholic Disabilities introduced in the Commons by Mr. Peel (5th March). The Bill passes the second reading by a majority of 563 votes against 173 (18th March), and the third reading by 320 against 142 (30th March). It is introduced into the House of Lords (31st March), and is read a third time by 213 against 104 (10th April). An Act raising the franchise of freeholders in Ireland from forty shillings to ten pounds (13th April). Act of Mr. Peel for improving the police of the Metropolis (19th June).

1830. Meeting of Parliament (4th Feb.).

Observations (continued). The Whigs, headed by the Marquis of Lansdowne, lent their support to the minister, on the ground of their general approval of his policy. The death of Mr. Canning occurred four months after his acceptance of the Premiership (9th Aug., 1827). The ministry, with few changes, was continued under Lord Goderich, but its dissolution from internal dissensions followed in a few months. During its short tenure of office was fought the battle of Navarino, in which the navy of Turkey was destroyed by the allied fleets of England, France and Russia. By this victory, the success of the efforts of the Greeks to effect their liberation from Turkish rule was ultimately secured.

In 1828, the Wellington Cabinet was formed, Mr. Peel holding office as Home Secretary. The following session of parliament was marked by the adoption of the bill of Lord John Russell for the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts (passed in the reign of Charles II). By this measure Dissenters were relieved from their exclusion from municipal offices. The appointment of commissions to enquire into the state of the law resulted from the labours of Mr. Brougham, but the most important measure of the Wellington ministry was that known as the Roman Catholic Emancipation Act.

The statutes imposing severe penalties on the profession of the Roman Catholic religion, which had been passed in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, had been repealed in 1778; but many of the civil disabilities remained. Attempts to effect such changes in the law, as would admit Roman Catholics to public offices and to seats in parliament, had frequently been made, but without success. In 1829 a motion for the removal of Catholic disabilities, introduced by Sir Francis Burdett, was carried in the Commons, but was afterwards rejected by the Lords. Ireland became the scene of widespread agitation. An association called the Catholic Association had been formed, which was chiefly directed by Daniel O'Connell, a barrister of eminence. The proceedings of this Association proved a very powerful embarrassment to the Government. Its influence in controlling the votes of the forty shilling freeholders was shown in the general election of 1826. But a more striking test of its power was afforded by the occasion in the representation for the county of Clare. O'Connell presented himself as a candidate, on the strength of his right to be elected, although unable to take his seat in consequence of the existing law. The measure, by which he was returned by a large majority. To avoid the risks which appeared inevitable if the claims of the Catholics to political equality were any longer resisted, the ministers, hitherto the opponents of change, determined to adopt a policy of concession. At the opening of the Session of 1829 a measure was brought in by Mr. Peel, the object of which was to render Roman Catholics eligible to seats in both Houses of Parliament, and to admit them to all civil franchises and offices, except the offices of Lord Chancellor, and Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. The measure, though vigorously opposed, was carried through both Houses, and became law April 13th, 1829.

The attention of parliament was directed during this reign to the improvement of our police, and to the mitigation of the severity of our penal code. A war occurred in 1824 between England and Burmah, which was terminated two years later by a treaty of peace.

The see of Canterbury was filled during this reign by Drs. Manners Sutton and Legh, and Lord Eton, who retired from office in 1827, was succeeded as Lord Chancellor by Lord Lyndhurst.

Contemporary Events (continued).

Ministry of M. de Villèle in France (1830). Suppression and massacre of the Janissaries at Constantinople (1830). Brirtey is elected President of Peru. Don Miguel, appointed Regent of Portugal, an edition of his observing the quarter (1837), deposes his since Maria of the sovereign power, is proclaimed King (1836), and rules absolutely till 1833. The proposals of the three allied powers for the settlement of Greece are rejected by Sultan Mahmoud (1837). Marnfalein minister in France (1830). War between Russia and Turkey. Russia recognises its conquests (1837). Ferdinand abolishes the Salto law in Spain (1839). Greece is made independent (1830).

Names of Note.


L. W. Herriell, Printer, died A.D. 1836. R. A. F. B. Pembroke, Printer, died A.D. 1836.


Married, Caroline of Brunswick. Issue, Charlotte, married Prince Leopold of Sax Coburg.
34. WILLIAM IV.

Principal Events.

The third, but eldest surviving son of George III., succeeds to the throne, at the age of 65 (26th June).

New Parliament opened by the King (2nd Nov.).

A motion of Sir H. Parnell on the Civil List is carried against Ministers by 233 to 204 (15th Nov.).

Resignation of the Wellington Ministry, and formation of that of Earl Grey (22nd Nov.).

1831. Reform Bill introduced (1st March); passes its second reading by 302 to 301 (22nd March).

The defeat of the Government, on the motion in Committee by General Gagge, is followed by the dissolution of Parliament (22nd April).

A second Parliament assembles (14th June). The Reform Bill a second time introduced (24th June); passes the third reading by 345 to 236 (21st Sept.).

Coronation of the King and Queen (8th Sept.).

The Reform Bill rejected by the Lords (24th Sept.).

Riots and conflagrations in Bristol (29th Sept.).

Prorogation of Parliament (20th Oct.).

Re-assembling of Parliament (6th Dec.).

The Reform Bill is introduced a third time (12th Dec.).

1832. The third reading of the Reform Bill is carried in the Commons by 355 to 239 (23rd March).

The Reform Bill is read a second time in the House of Lords by 184 to 173 (14th April).

Success of Lord Lyndhurst’s motion (7th May).

Resignation (9th May) and return to office of the Ministry of Lord Grey (18th May).

The Reform Bill passes the House of Lords (4th June); receives the royal assent (7th June).

Parliament is dissolved (3rd Dec.).

1833. Meeting of Reformed Parliament (29th Jan.).

Irish Coercion Bill passed (2nd April).

Act for the Reform of the Temporalities of the Irish Church (14th Aug.).

Abolition of Colonies’ Duty (28th Aug.).

Charter of the East India Company renewed.


FREEDOM OF TONGUES

1832. The principle of freedom of the press is established in England by the passing of the Press Bill.

The Reform Bill was a great step forward in the history of democracy in England. It aimed to extend the franchise to all freeholders and to give more representation to the working classes. The Act abolished most of the old rotten boroughs and granted additional seats to populous towns. However, it also maintained the property qualification for franchise in the counties and gave the vote exclusively to those who owned property.

Contemporary Events.

KING OF FRANCE.

Charles X. abdicated A.D. 1830

LOUIS PHILIPPE.

EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA.

FRANZ I. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . A.D. 1835

Ferdinand.

KINGS OF SPAIN.

Ferdinand VII. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . A.D. 1833

Isabella II.

EMPEROR OF RUSSIA.

Nicholas I.

KING OF PORTUGAL.

Frederick William III.

Resignation of the French Chamber of Deputies to the Imperial Ministry. The Chamber is dissolved (1832).

Algiers is taken by the French under Count de Bourmont (1840).

The new French Chamber of Deputies is dissolved before it meets.

Publication of un-constitutional ordinances (9th July), followed by the outbreak of a Reform war in the Barcarons (9th—29th July). Arrestment of Charles X. (2nd Aug.). Louis Philippe is proclaimed King of the French (7th Aug., 1830).

War of Belgian Independence. The Dutch troops are driven from Flanders (8th Aug.). France and England march to support Belgium. Conferences in London (3rd Nov.). The independence of Belgium is recognized (1830).

The Salic Law is abolished in Spain by Ferdinand VII. (1846).

Leopold of Saxe Coburg accepts the Crown of Belgium (1831).

The Emperor of Brazil resigns to Pedro to his son (1831).

Revolutionary movement in Italy suppressed by Austrian troops (1831).

A French army occupies Ancona (1831).

Death of the Duke of Richborough, son of Napoleon and Marie Louise (1831).

The Dutch General Chassé surrenders the citadel of Anwerp to the French under Marshal Gérard (1832).

Othon, son of the King of Bavaria, becomes King of Greece (1831).

KHALIL PASHA of Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt. His son, Ibrahim Paşa, defeats the troops of Sultan Mahmud II. at Konash, and threatens Constantinople (1833).

Poland is incorporated with Russia (1833).
P R I N C I P A L  E V E N T S  ( c o n t i n u e d ) .
1834. Meeting of Parliament (4th Feb.).
Establishment of the Central Criminal Court in London (26th Feb.).
The Quadruple Treaty between England, France, Spain, and Portugal, for the pacification of the two latter kingdoms (22nd April).
Motion of Mr. O'Connell for the Repeal of the Union rejected by 523 to 38 (27th April).
Motion of Mr. Ward for a reduction of the Irish Church Establishment, and the appointment of a Committee of Enquiry, followed by the resignation of Lord Stanley and Sir James Graham (27th May).
Motion for renewal of Irish Coercion Bill (1st July).
Resignation of Earl Grey (9th July).
Lord Melbourne becomes Prime Minister (21st July).
Act for Amendment of the Poor Law (21st July).
The Houses of Parliament burnt (16th Oct.).
Dismissal of Lord Melbourne (14th Nov.).
Sir Robert Peel, Prime Minister (9th Dec.).
Parliament is dissolved (30th Dec.).
1835. Commission to enquire into the dioceses of England and Wales (3rd Feb.).
Fourth Parliament of William IV. meets (9th Feb.).
A motion of Lord J. Russell on the Irish Church carried against Ministers (30th March).
Resignation of the Peel Ministry (8th April).
Lord Melbourne resumes office (18th April).
Reform Act for Municipal Corporations (9th Sept.).
The Irish Tithe Bill, introduced for the fifth time, (1st May) is defeated.
The Princess Victoria attains her legal majority (24th May).

O B S E R V A T I O N S  ( c o n t i n u e d ) .
measure—Fifty-six Boroughs, having less than a population of 2,000 each, and returning 111 members, were totally disfranchised. Thirty Boroughs, having less than a population of 4,000, lost each one member. The seats thus vacant were redistributed in the following manner:—Boroughs containing a population of 22,000, and upwards, were to return two members each; and Boroughs with a population of 12,000, and upwards, were to return one member each. The remaining seats left vacant were distributed among the Counties. The larger Counties were divided into districts, to each of which two members were assigned. Berkshire, and six other counties, were to have three instead of two members. The total number of County representatives was thus raised from 94 to 150. A new Borough franchise was introduced, by which the right of voting was given to 210 householders. In county constituencies, in addition to the 40s. freeholders, three new classes of voters were introduced:—1. Copyholders of £10 a year. 2. Leaseholders for a term of sixty years of £10 a year, or £50 for twenty years. 3. Tenants at will, paying a yearly rent of £50. Similar Bills for Scotland and Ireland were passed in July. Scotland now obtained 53 members, and Ireland 106, the total number of 558 being preserved.
In the first reformed Parliament several important measures were carried. An Act to amend the Temporalities of the Irish Church was passed. By this measure the number of Bishops was reduced from twenty-two to twelve. The East India trade was thrown open, and an Act for the Abolition of Colonial slavery was passed. A sum of twenty millions was voted as compensation to the West India proprietors.
In the following session the ministry was weakened by the accession of Lord Stanley and Sir James Graham. These ministers refused to consent to the appropriation of the surplus Church property to educational uses. A few months later, owing to divisions in the Cabinet on the Irish Coercion Bill, Lord Grey resigned. Lord Melbourne now became Prime Minister, and, during his last period of office, the abolition of the Poor Laws was passed. In the following October, Lord Althorp, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, had to resign his post on his elevation to the Upper House. The King, in consultation with the Government on the subject of the Irish Church, took this opportunity of dismissing the Melbourne Cabinet.
Sir R. Peel became Premier, and Parliament was dissolved. Although the Tories, now called Conservatives, received an accession of strength in the new Parliament, yet the Ministry was still in a minority, and, after several successive defeats, Sir. R. Peel resigned. Lord Melbourne was now recalled to office. The attention of Parliament during the remainder of the Session was directed to the reform of Municipal Corporations. The Ministers found themselves unable to carry the Irish Tithe Bill, as the Lords refused to agree to the Appropriation Clauses which it contained. Among the measures passed in the following Session were the abolition of the Act by which Dissenters were relieved from the necessity of being married according to the rites of the English Church; an Act establishing a general registration of births, deaths, and marriages; and an Act for commuting the payment of tithes in kind for an annual rent-charge. Presbyterians were now allowed of being buried by church, and the "Ecclesiastical Commission" was appointed, empowered to effect a new distribution of the seats and incomes of the English Bishops.

C O N T E M P O R A R Y  E V E N T S  ( c o n t i n u e d ) .
Don Pedro takes the Oaths (July 6, 1832).
The fleet of Don Miguel is defeated and captured by the squadron of Don Maria, under Admiral Sabad (July 5, 1832).
On the death of Ferdinand VII., the claims of his daughter, Isabella II., are disputed by her uncle, Don Carlos (1833).
Donna Maria of Portugal lands at Lisbon (Sept. 27, 1832).
Don Miguel establishes himself at Evora, and leaves Portugal (May 30, 1834).
Don Pedro restores the monarchy (Sept. 15), and dies (Sept. 34). Don Miguel survives to Nov. 14, 1866.
Hostilities between the French and Abd el Kader in Algeria (1835).
Attempted insurrection of Prince Louis Napoleon at Strasbourg (1836).
The partitions of Don Carlos are defeated at Hornati and St. Sebastian by the British auxiliary force under General Evans (1836).

N A M E S  O F  N O T E .
Bolivar, General . . . dead A.D. 1830
Mrs. Blackwood, Stadthet . . . 1830
Mrs. Siddons, Actress . . . 1831
John Abernethy, Physician . . . 1832
T. Hope, Novelist . . . 1824
H. Mackenzie, Novelist . . . 1831
Sir Walter Scott . . . 1822
Sir J. Mackintosh, Historian . . . 1839
Goethe, Poet . . . 1837
Cuvier, Naturalist . . . 1822
d'Albert, Poet . . . 1825
George Crabbe, Poet . . . 1827
Jeremy Bentham . . . 1832
William Wilberforce, Poet . . . 1833
Scottish . . . 1825
S. T. Coleridge . . . 1824
Charles Lamb, Essayist . . . 1834
Bourneville, Bunsen . . . 1837
J. Thelwall, Poet . . . 1834
Bennetfield, Inventor of Lithography . . . 1834
Edward Irving . . . 1834
A. Chalmers, Lector . . . 1834
Smith . . . 1834
Rev. T. K. Mathew, Evangelist . . . 1834
Wilhelm von Humboldt . . . 1834
Mrs. Hemans, Poetess . . . 1835
William Cobden . . . 1836
James Hogg, Poet . . . 1836
Davenport, Surgeon . . . 1836
Lord Noel, Judge . . . 1836
W. Godwin, Novelist . . . 1836
J. Colman, Poet . . . 1836
E. Coke, Historian . . . 1835
J. S. Mill, Philosopher . . . 1836
The Abdib Sis . . . 1836
J. L. Mac Adam . . . 1836
Sir John Murray, Archt. . . . 1836
A. Puchtingh, Basnose Poet . . . 1837

M a r r i e d ,  A d e l a i d e  L o u i s a  o f  S a x e  M i n s h i n g .
35. VICTORIA.

Principal Events.

The only daughter of Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III., succeeds to the throne at the age of 18 (20th June).

Commutation of Tithes in England (13th July).

Capital punishment for Forgery and Arson abolished (17th July).

Parliament is dissolved (17th July).

The First Parliament of this reign (the 13th of the United Kingdom) meets (15th Nov.).

Insurrection in Lower Canada (14th Dec.).

The Civil List settled at £385,000 (23rd Dec.).

Quakers, etc., relieved from oaths (23rd Dec.).

1838. Lord Durham is sent to Canada (Jan.).

The Canadian Rebellion is subdued (April).

Poor Law Act for Ireland (31st July).

International Copyright Act (31st July).

Slavery abolished in the Colonies (1st Aug.).

Irish Tithe Composition Act (16th Aug.).

Arrest for Debt on Mauns Process abolished.

Lower Canada Indemnity Act (16th Aug.).

Proclamation against Chartist riots (12th Dec.).

Resignation of Lord Durham (9th Oct.).

The Anti-Corn-Law League is formed (Sept.).

British Troops enter Afghanistan (Oct.—Nov.).

Proclamation against Chartist riots (12th Dec.).

Opening of Parliament (5th Feb.).

Difference with China about opium (15th April).

Appointment of Committee of the Privy Council for Education (12th Feb.).

The Melbourne Ministry resign and return to office (May 7th—14th).

Chartist Riots at Birmingham (15th July).

Capture of Ghuznee (20th July), flight of Dost Mohammed, and restoration of Shah Soojah.

The British army enters Kabul (5th—7th Aug.).

Act for a uniform Penny Postage (17th Aug.).

Proclamation of Parliament (27th Aug.).

Chartist Insurrection at Newport (4th Nov.).

Accession A.D. 1837.

Obsequies.

The young Princess, who had attained her legal majority within a month before her accession, was proclaimed on the 21st June. The crown of Hanover devolved, through the operation of the treaty of Vienna, upon her uncle, Ernest Augustus, Duke of Cumberland. The reign of a youthful queen was fitly inaugurated by her assent to several bills for the mitigation of the penal laws, and to other important measures matured under her predecessor.

Rebellion in Canada.

At the opening of her first parliament, the Queen had to notice the disaffection of Lower Canada. On the day before the Christmas adjournment, news arrived that insurrection had broken out. Lord Durham was sent out as Lord High Commissioner, under a special Act for the government of the province, and with powers to frame a scheme for the union of the Canadas. His deportation of certain rebel leaders to the Bahamas was attacked by Lord Brougham as illegal, and the consent of ministers to an Act of Indemnity led to Lord Durham’s resignation. His successor, Sir John Colborne (Lord Seaton), quelled a new outbreak in both provinces; and Lord Durham’s plan for “a legislative union of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, on the principles of free and representative government,” was at length carried into effect in 1840.

War in Syria.

These troubles in the West were succeeded by three wars in the East. Those in Afghanistan and China will be best noticed at their conclusion; that in Syria began last and ended first. The viceroy, Mehemet Ali, who had established his power in Egypt by the massacre of the Mamelukes in 1811, had received to be independent of the Sultan, if not overthrown. The war for the possession of Syria, to which Russia had put a stop in 1833, was renewed in 1839; and the victory of Ibrahim Pasha at Nazih (5th June) was followed by the desertion of the Turkish Fleet to Mehemet Ali (4th July). At this crisis the great Sultan, Mahmoud II., died, and his son, Abd-ul-Mejid, a youth of sixteen, offered Mehemet Ali the hereditary vice-royalty of Egypt. The reply was a clear one, like the precedent of the times of the sultans. The five great European Powers interposed; but their concert was disturbed by the accession of France. The vigorous policy of Lord Palmerston led the other four Powers to disapprove her reluctance, and to sign a treaty for preserving the integrity of the Ottoman Empire. A brief naval campaign on the Syrian coast, under Admiral Stopford and Commodore Napier, drove Ibrahim Pasha (the son of Mehemet) out of Syria, and enforced the Viceroy’s consent to the Sultan’s offer. France showed deep resentment; but Louis Philippe refused to adopt the warlike speech drawn up by M. Thiers, and the accession to power of M. Guizot was followed by the “entente cordiale” of France and England (Oct., 1840).

Chartist, Reform, and Anti-Corn Law Agitations.

Meanwhile difficulties thickened at home. The fervour of Reform had been succeeded by a Conservative re-action on the one hand, and by a loud demand for further changes on the other; and a ministry, which had little strength but in the royal favour, strove in vain to go on in the quiet course of gradual improvement. Their alliance with Mr. O’Connell, who now began to raise the cry for “Referendum,” was bitterly resented; and, though they succeeded in passing

Contemporary Events.

FRANCE.

Louis Philippe — abdicated A.D. 1848.

Republic — Provisional Government.

Louis Napoleon, President at 1848—1852.

Napoleon III.— Emperor; deposed 1870.

SPAIN.

Isabella II. — deposed A.D. 1868.

Provincial Government.

EMPERORS OF AUSTRIA.

Ferdinand I. — died A.D. 1828.

FRITSCH.

Nicholas I. — died A.D. 1855.

Alexander II.

KING OF PRUSSIA.

Frederick William III. — died A.D. 1840.

Frederick William IV.

A Poor Law and a Tithe Commutation Act for Ireland, they were discredited by the enforced surrender of the “Appropriation Clause,” which had borne them back to office. The wars in Canada and the East involved new expenses, just when a series of bad harvests told against the revenue; and the distress of the people’s suffering, which were then regarded as democratic.

The autumn of 1838 saw the birth of the Anti-Corn Law League and the meeting of a great “National Convention” to demand the free points of the “People’s Charter,” viz.—Universal Suffrage, Vote by Ballot, Annual Parliaments, the Payment of Members, and the Abolition of the Property Qualification for Seats in Parliament. To these were soon added a sixth point—Equal Electoral Districts.

In the session of 1839, repeated motions were made against the Corn Laws and for a further reform of Parliament. The tottering Government resigned, after a virtual defeat on their Jamaica Bill; but the Queen resisted Sir Robert Peel’s claim to remove the Ladies of the Bedchamber, and the Melbourne Ministry signalized their return to office by passing Sir Rowland Hill’s scheme for a Uniform Penny Post, which came into full operation on the 6th May, 1840. This session was also marked by the institution of the “Committee of the Privy Council for Education.” In direct proportion to what was expected, this bill was the growth of social and political disturbance. On the 6th July, Birmingaham was the scene of a riot, which the Duke of Wellington compared to the sack of Badajos, and the army was forthwith increased. On a stormy November night, John Frost, a magistrate, led an armed band to attack Newport, in Monmouthshire, for which he and two others were sentenced to death; but they were transported and afterwards pardoned (in 1846).

The opening of the year 1840 was brightened by the Queen’s marriage—happily alike for herself and her people—to her cousin, the Prince Francis Augustus Charles Emanuel, of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, who was afterwards raised to the style of Prince Consort (26th June, 1840). Besides the Union of England and Ireland by the only importunate terms of which there were the Reform of Municipal Corporations in England, the Improvement of Grammar Schools, and the settlement of the long-voiced question of the Privileges of Parliament (arising out of an action against Mr. Hansard), by an Act protecting the printers of the papers of either House from suit for libel.

The state of the finances had now become alarming, while the growth of distress and agitation called for some decision on the questions of the Corn Laws and the Free Trade. The ministry proposed a revision of the Sugar and other Duties in the direction of Free Trade, and what was then called a moderate fixed duty on corn (8s. per quarter on wheat, and in like proportion on other grain). The trial of strength took place on the Sugar Duties, and, after an eight nights’ debate, ministers were left in a minority. April 36 (18th May, 1841), a fortnight later, Sir Robert Peel carried a vote of want of confidence by a majority of 1, which was increased to 91 as the result of the new elections; and Lord Melbourne yielded up the Premiership to the great Commoner who had patiently re-organized the Conservative party.

SIR R. PEELE’S MINISTRY.

Sir Robert Peel now entered on that five years’ administration, which placed him for a time as the master of England. Time had matured his measures and the reform of the Tariff (11th March). The Acts passed (22nd June and 9th July).

OBSERVATIONS (continued).

Principal Events (continued).—General, Queen Isabella is proclaimed of age by the Cortes (1845).

The French, under Prince de Joinville, bombarded Tanger and Mogador, Peace is afterwards concluded between France and Morocco (1844).

Return of Queen Christina to Madrid. Unsuccessful revolt of Turquie.

The French in Algeria are haraessed by Abdir-Rahbar, chief of the province of Mascara (1843).

Don Carlos resigns his pretensions to the crown of Spain in favour of his son, the Count de Montemor (1840).

Florida is added to the United States.

The Oregon territory is claimed by President Polk (1843).

War between the United States and Mexico, in consequence of the proposed annexation of Texas to the Union (1845).

Unsuccessful attempts to assassinate the King of the French at Fontainebleau and at the Tuileries (1848).

Death of Louis Bonaparte, formerly King of Holland, at Florence (1848).

Escape of Prince Louis Napoleon from the fortress of Ham (1840).

Queen Isabella of Spain marries her cousin Francisco d’Paola, Duke of Calabria, nephew of Ferdinand VII. Marriage of the Infanta, sister of the Queen, with the Duke de Montpensier (1846).

Annexation of Cracow to Austria. England and France protest (1846).

Death of Pope Pius IX. Cardinal Marfil Ferreri elected Pope; he takes the name of Pius X. (1846).

Schleswig and Holstein incorporated with Denmark (1848).

The Mexicans are defeated by General Taylor, near Maramons (1846).

Texas, Wisconsin, and Iowa are admitted to the Union (1845).

Resignation of Marshal Boulh, Ministry of M. Guizot in France (1847).

Ahd-al-Kader is forced to surrender; he is sent to France, and is imprisoned on the coast of Ambrosio, near Trouville. (1845).

Ministerial crisis in S.ain. Local of Kepart.(1847).

Termination of hostilities in Algeria. Appointment of the Duke d’Aumale as Governor (1847).

Civil war in Portugal (1847).

Dissensions between the Carabille and Protestant Carbons terminate the submission of the former to the latter; the former are dissolved. The Jesuits are expelled (1847).

Representative Government is established in Paraguay (1847).

Liberal measures of Charles Albert in Piedmont (1847).

Ferrara is occupied by Austrian troops (1847).

Death of Maria Luisa, widow of Napoleon (1847).
PRINCIPAL EVENTS (continued).
Mr. Duncombe presents a petition for the six points of the People's Charter with 3,500,000 signatures (2nd May).
The Fleet and Marshalsea Prisons abolished (31st May).
Act for extension of Copyright (1st July).
Act for the Protection of Her Majesty's person (16th July).
Lord Ashley's Mines and Collieries Act (10th Aug.).
Prorogation of Parliament (12th Aug.).
Change of Ministry, and full establishment of Constitutional Government, in Canada (Sept.).
The Ashburton Treaty with America (5th Sept.).
Cabul captured and evacuated (Sept.—Oct.).
1843. Opening of Parliament (2nd Feb.).
Battle of Meesean (17th Feb.): capture of Hyderabad by Sir Charles Napier (20th). Scinde is annexed.
The "Rebecca" riots against turnpikes in Wales (Feb.).
The Anti-Corn-Law League begins weekly meetings in Drury Lane Theatre (15th March).
The first "monster meeting" for Repeal held on the Curragh of Kildare (7th May).
Great secession from the Kirk of Scotland : origin of the "Free Church" (18th May).
Great Repeal Meeting on the Hill of Tara (22nd Aug.).
Irish Arms Bill passed (22nd Aug.).
Extradition Treaties with France and America legalised (22nd Aug.).
Prorogation of Parliament (24th Aug.).
A Repeal Meeting at Clontarf forbidden (7th Oct.).
War in Gwalior. The Maharattas are defeated at Maharajpoor and at Punnirer (23rd Dec.).
1844. Meeting of Parliament (1st Feb.).
Conviction of O'Connell and others (12th Feb.), quashed by the House of Lords (4th Sept.).
Customs' Act passed (6th June).
Dissenters' Chapels Act (19th July).
Prorogation of Parliament (5th Sept.).
King Louis-Philippe visits the Queen (7th Oct.).
in parliament. Sir Robert's "Corn Importation Act," preserving but simplifying the sliding scale, and lowering its "pivot price," only postponed for four years the settlement of the great contest between Protection and Free Trade; but his financial measures began a new and permanent policy.
The bold proposal, now first made in time of peace, of a Property and Income Tax of 7d. in the pound, for three years at least, not only filled up the gulf in the public revenue, but left a surplus, on which Sir Robert based a reform of the tariff, embracing a large reduction of customs' duties, and making those on the raw materials of manufactures little more than nominal. He defeated Lord John Russell's opposition to the Income Tax by 288 votes to 191 (18th April).
At this time there seemed to be a contagious mania prompting to attempts (real or pretended) on the Queen's life. Oxford, the first culprit, was consigned, as "a moral lunatic," to Bedlam (whence he was released after twenty-six years). The sentence of hanging and quartering passed on the second, Francis (in 1845), was commuted to transportation for life; and, on the following day, a deformed youth, named Bean, was seized in the act of presenting a pistol, charged with powder only, at the Queen, and was sentenced to eighteen months' imprisonment for misdemeanour. An Act awarding corporal punishment for such offences has proved effectual, without needing to be put in force.
Meanwhile a state of unexampled distress throughout the country added force to a two-fold agitation for the Repeal of the Corn Laws and for the "People's Charter." For the former, funds were collected and information spread by great meetings and bazaars; delegates assembled in London, and ministers were plied with deputations: while the "Charter" gave birth to "Monster" petitions, and motions in parliament by a small but resolute minority. At length the autumn of 1842 brought the blessing of a bountiful harvest—the first for several years—and with it the news that the tedious campaign in China was ended, and that the disasters of our Indian army in Afghanistan had been heroically redeemed.
CHINESE AND AFGHAN WARS.
The War in China took its origin from the resolution of the authorities at Canton to resist the importation of the drug which demoralised the Chinese and maintained our Indian revenue. The seizure and destruction of all the opium on the premises of the Lee Lin (Mo-Che-E-June, 1839) led to the cessation of our trade at Canton, the blockade of the river, and the capture of the islands of Hong-Kong and Chusan by the British fleet. After long fruitless negotiations and irregular hostilities, a naval squadron arrived under Sir Hugh (afterwards Lord) Gough (March 1st, 1840); and the ensuing operations resulted in the ransom of the city for 6,000,000 dollars. But it was not till the British forces had penetrated far into China by the great Kiang River, and prepared to assault Nanking, that the Chinese gave their servants full powers to make terms with our plenipotentiary, Sir Henry Pottinger. By the Peace of Nanking (29th Aug., 1842), the five ports of Canton, Amoy, Foo-choo-foo, Shanghai, and Ningpo were opened to all nations; the island of Hong-Kong was ceded to Britain; $21,000,000 dollars were to be paid within four years; and the pride of Chinese officials had to submit to intercourse with our own on equal terms. Thus ended the first Chinese War.
CONTEMPORARY EVENTS (continued).
The Mexicans are defeated by Generals Scott and Taylor. The city of Mexico is taken (28th Sept., 1847).
Discovery of gold in California (1848). The war with Mexico is concluded between the United States and Mexico (2nd Feb., 1848).
Constitutions are granted to Argentina and Sicily (1848).
Conservative Government is established by the King of Sardinia (1848).
The Diet of Frankfurt proposes the assembly of a German Parliament (11th March), which meets at Frankfort (15th March), and elects as Vicear of the Empire John, Archbishop of Austria (5th July, 1848).
Popular excitement at Aschaffenburg (21st May). Riots in Berne (5th May). Riots in Zurich (5th June) and Basel (28th June). The Swiss attempt to free themselves from Austria (17th—23rd March).
Invasion of Belgium. The French attack the Dutch frontier (20th May). The French attack Belgium (22nd May). The Netherlands are invaded (27th May). The Dutch are defeated at Dierkens (1st June).
Schleswig and Holstein assert their rights as members of the German Empire. They proclaim their independence at Kiel (26th March). Prussia supports their claim. Sweden and Russia support Denmark. Prussian and Hanoverian troops occupy Schleswig (31st March) and take Alburg (5th April). The German troops are blockaded. The Prussians are driven back to Grevenstein (24th May). The Danes are defeated at Dissingen (3rd June). The Emperor is crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle (18th June) as King of Great Britain. An armistice is concluded at Halden (9th Aug., 1848).
The National Assembly was dissolved (4th May). The Communities invade the Hall of Assembly, and arrest the National Government. The Communists at Brussels are arrested (14th May). Election of Louis-Philippe.
1845—1846—VICTORIA—continued.

**Principal Events (continued).**


Trade, Customs, and Navigation Acts (4th Aug.). Parliament prorogued (9th Aug.). Reaction from the Railway Mania; and symptoms of a monetary panic (Oct.).

The potato crop fails: corn rises rapidly. Great excitement about the Corn Law (Oct.).

The "Times" announces the intention of Ministers to abolish the Corn Law (4th Dec.).

The Sikhs cross the Sutlej. They are defeated at Moodkee (18th Dec.), Ferozeshah (21st & 22nd Dec.), Alivaw (28th Jan., 1846), and Sobraon (10th Feb., 1846).

Opening of Parliament (22nd Jan.). Peace of Lahore with the Sikhs (9th March). Ireland is in a state of famine. The Public Works and Fever Bills passed. The ports opened for Indian corn, etc. (March). Provision Riots (April).

Treaty with America on the Oregon boundary (12th June).

Passing of the Corn Importation and Customs' Duties Bills (26th June).

Ministers are defeated in the Commons on the Irish Coercion Bill by 292 to 219 (26th June). Resignation of Lord Robert Peel (26th June).

**Lord John Russell** becomes Premier (6th July).

The "Young Ireland" party, under Mr. W. Smith O'Brien, secedes from Mr. O'Connell (28th July).

Prorogation of Parliament (28th Aug.).

Second failure of the potato crop in Ireland.

Famine in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland. Labuan added to the British Empire (18th Dec.). Charter granted to New Zealand (29th Dec.).

**Observations (continued).**

In the summer, the army under Sir John Keane occupied Kandahar, stormed the strong fortress of Ghirnese, forced the Khvber Pass, and entered Cabul with Shah Soojah. Dost Mohammed, who had fled, was beaten in the field in October, 1840, and surrendered. But the small British force remained cantoned near Cabul till November, 1841; when, through a conspiracy made by Akbar Khan, the son of Dost Mohammed, our envoy, Sir Alexander Burnes and Sir William Macnaghten, were murdered, and our troops, retreating from Cabul under a capitulation, were cut to pieces in the Khvber Pass, Dr. Brydome alone escaping to tell the tale (Jan., 1842). Ghirnese was evacuated in March; but General Nott held out at Candahar, and Sir Robert Sale at Jellalabad, where he was joined by 8,000 troops under General Pollock, who had forced the Khvber Pass (4th April, 1842). In September, General Nott advanced from Candahar and retook Ghirnese, while Pollock forced the pass between Jellalabad and Cabul, where the British flag was again hoisted (15th Sept.). Lady Sale, and the other hostages given to Akbar Khan, were restored on the 21st, and the victorious British army retired, after destroying the fortifications of Cabul (12th Oct., 1842).

At the same time the Canadian Parliament proved the reality of their new constitution by calling to office several of the popular leaders, both French and British; and Lord Ashburton put an end to various causes of dispute with the United States by a treaty settling the boundary on the side of Maine, and providing for the extradition of criminals, and the suppression of the slave trade. Restored peace and plenty bore their natural fruit; there was a great fall in the prices of corn and cattle, and the funds reached the highest price known for many years.

But the new year (1843) brought new cares. Those who saw in our retirement from Cabul the end of annexation in India were startled by Sir Charles Napier's conquest of Scinde, after a victory gained against odds like those at Plassey and Assaye. In the following spring, the sultan of Oudh, on a technical point, after the traversers had suffered some months' imprisonment, Mr. O'Connell never regained his former influence; his health failed, and he only lived long enough to see his doctrines converted from "liberty" into the fecund, but far weaker agitators of "Young Ireland." Meanwhile Sir Robert Peel sought at once to conciliate the Catholics of Ireland, and to create a moral bond of union, by a more permanent endowment of the Colleges of Maynooth, and by the provision of an ecclesiastical education in the Queen's College and University. The wickedly absurd tradition of "natural enmity" between England and France envenomed for a moment the just offence given by the conduct of the French admiral who recaptured Tabiti and the island of Maiou; but the terms of peace were obtained, and concord was sealed by the mutual visits of Louis Philippe and Victoria. Sir Robert Peel's commercial reforms were rewarded with a surplus which enabled him to make further reductions of customs and excise duties; and his Bank Charter Act of 1844 confirmed the principle, which he had established in 1819, of a currency always convertible into gold. The suspensions of this Act, in the panics of 1847, 1857, and 1866, were but momentary, and in only one of these cases was the permission to make a larger issue of notes really useful.

**Contemporary Events (continued).**

Napoleon as a Deputy (4th June). General intoxication in Paris (32nd-9th June). Barricades are erected. The Minister of Paris is killed. General Cavaignac is appointed President. The National Assembly is placed under martial law (1843).

Disturbances at Berlin (14th June). The National Assembly is removed to Brandenburg. Berlin is placed in a state of siege. Political meetings are suppressed. The Burger Guard is disarmed. A constitution is granted to France (1848).

The Sicilians offer the crown to the Duke of Genoa (11th July). Napoleon takes Marseilles (7th Sept., 1848).

Davide Pasha succeeded Mahomed Ali as Viceroy of Egypt (1st Sept.); dies (10th Nov.); and is succeeded by his nephew, Abbas Pasha (1848).


Discontent in Hungary. Count Lamberg is killed. Kounst is invested by the Hungarian Diet with the powers of Lector (8th Sept.). The Hungarian army is commanded by Klapka, Georgi, Des, and Lembinksi (1848).

Invasion in Vienna; Count Lator is murdered (4th Oct.). The Emperor retires to the capital (7th Oct.). Jellachich, Prince of Croatia, and Prince Wulffen become Vintza (8th Oct.). Cession of the insular (5th Oct.). The Euphrates is annexed to the empire; his name to his nephew, Francis Joseph (10th Dec.). The Hungarian refuse to accept his resignation (11-12).

Invasion at Rome. Count Ross is assassinated (14th Nov.). The Pope retires to Gaeta (4th Nov., 1848).

Louis Napoleon is elected President of the French Republic by a majority of 6,000,000 votes (26th Dec.). The period of office is fixed for four years (1848).

The Austrians become Commune (2nd Jan., 1849). Kounst returns to Vienna (26th Jan.). The Hungarians under Iam are victorious at Eszelpoll (1st Jan.); are defeated (4th Feb.); are successful at Gombosi (4th April); and at Grad (30th April). A Russian army cooperates with the Austrians. Peace is re-negotiated by the Hungarians (30th May). The Austrians under Hayman occupy Rak (18th June); are victorious at Sentocl (23rd July). Kounst is deputed of his authority by General Gneisenau (24th July); but losses are gravely obtained, and concord was sealed by the mutual visits of Louis Philippe and Victoria. Sir Robert Peel's commercial reforms were rewarded with a surplus which enabled him to make further reductions of customs and excise duties; and his Bank Charter Act of 1844 confirmed the principle, which he had established in 1819, of a currency always convertible into gold. The suspensions of this Act, in the panics of 1847, 1857, and 1866, were but momentary, and in only one of these cases was the permission to make a larger issue of notes really useful.
1847–1849.—VICTORIA—continued.

Principal Events (continued).


Maximum pressure of the Irish famine: the daily rations exceed 3,000,000.


Observations (continued).

Repeal of the Corn Laws.

In 1845, Sir Robert, shewing, as the fruit of his legislation, a surplus of £3,409,000, obtained the renewal of the Income Tax for three years more, as the most effective means of repressing speculation, involving the abandonment of all protective duties, and the abolition of all taxes on the necessary life, or on the raw materials of manufactures. And now a mighty force than human policy abolished the one glaring exception, and crowned the work of the Anti-Corn Law League. A strange disease destroyed the potato crop in Ireland as well as England; and, with a rapid rise in the price of corn, came the signs of a panic, in re-action from a mania for speculating in the shares of new railways. Sir Robert Peel, being now convinced that the Corn Law must be repealed, thought it due to his party to resign, and leave the measure to be carried by Lord John Russell, who had declared for total repeal as recently as 26th November. Lord John failed to form a ministry; and Sir Robert Peel returned to office, but with Mr. Gladstone in the place of Lord Stanley, who now became the leader of the new “Protectionist” party. The crisis was marked by immense meetings of the “Anti-Corn Law League” on the one side, and of the “Society for the Protection of Agriculture” on the other.

During the recess, war was renewed in India. The Sikh warriors, disappointed since the death of Ranjeet Singh, poured their cavalry across the Sutlej, but were defeated by Lord Gough and the Governor General (Lord Hardinge) at Moodkee and Ferozeshah (18th, 21st, and 22nd Dec.), and by Sir H. Smith at Aliwal (20th Jan.). After the decisive victory of Sobraon (10th Feb.), the Maharajah submitted, and peace was signed at Lahore (9th March). At home, meanwhile, the bloodless campaign in Parliament was fought with almost equal animosity; and Lord George Bentinck and Mr. Disraeli, the new leaders of the Protectionists, succeeded, emveloper the contest by personal charges and invectives against Sir Robert Peel, who had, from the first, counted the cost of carrying his measures. The scarcity in Ireland, now growing into famine, bore its natural fruit in sedition in that unhappy country; and the proposal of another “Coercion Bill” raised the issue on which the Whigs and Protectionists united to defeat Sir Robert on the morning of the very day on which his Corn Law Repeal Bill received the royal assent. He took his last leave of office with a cordial tribute to Richard Cobden, as the true author of the measure; of his own part in which he prophetically said, “It may be that I shall leave a name sometimes remembered with expressions of good will in the abodes of those whose lot it is to labour and to earn their daily bread by the sweat of their brow, when they shall recruit their exhausted strength with abundant and untaxed food—the sweeter because it is no longer leavened with the sense of injustice.” For the five remaining years of his life he gave a general support to the avowed government of Lord John Russell, and steadily resisted every temptation to propagate by their weakness by becoming a candidate for office.

Ministry of Lord John Russell.

The new Government extended Sir Robert’s commercial policy to sugar, in face of a protest against admitting slave-grown produce; but their chief attention was claimed by the terrible famine in Ireland and the Scotch Highlanders, for the relief of which parliament voted £10,000,000, in addition to immense private contributions. Then followed that tide of emigration which has been called the “Irish Exodus,” and which, in five years, carried off a million and a quarter of the Celic population, chiefly to the United States.

Contemporary Events (continued). The protection of Turkey. Russia accepts the proposals of the Sultan (11th Dec., 1846). Christians are admitted to office by a firm of the Sultan (10th Jan., 1848). The flight of the Greek Emperor to the island of Tuscany (7th Feb.). A Provisional Government is established (8th Feb.); Lord Grey is restored (9th Feb.). A Republic is proclaimed at Athens (10th Feb.). A Tríunvirat, with Mavromítis at its head, is appointed (26th Feb.). Stone stable becomes the object of the insurgents at Rome. An expedition to Rome is voted by the French National Assembly. General Guizot takes the command; embarks at Marseille (17th Apr.); arrives at Corfú (25th Apr.); fails in an attempt upon Rome (20th Apr.); concludes an armistice (17th May). The Neapolitans are defeated by Garibaldi (9th May). Honours are renewed by the French (2nd June), Rome capitulates (26th June). The Tríunvirat is suppressed (1st July). The Papal government is re-established (1849). The English and French admirals mediate between the Sicilians and the King of Naples (6th March). The former reject the terms offered by the King (11th March). The Neapolitans, under General Felinandri, besiege Palermo (9th March). The city surrenders (16th May, 1849). Political clubs in France are abolished by the National Assembly (30th March, 1849). Honours are the means of a dueling attack against Austria. Charles Albert is defeated by Marshal Radetzky at Novara (23rd March). He retires in favour of his son, Victor Emmanuel, and the Austrians occupy Piedmont (27th May; peace is concluded between Austria and France at Ligny (8th Aug.), and with Austria at Milan (6th Aug., 149). Venice is blockaded by the Austrians (17th April), Proclamation of annexation by Austria, Parade Radetzky (18th Aug.). Submission of Venice, after a siege of five months (3rd Aug., 1849). The Austrian army进驻 the Regency of Germany (8th Dec., 1849). Return of the Pope 12th, procession to Rome (18th April, 1850). Hostilities cease in Schleswig and Holstein. The Danish fleet is defeated in the harbour of Eckernförd (5th April). The Danish lines of defence are forced (8th April). Kolding is taken (18th Apr.). The French are repelled at Augustenborg (18th May, 1850). A separate peace is concluded between Prussia and Denmark (2nd July). The Holsteiners occupy Schleswig (12th July). The Danes are victorious at Hestert (8th July). A Treaty for the settlement of the Schleswig Holstein question is concluded at London between Great Britain, France, Russia, Denmark, and Prussia (14th July and Aug.). The Danish army enters Tönning (10th Aug.). The Legislative Assembly of
Principal Events (continued).

1850. Opening of Parliament (31st Jan.).
Repeal of the Excise Duty on Bricks (16th April).
Great debates on the Greek question. Lord Palmerston's foreign policy condemned by 169 to 132 in the Lords (17th June), but approved by 310 to 264 in the Commons (28th June).

Death of Sir Robert Peel (2nd July).

Prorogation of Parliament (15th Aug.).

1851. Meeting of Parliament (4th Feb.).

The Queen opens the Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations in Hyde Park (1st May).

Large quantities of gold discovered in Australia.

The Window Tax is repealed, and a House-duty substituted (24th July).

The Ecclesiastical Titles Act (1st Aug.).

Act to reform the appellate jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery and the Privy Council (7th Aug.).

Act enabling suitors to give evidence (7th Aug.).

Parliament is prorogued (8th Aug.).

A new Burmese war begins: a British naval force arrives before Rangoon (29th Oct.).

Dismissal of Lord Palmerston (22nd Dec.).

1852. Parliament meets (2nd Feb.).

On Lord John Russell's proposal to raise a local militia, Lord Palmerston's amendment, to make the force general, is carried by 136 to 125 (Feb. 20); upon which Ministers resign.

The Earl of Derby becomes Premier, with Mr. Disraeli as Chancellor of the Exchequer (27th Feb.).

Parliament prorogued and dissolved (1st July).

Death of the Duke of Wellington, aged 83 (14th Sept.): he is buried at St. Paul's (18th Nov.).

The Queen's Fourth Parliament (the sixteenth of the United Kingdom) meets (4th June).

Great debate, resulting in a final decision in favour of free trade by 468 against 53 (26th Nov.).

The decisive debate on Mr. Disraeli's budget ends in the defeat of Government by 305 to 286; on which Lord Derby resigns (17th Dec.).

End of Burmese war, annexation of Pegu (20th Dec.).

The Earl of Aberglen Prime Minister (28th Dec.).

Observations (continued).

The general election of 1847 had returned a Parliament in which the ministerial majority barely exceeded the two sections of the disunited Conservative party; and the sudden outbreak of revolution in France and throughout Europe called for watchfulness against Chartist and Irish malcontents. The former were put down by a quiet demonstration of civil force, with military power masked in the background, in London, on the 10th of April, 1848, and by the conviction of some ringleaders for sedition; but in Ireland, the new party, which had embittered O'Connell's last days by rejecting his counsels of 'moral force,' proceeded from loud defiance to open rebellion. The ignominious end of the outbreak under the leadership of Mr. Smith O'Brien, M.P., the continued emigration, and the infusion of a new body of capitalists and tenants by the sale of encumbered estates under an Act of Parliament, seemed for a time to be a new era of prosperity for Ireland; while the finding of gold in California, soon to be followed by similar discoveries in Australia, came to aid the free trade policy, and to supply the medium for effecting unexampled material improvements.

The new year found England engaged in another Indian war, which resulted in the annexation of the Punjab. The public mind was further occupied by the suppression of the European revolutions, the recovery from distress at home, and a terrible plague of cholera, of which 14,497 persons died in London only; and the solitary achievement of the session of 1849 was the Repeal of the Navigation Laws. The two following sessions were marked by the last efforts of the Protectionists to reverse the policy of Sir Robert Peel, and by the growth of a new demand for political and financial administrative reform. The Pope's creation of a new hierarchy in England, gave the Government an apparent chance of revising its inquisition by an Act of Parliament; and the session of 1851 was spent in passing the inoperative Ecclesiastical Titles Bill. But at this time the attention of the nation was absorbed in the splendid spectacle presented by the Great Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations. The vision of a new period of peaceful rivalry in art and industry was encouraged by tokens of unexampled prosperity in the money market, following upon a bounteous harvest. But, on the fatal anniversary of Austerlitz, another era of military disturbance was introduced by news of revolution in Italy. Once more the events of the 2nd December in Paris was the fall of the English Minister, who resigned in consequence of the success of an amendment to the Militia Bill proposed by Lord Palmerston, the late colleague who had been dismissed for the offence of recognizing the coup-d'etat before consulting the Premier, or even the Queen.

MINISTERS OF LORDS DERBY AND ABERDEEN.

The accession of Lord Derby to the Premiership involved the final settlement of the Free Trade Controversy; but their acceptance of the decisive verdict given by a general election did not save them from falling before a coalition of the Liberals with the followers of Sir Robert Peel, under whose recognised leader (the Earl of Aberdeen) both Russell and Palmerston consented to serve. The great achievement of this Government was first the budget of Mr. Gladstone, who grappled at once with the questions of the income tax, the taxation of capital, the question of real property duties, and the national debt. By subjecting all kinds of property to a succession duty, renewing the income tax for seven years, and reviving the whole scheme of stamp duties, he was enabled to carry on the reduction of the customs and excises, to lower the interest on certain stocks, and to hold out the prospect of reducing the income tax by successive steps, and finally abolishing it in 1860, and of an ultimate conversion of the national debt into a 3½ per cent. annuity.

Contemporary Events (continued).

Schleswig Holstein meets at Kiel (9th Sept.). The Holstein army besieges Friedrichstadt (29th Sept.): it is invested by the Prussians (29th Oct.). The Holsteiners are joined by the Danes (16th Oct.). Definitive treaty of peace signed between Prussia and Denmark at Frankfort (26th Oct., 1851).

Instruction in Hessie Canal. Flight of the Elector (13th May). Congress of Vienna opens to ratify the order (29th Nov., 15th Feb.).

Austria and Prussia require the submission of Schleswig Holstein (4th Jan.). Submission of the Diet of Holstein at Kiel (11th Jan.).

Regulation of the Holstein authorities (1st Feb.). The army is disbanded (19th March). Assembly of nobles at Freiburg (15th June, 1856).

Navarre, Prime Minister of Spain, resigns (10th Jan., 1861).

Outbreak of revolution in China (1851).

Insurrection in Portuguese India (4th April). The Duke de Saldanha takes up arms at Coimbra.

Reformation of Count Thomas (28th Apr.).

Saldanha is appointed Viceroy (10th May, 1851). The Cortes are convoked (9th May, 1851).

Instruction in Cuba (4th Feb.).

An expedition under Lopez seizes the insurgents (18th Aug.). The insurgents are defeated. Lopez is executed (1st Dec., 1851). Petitions presented to the Assembly in France to extend the joint French-American Peace (22d May). A proposal for the resumption of the Constitution is rejected by the Assembly (9th May, 1851).

Coup d'etat in France. Arrest of General Castaing and Champaigner, M. Thiers and others (2nd Dec.).

The Assembly is dissolved. The President of the Republic is declared by a majority of nearly 7,000,000 votes (14th Dec., 1851). A new Constitution is established. The Presidency is fixed for ten years; Senators are appointed for life. The Chevalier property is confiscated (23rd Jan.). Titres of nobility are restored (18th Jan.). Treaty with Turkey for the protection of the Holy Places (15th Feb.). Return of M. Thiers and other political exiles (22nd March).

The United States send an expedition to Japan (10th March, 1853). Treaty between the European Powers to secure the independence of the Chinese Empire (22nd March, 1854).

The Chinese Imperial army is defeated by the insurgents (19th June, 1853).

The Emperor Louis Napoleon marries Eugenie de Montijo (8th June). General amnesty (4th Feb., 1855). Russia claims the protectorate of the Greek Christians in Turkey. Prince Menschikoff arrives at Constantinople (2nd March). The French ambassador at Constantinople objects to the proposals of
1853-1854. — VICTORIA. —continued.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS (continued).

1853. Parliament reassembles (10th Feb.). Partial revival of Convocation (16th Feb.).

Mr. Gladstone explains his scheme for reducing the National Debt (8th April), and propounds his proposals for great financial measures (18th April).


Asiatic Cholera appears at Newcastle (4th), and London (11th Sept.).

News of the discovery of the North-west Passage by Captain McClure (8th Oct.).

1854. Meeting of Parliament (31st Jan.). The royal speech indicates coming war with Russia.

A new Reform Bill proposed by Lord J. Russell (15th Feb.); but dropped on account of the war with Russia (11th April).

Troops begin to embark for Turkey (20th Feb.). The Queen reviews the Baltic fleet under Admiral Sir Charles Napier, at Spithead, and leads it out to sea (11th March).

War declared against Russia (28th March). The Income Tax is doubled during the war.

A French army embarks at Boulogne in British ships for the Baltic (15th July).


News of Dr. Raff's discovery of the fate of Sir John Franklin's expedition (23rd Oct.).

The Cholera subsides in London (Nov.). Treaty of alliance between Austria, England, and France, signed at Vienna (2nd Dec.).

Meeting of Parliament (12th Dec.).

An Act for the Enlistment of Foreigners is passed after much opposition (23rd Dec.).

OBSERVATIONS (continued).

WART WITH RUSSIA.

The growth of the revenue in successive years indicated that these measures would have borne their expected fruit, had but peace continued. But, in the interval between their proposal and their passing, the Russian envoy, Prince Menschikoff, presented to the Porte his master's claim to the protectorate of the Christians in Turkey; the Czar seized on Moldavia and Wallachia as "a material guarantee;" and Turkey declared against Russia a war into which, as our Prime Minister confided, "England drifted," in alliance with France. (For details see col. 3.) The Allies sent powerful armaments both to Turkey and to the Baltic, where Kronstadt covered St. Petersburgh from all attempts, but other important successes were gained. The heroic resistance of the Turks upon the line of the Danube, followed by Austria's occupation of the Principalities, set the allied armies free for an attack upon the great arsenal of Sebastopol. Without opposing their landing on the west coast of the Crimes, Prince Menschikoff posted his army on a commanding slope to withstand their advance; and the battle which took its name from the rivulet at the foot of his position has been thought by some to have placed Sebastopol in our power; but further light has confirmed the prudence of the flank movement which placed the Allies on the south side of Sebastopol, and in possession of the harbours of Karsmasch and Balaklava. A combined bombardment by the armies and fleets having failed, the attack became a siege, but with Menschikoff's army in possession of the open country. After the minor battle of Balaklava, signalized by the memorable charge of the Light Brigade, an attack by the Russian army was repulsed in the Battle of Inkermann, and the troops sat down to a winter's siege, which was unexpected and unprepared for. The hopes of peace raised by the assembly of a conference at Vienna, and by the sudden death of the Czar Nicholas, were disappointed; and in a second campaign the Allies used their mastery of the Euxine and the Baltic for some achievements only less important than the prolonged siege of Sebastopol. After the army of the Euxine had driven the Balkans, the Czar, who had earned their share of honour at Tchernaya, a combined assault on the works of Sebastopol caused Prince Gortschakoff to execute a masterly retreat across the harbour, the forts on the north side of which were held by the Russians to the end. Though prolonged resistance was promised by Russia, and England made vigorous preparations for a new campaign, the efforts of Austria and the wishes of Russia brought about a peace. The conference of Paris bore also the fruits of engagement against right principles, and placed Victor Emmanuel among the Great Powers of Europe. It was estimated that the Russian war cost England £100,000,000, of which £41,000,000 were added to the national debt.

MINISTRY OF LORD PALMERSTON.

Meanwhile, a change of Ministry had occurred. The success of a motion of Mr. Beesbuck, for an inquiry into the sufferings of the army in the Crimes, had led to the resignation of Lord Aberdeen and the Duke of Newcastle. The voice of the nation called Lord Palmerston to the Premiership; and on his acquiescence in Mr. Beesbuck's Committee of Enquiry, the remaining members of the Peel party—Sir James Graham, Mr. Gladstone, and Mr. Sidney Herbert,—withdrew from the Cabinet. While a Second Chinese War was provoked by an outrage on a British trading vessel (the lorcha "Arrow") at Canton, the capture of Herat by Persia was met by an expedition to the Persian Gulf under Sir James Outram, who took Bushire, and gained the victories of Kooshab and Mohammehr. But peace had already been made by the mediation of France, and Persia gave up Herat in July, 1857.
**Principal Events (continued).**

1855. Mr. Rosebucks's motion on the army before Sebastopol carried by 203 to 148 (29th Jan.).

**Resignation of Lord Aberdeen (31st Jan.).**

**Viscount Palmerston becomes Premier (Feb.).**

Death of the Czar, Nicholas I. (1st March).

A loan of £16,000,000 contracted (17th April).

The Income Tax raised to 1s. 4d. (5th May).

Smithfield Market is closed, and the New Cattle Market at Islington opened (11th—13th June).

Abolition of the Stamp on Newspapers (15th June).

The Metropolitan Local Management Act (14th Aug.).

The Limited Liability Act (14th Aug.).

**Prorogation of Parliament (14th Aug.).**

The Metropolitan Board of Works meets for the first time (22nd Dec.).

1856. Opening of Parliament (31st Jan.).

**Institution of the "Victoria Cross" (5th Feb.).**

The Lords decide, by 97 to 52, against the right of the Crown to create Peers for life (22nd Feb.).

**The Peace of Paris signed (30th March).**

Cambridge University Act (29th July).

Act for the appointment of a Vice-President of the Committee of Council on Education (29th July).

**Prorogation of Parliament (29th July).**

**Beginning of the Second Chinese War (6th Oct.).**

War declared against Persia (1st Nov.).

1857. Opening of Parliament (3rd Feb.).

Peace with Persia signed at Paris (3rd March).

Mr. Cobden's motion against the Chinese War carried by 263 to 247 (3rd March). Lord Palmerston announces an appeal to the country (5th March).

Parliament prorogued and dissolved (21st March).

**Meeting of the Queen's Fifth Parliament, the 17th of the United Kingdom (30th April).**

**Outbreak of the Indian Mutiny (May).**

Acts establishing the Court of Probate, and of Divorce and Matrimonial Causes (25th Aug.).

**Prorogation of Parliament (28th Aug.).**

Great commercial panic (Nov.). The Bank Charter Act is again suspended.

**Meeting of Parliament (3rd Dec.).**

**Observations (continued).**

At the same time Lord Palmerston had vigorously supported Sir John Bowring, the Governor of Hong-Kong, in hostilities against China. The Bogue forts were taken, Canton was bombarded by the fleet under Admiral Seymour (Oct. and Nov., 1856), and troops were despatched from Madras and England. The recommendations raised to the war by the "peace party" in England were taken up by the various sections of the Opposition; and Mr. Cobden's motion of censure on Sir J. Bowring, supported by Mr. Disraeli, Mr. Gladstone, and Lord J. Russell, was carried by a majority of 18; but the country reversed the verdict in the next election, which gave Lord Palmerston a triumphant majority of 86. The Earl of Elgin went out as plenipotentiary to China; but he immediately felt his duty to place his forces at the disposal of the Indian Government.

**Indian Mutiny.**

The annexation of Oude (Feb., 1856) seems to have brought to a crisis the dissatisfaction which had long been growing among the natives, both Mahometan and Hindoo; and a wide-spread conspiracy was formed against our rule. On a pretext of conciliacy, founded on the animal fat used in the Endfield ammunition (though the grease cartridges were at once withdrawn), several of the Bengal native regiments mutinied, and were disbanded (March and April, 1857). "India is quiet throughout," said the "Bombay Gazette" of 1st May, and on the 10th the native troops at Meerut killed their English officers, marched on Delhi, and proclaimed the king of that city Emperor of India (12th May). While Delhi was invested by the British troops, the insurrection spread through Bengal, accompanied by massacres of revolting cruelty. Gude became a chief centre of the mutiny, and, while the Europeans at Lucknow were besieged in the Residency, Cawnpore capitulated, through famine, to Nana Sahib, who treacherously perpetuated the most hideous and of all the massacres. At this juncture, the troops returning from the Persian Expedition, under Outram and Havelock, landed at Bombay; and Havelock's little band, fighting their way, in the height of an unusually hot summer, and destitute of chowries, defeated Nana Sahib, and took Cawnpore (16th and 17th July). Delhi was abandoned on 14th September, and captured after a week of incessant fighting; the king was taken prisoner, and his son and grandson killed. At the same time Sir James Outram had joined Havelock at Lucknow, and insisted on his officer in the relief of Lucknow. Both had again to wait till they were themselves relieved by Sir Colin Campbell, who had left England at a day's notice to take the chief command in India. The evacuation of Lucknow, two or three days later, he had aided in the re-capture of Lucknow (Nov.). The rebels were defeated in numerous other engagements by Sir Hugh Rose (afterwards Lord Strathearn) and other generals; and the mutiny was quelled by the end of 1858, though not before it had infected the native troops from the Crown (1st Nov., 1848). An unexpected shock had meanwhile been given at once to domestic and European politics by the attempt of Orani to assassinate the Emperor of the French, as the chief hindrance to the liberation of Italy. France complained of the asyums given to conspirators in England, where the plot was hatched; and certain French colonists, in an address to the Emperor, added threats, which were taken as a defiance. Lord Palmerston's proposal, to raise the offence of conspiracy against the life of the foreign sovereign from a misdemeanor to a felony, was defeated by a majority of 21, and the minister redeemed his pledge to Louis Napoleon by resigning (20th Feb., 1858).

**Contemporary Events (continued).**

All their amends on the Maun and the R. Dan (16th June). The Russians are besieged at Sebastopol (20th Aug.). Assim and Sebastopol by the Allies. The French gale possession of the Malakoff. The Russians are forced to retreat to the north side of the city (9th Sept.). The Russians are compelled to surrender to the Allies at Malakoff (9th Sept.), and take it (18th Sept.) Vegetation for the Russians at Sebastopol by Austria with Russia (28th Dec., 1856).

The terms of Peace proposed by the Allies are accepted by Russia (14th Jan.). Congress opens at Paris (16th Feb.). Preliminaries of Peace are signed (8th March). Treaty of Peace between Russia on one part, and England, France and Sardinia on the other, signed at Paris (30th April). Separate treaty between Austria, France and England, guaranteeing the integrity of Turkey (16th April, 1856).

Birth of the Prince Imperial, son of the Emperor Napoleon III. (14th May, 1856).

The Prince Imperial is reassembled at Paris to settle the frontier of Russia and Turkey (1st Dec., 1856).

Civil war about slavery in Kansas, United States (3rd Dec., 1857).

 Attempts to assassinate Napoleon III. (14th Jan.). Gorts and Pieri are guillotined (16th March). Convention signed at Paris concerning the Principalities (27th March). New Constitution for the Ionian Islands (20th Aug., 1858), which are virtually united, by the death of the Prince d'Assisi to the Crown (7th Feb., 1859). They were formally united under the name of Kingdom (1862).

Consolidation of Italian against the Austrian rule (1859).

France and Italy is negotiated by Orani Carnot (1858). Hurrell of the Agent of Napoleon III to the Austrian ambassador (1st Jan., 1859). Congress of London (19th May); the Pope (10th May), Lord Lonsdale goes to Vienna on a peremptory mission (27th May). Russia proposes a Congress (25th March), which is accepted by the other powers: but Austria calls on Sarawick to desert the Crown (18th April); on which, the French forces enter Piedmont. The discussion is interrupted by the assasination of the Emperor of the French (2d Sept., 1859). The position is decided by the Congress of Zürich (4th July) ending the Italian war, Peace made at Villanovesa (11th July), signed at Zürich (11th Nov.). Lombardy is joined to Sarawick, and so, afterwards, are Tuscan, Modena, Parma and the Legations (Aug. and Sept., 1859).
PRINCIPAL EVENTS (continued).

1858. Lord Palmerston is defeated on the second reading of the Conspiracy Bill by 234 to 215 (21st Feb.); and resigns. Lord Derby becomes Prime Minister for the second time (26th Feb.).
Two Bills, admitting Jews to Parliament, and substituting one Oath for those of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, are read a second time in the Lords by 143 to 97 (1st July), and in the Commons by 158 to 65 (15th), and pass (23rd).
Baron Rothschild takes his seat (26th July).
Local Government Act (2nd Aug.).
Act providing for the London Drainage (2nd Aug.). Act transferring the government of India from the East India Company to the Crown (2nd Aug.).
Prorogation of Parliament (2nd Aug.).
Proclamation made in India of the Queen’s Government, (1st Nov.). Oude is reconquered (Nov.). 1859. Parliament meets (3rd Feb.). A Reform Bill is brought in by Mr. Disraeli (28th Feb.).
Act abolishing the public observance of the 5th November, 29th May, 30th January, and (in Ireland) 25th October (30th March). In Lord John Russell’s amendment on the second reading of the Reform Bill (21st March) is carried by 330 to 291 (31st March), Parliament is prorogued and dissolved (19th April).
The Queen’s Sixth Parliament (the 18th of the United Kingdom) meets (31st May).
On the passing of a vote of want of confidence by 323 to 310, the Ministry resigns (11th June).
LORD PALMERSTON Premier the second time (17th June). Parliament prorogued (13th Aug.).
1860. A Commercial Treaty between England and France signed (23rd Jan.). (See Col. 2.) Meeting of Parliament (24th Jan.).
Act for new Fortifications (28th Aug.).
Prorogation of Parliament (28th Aug.).

OBSERVATIONS (continued).

SECOND MINISTRY OF LORD DERBY.

The second ministry of Lord Derby consented to the long-contested admission of Jews to Parliament by an Act enabling each House to sanction by resolutions the omission of the words "on the true faith of a Christian" from the qualifying oath. This compromise was afterwards superseded; the special oath for Roman Catholics was abolished; and the oaths were reduced to the one simple formula of allegiance to the Queen, and fidelity to the succession as established by the Act of Settlement (30th April, 1868).

On the New Year’s Day of 1869, a few words addressed by Louis Napoleon to the Austrian Ambassador echoed through Europe as a virtual declaration of war in which Italy gained Lombardy at the cost of ceding Savoy and Nice to France; and in the following year its results were extended by the union of all Italy under Victor Emmanuel, except Venice and the Patrimony of St. Peter (see col. 3). In England, besides a general sympathy with the Italian cause, the spectacle of this war gave an impetus to the movement, begun in 1858, for the formation of volunteer corps; and its further effects were seen in the re-construction of our navy on the new principle of ironclads, and the commencement of a great scheme for fortifying our arsenals at the cost of £10,000,000.

SECOND MINISTRY OF LORD PALMERSTON.

Meanwhile the Government of Lord Derby had undertaken the question of Parliamentary Reform, which had been warmly agitated, chiefly by Mr. Bright, during the recess. To Mr. Disraeli’s scheme of a “literal extension” of the suffrage, Lord J. Russell opposed an amendment for a lowering of the franchise, and the ministry, left in a majority of 39, appealed to the country. The answer was a vote of want of confidence by a majority of 1, and Lord Palmerston returned to office, with the assent to his Cabinet of Lord J. Russell as Foreign Secretary, and Mr. Gladstone as Chancellor of the Exchequer. Mr. Gladstone, having declined to join the ministry, carried on his own proper work by negotiating a treaty with the Emperor of the French, which restored the commercial relations temporarily established by Pitt in 1788. Not to mention other details, England admitted the wines and silks of France, and the manufacture of England, at moderate duties. In his second great budget (that of 1860), Mr. Gladstone combined with these measures a further simplification of the Tariff, and proposed the Repeal of the drawback, as an equivalent for the falling off in of the “Long Annuity.” The rejection of this part of the budget by the Lords led to a declaration of the privileges of the Lower House, which forms an epoch in our constitutional history. On the motion of Lord Palmerston, the Commons resolved—that the right of granting aids and supplies to the Crown is in the Commons alone; that the same exercise by the Lords of the power of rejecting money bills as a whole is regarded by the Commons with peculiar jealousy; and that the Commons have in their own hands the power of to impose and remit taxes as to maintain their rights; and, accordingly, from that time, the whole financial measures of the annual budget have been passed by the Commons in a single Bill, which the Lords can only reject as a whole, without the option of amendment. The Repeal of the Paper Duty was quietly effected by this means in the next year (1861).

SECOND AND THIRD CHINESE WARS.

Before Mr. Gladstone’s financial measures of 1860 had passed, he was called upon to provide £4,000,000 (and ultimately more) for the Third Chinese War—a sequel, in fact, to the Second, which had been left in suspense by Lord Elgin’s withdrawal to India. On his return, in the autumn of 1867, Canton was taken by storm, and the ferocious Yeh was captured and sent a prisoner to Calcutta.

CONTEMPORARY EVENTS (continued).

The kingdom of North Italy is constituted (March). Treaty for the annexation of Savoy and Nice to France (24th March, 1860). Schomyl, the Circassian chief, is betrayed to the Russians by a Christian servant. War between Spain and Morocco (1860). Conference of German Princes at Baden; festivities on the occasion of Napoleon III. (June, 1860). Congress of Stetis (April-May). Garibaldis lands at Marsala (11th May); gains the battle of Calabria (16th May); enters Palermo (27th May); the Neapolitan forces advance to Nola (30th July, 1860). Disturbances at Naples (16th July). Garibaldis crosses the Bennis (16th Aug.). Francis II. leaves Naples (22nd Sept.), which Garibaldis enters (9th Sept.). Invasion of the Papal States (5th Sept.), which the Sardinians enter (11th), gain the battle of Castelfidardo (3rd Oct.), and take Ancona (20th Sept.): enter the Neapolitan territory (16th Oct.); and gain the battle of Isola (17th Oct.). Garibaldis, after a victory at the Volturno (1st Oct.), meets Victor Emmanuel, and unites his "Kings of Italy" (30th Oct.). The two Nations vote their annexation to Italy (3rd Nov., 1860). Capua surrenders, and Francesco II. returns to Rome (18th Feb., 1861). The First Italian Parliament meets (16th Feb.), and declare Venice Independent. ITALY (14th March). Recognition by Great Britain (18th March). Death of Constable Cavour (1st June). The Treaty of Reconciliation by France (25th June, 1861).
Religious equality secured to Protestants in Austria (9th Feb., 1861). On the election of the Republican candidate, Abraham Lincoln, as President of the United States (6th Nov.), South Carolina secedes (10th Dec., 1860), and is joined by the other States (early in 1861), who assume the title of "Confederate States of America." Lincoln is inaugurated (20th April). Jefferson Davis President (1st Feb.). The civil war begins with the bombardment of Fort Sumter at Charleston (14th April). England and France acknowledge the Confederate States (20th April). Congress votes great supplies for the war (4th July). Confederate victory at the battle of Bull Run (21st July, 1861). Manners, Maison and Biddulph, securing the admission of the United States to London and Paris, are taken by the U. S. Captain William Preston (10th Aug., 1861). They are given up to Lord Lyons (25th Dec.). Convention signed at London between France, England, and Spain, to enforce claims on Mexico. The English and French take Vera Cruz (11th Dec., 1861). The English take Monterey (25th April, 1863). Convention made at Ostende (19th Feb., 1862), France declares war against Juarez (15th April, 1863). The English and Spaniards retire (May, 1867).
1866. A Commission appointed to enquire into the recent proceedings at Jamaica (2nd Jan.).
Meeting (1st Feb.) of the 19th Parliament of the United Kingdom, and the 7th of Queen Victoria, who opens it in person for the first time since the Prince Consort’s death (6th Feb.).
The suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act in Ireland passed through all its stages (17th Feb.): 120 persons were arrested the same day.
Acts against the Cattle Plague (Feb. and March).
Mr. Gladstone brings in a Bill for extending the Franchise (12th March), which is read a second time by 318 to 313 (27th April).
Parliamentary Oath Amendment Act, prescribing a single and uniform oath (30th April).
The Budget: Mr. Gladstone proposes a scheme for reducing the National Debt (3rd May).
Mr. Gladstone brings in a Bill for the Redistribution of Seats (afterwards blended with the Franchise Bill). Reform Bills for Scotland and Ireland are also brought in (7th May).
The worst Financial Panic, since 1825, is begun by the failure of Overend, Gurney, and Co. (10th May).
The Bank Charter Act is suspended (11th).
Cholera appears, this week, in Liverpool.
Act abolishing the Qualification Oath for Municipal Offices, and so doing away with the Annual Act of Indemnity (18th May).
A Fenian raid on Canada is repelled (31st May).
Government defeated on Lord Dunkellin’s Amendment on the Reform Bill by 315 to 304 (18th June); whereupon the Ministry resigns; the Earl of Derby becomes Premier for the third time (26th June).
Marriage of the Princess Helena (5th July).
Reform Riot in Hyde Park (23rd July).
The Atlantic Telegraph is laid (7th—27th July).
Prorogation of Parliament (10th Aug.).
A great meteoric shower (13th and 14th Nov.).
Cholera ceases (Dec.): the deaths in England during the quarter having been 10,865; in London, 5,548.

Observations (continued).
Second Ministry of Earl Russell.
Lord Palmerston’s successors returned from his grave to face a rising sea of troubles. The new Parliament, summoned by Earl Russell to make one more attempt for the settlement of Reform, had first to grapple with the Cattle Plague in Great Britain, and the Fenian conspiracy in Ireland. This movement aimed no longer at Repeal, but Independence, by the methods which its ring-leaders had learned in the bloody scenes of the American Civil War. So imminent was the danger from these disturbed adventurers, that both Houses met on Saturday, the 17th of February, to pass a Bill for suspending the Habeas Corpus Act in Ireland, and remained in session till after midnight on the Sunday morning, while the royal assent was obtained from Osborne; and many arrests were made in Dublin on both days. When at length Mr. Gladstone brought forward his bill for reducing the franchise in boroughs to £27, and in counties to £14, a large section of the Palmerstonian majority revolted, and the pledge of Ministers to stand or fall by the measures was redeemed when Lord Dunkellin carried an amendment to base the franchise on rating instead of rental (18th June). The Russell Cabinet resigned, and a new Ministry was formed under Lord Derby.

Third Ministry of Lord Derby.
As had happened seven years before, the change of government at home coincided in time with a great continental war, in which the crushing defeat of Austria at Sadowa, in Bohemia, gave to Prussia the supremacy of Germany, and to Italy the province of Venetia; but these events, as well as the new troubles of Italy in the ensuing year, must be left to general history. To the domestic troubles of this year was added the most disastrous monetary panic of the present reign, and the most lasting in its results, caused by the reckless operations of finance companies.

Reform Acts of 1867—68.
The long-promised measure of Reform was at length carried in 1857; and in 1868 were passed the Supplementary Bills for Scotland and Ireland, that defining the boundaries of boroughs, and another to check bribery and to regulate the judicial elections in boroughs. The final result of the Reform Bill, as amended by the Lords, was as follows:—
1. In England and Wales.
A. The franchise was given to “every man of full age, and not subject to legal incapacity,” coming within the following classes, and duly registered:
1. In Boroughs.—(1.) Householders having resided in the same or different dwellings within the borough for twelve months up to the last day of July, who are rated to pay all rates, and have paid all such rates due to the preceding 6th of January. The most-agitated difficulty of the “Compound Householder” was settled by the abolition of compounding for rates in parliamentary boroughs. (2.) Businesses occupying for the same period in one dwelling-house the clear annual value (unfurnished) of £150 and upwards.
2. In Counties.—(1.) Freemen, Copyholders, or holders on any tenure for any lives, and Landholders for a term (or its residue) of 50 years of the clear annual value of £60. (2.) Tenants of lands or tenements of the clear annual value of £12, subject to the same conditions of residence and rating as in boroughs.
(3.) These new franchises are in addition to all existing franchises; but no member of Parliament shall be voted as such, except the number of members, each elector can only vote for 2, and in the City of London for 3. (6.) A separate Act of 1868 removed the disqualification of officers of the revenue.

Contemporary Events (continued).
Holstein officials refuse the oath to Christian IX; and Prince Frederick, son of the Duke of Cumberland, claims the vacant Duchy of Schleswig. The new constitution, making Schleswig a Danish crown colony, is signed by the King of Denmark (20th Feb.). The Diet at Frankfort vote Federal execution in support of Prussia’s rights in Schleswig. Four German states demand the cessions of Denmark (31st Dec.). The Saxons and Hanoverians enter Altona (24th Dec.).
The Danes draw up their lines for the defence of Tranekaer (23rd Dec.).
Austria and Prussia demand the abrogation of the new constitution (16th Jan.), and begin war against Denmark (31st Jan.).
The Danes are defeated (16th Feb.), and Schleswig re-occupied. The Prussians enter Jutland (18th Feb.), and take the fortress of Dybbøl (18th April).
The Peace of Rhenish March (9th May).
Conference of London on Danish affairs meets (12th April), and without result (28th June). Holstein and the Rhineland resume (30th June). Altona is taken (9th July), Jutland (16th July), no peace is signed at Vienna, giving up the cessions to Austria and Prussia (16th Oct.).
Convention between France and Italy for the evacuation of Nice in two years, and the transfer of the Italian capital to Florence (15th Sept.).
General Grant is made Commander-in-Chief of the Federals (11th March). Great loss in indecisive battles at Chancellorsville and Spottsylvania (4th—15th May). The Confederate cruiser “Alabama” is destroyed by the “Kearsarge” off Cherbourg (19th June). General Sherman (Federal) issues a proclamation reproducing victories in Georgia (July); he occupies Atlanta (1st Sept.), and those towns are assaulted by Grant at Richmond (29th July).
Admiral Farragut (Federal) destroys the Confederate fleet near Mobile (5th Aug.).
Abraham Lincoln enters on his second presidency (14th Feb.). The election produces a majority for the “Reformers.”
Free trade for Canada effects a march to Savannah, which decides the issue of the civil war in the U.S. (Dec., 1864).
Slavery abolished in the United States (1st Jan.).
-A. The Confederate Constitution (11th Feb.), Williamsburg (22nd Feb.), and Richmond (2nd Apr.), and their army under General Lee, surrender to General Grant (9th Apr.).
B. A corollary for President Lincoln (14th (1861).
C. Proclamation by President Johnson of the end of the Civil War (12th May). England withdraws the recognition of the Confederacy as belligerent (15th May).
D. Interstate and monetary conventions made between France, Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland (3rd Dec.).
By the Convention of Gastein, Austria and Prussia come to a temporary treaty for the occupation of the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein; and Lecumberc and Haußman is made in the knot of Prussians (14th Aug.). The Diet commences the treaty (1st Oct.).
Prussia prepares for war, and concludes a treaty with Italy (March—May). Her troops ente
1867.—VICTORIA.—continued.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS (continued).

1867. Meeting of Parliament (5th Feb.). The Fenians, after an attempt on Chester Castle, (11th Feb.), make two unsuccessful risings in Ireland (13th Feb. and 5th March.). The Habeas Corpus Act is further suspended (26th Feb. and 31st May.). Mr. Disraeli moves resolutions on Reform (25th Feb.), but withdraws them and proposes a Bill (26th). Resignation of Lords Carnarvon and Cranbourne and General Peel (4th March.). The Reform Bill is read a first time (18th March.). Mr. Disraeli’s Budget, adopting Mr. Gladstone’s plan for reducing the National Debt (4th April.). Mr. Gladstone’s amendment against the Rating Clause of the Reform Bill is lost by 310 to 289 (12th April.). Fenian Trials in Dublin (27th April—24th May.). Fearful revelations of crimes in connection with Traité’s Unions at Sheffield (June.). Act for Revision of the Statute Law (15th July.). The Reform Bill passes the Commons (16th July.). Great naval review in honour of the Sultan and the Viceroy of Egypt (17th July.). Act abolishing the Declaration against Transubstantiation (25th July.). The “Minority Clause” inserted in the Reform Bill by 143 to 51 in the Lords (30th July.), and accepted by the Commons by 253 to 204 (8th Aug.). Representation of the People Act (15th Aug.). Prorogation of Parliament (21st Aug.). The expedition against Abyssinia is announced. Fenian Trials at Dublin (1st—16th Nov.). Five Fenians are sentenced to death, at Manchester, for murdering Fenian prisoners on 18th Sept. (1st Nov.). Three of them were executed (23rd Nov.). Meeting of Parliament (19th Nov.). £2,000,000 voted for the Abyssinian expedition, and 1d. in the pound added to the Income Tax (7th Dec.). Fenian outrage at Clerkenwell (13th Dec.).

OBSERVATIONS (continued).

B. RE-DISTRIBUTION OF SEATS.—1. The boroughs of Lancaster, Birkenhead, and Gotham were disfranchised for corruption—7 seats. (2) Seven boroughs, having each less than 5,000 inhabitants, were disfranchised—10 seats. (3) All other boroughs having less than 10,000 inhabitants, and heretofore returning 3 members, lost 1 member each—35 seats; making a total deduction of 62 seats. 2. Seats added.—(i.) Boroughs.—(1.) Increased from 2 members to 3: Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, and Leeds—4 seats. (2.) Increased from 1 member to 2: Ashton-under-Lyne and Stafford—2 seats. (3.) Two new metropolitan boroughs, with 2 members each: Hackney, Chelsea, and Kensington—4 seats. (4.) Nine new boroughs, with one member each—9 seats. Total of new borough seats, 19; nett decrease in boroughs, 33 seats. (ii.) Counties.—Seats added, chiefly by subdivision, each new division having 2 members—26 seats. (iii.) The University of London, 1 seat. Nett increase in counties and universities, 26 seats. The balance of 7 seats was transferred to Scotland, leaving England and Wales 493 seats, instead of 600.

II.—SCOTLAND.—A. Franchises as in England.

B. DISTRIBUTION OF SEATS.—1. Boroughs—Glasgow increased from 2 to 3 seats; Dundee from 1 to 2 seats; a new group of Border Boroughs, 1 seat; total increase, 3 seats. (2.) Counties.—3 seats added by dividing Aberdeen, Ayr, and Lanark; I seat deducted by uniting Peebles and Selkirk; nett increase, 2 seats. 3. Universities—Edinburgh and St. Andrews, 1 seat; Glasgow and Aberdeen, 1 seat. Thus Scotland has 60 members instead of 53.

III.—IRELAND.—In Boroughs, the Occupation Franchise was reduced from £8 to £5, with the same Lodge Franchise as in England. No change was made in the distribution of seats.

The annexed table shows the comparative state of the representation at the three elections of 1831 (before the First Reform Acts), 1858 (the last under the Reform Act of 1832), and 1866 (after the Second Reform Acts):—

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<th>1831</th>
<th>1858</th>
<th>1866</th>
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<tr>
<td>ENGLISH SEATS</td>
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<td>471</td>
<td>463</td>
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<td>Vis. for Counties</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>172</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cities and Boroughs</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
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CONTEMPORARY EVENTS (continued).

Boleyn: the Austrian troops in Bavaria (with Hanover and the Northern States) carry a vote of the Diet at Frankfort for the dissolution of the Confederation (14th June.). Prussia declares the Diet dissolved; her troops in Hanover and Saxony (18th), and occupies Hesse-Cassel and Nassau (20th June.). Prussia then declares war against Austria (14th June.). The Italian alliance is renewed: the Italian fleet is defeated by the Archduke Albert at Cadiz (20th June.). The Prussian elector of Hesse in two columns (23rd and 24th June.) gains several battles, and effects a junction (26th June.). The Hanoverian army, after a success at Langenau (27th), capitulates to the Prussians (30th June.). Decisive victory of Prussia over Austria at Sedan (3rd July.). Austria cedes Venetia to the Emperor of the French (4th July); but Italy presents the war. The states of the Confederation suffer several defeats: and the Prussians occupy Frankfort (14th—16th July.). Clavald crosses the Po into Venetia (4th July.). The Italian fleet is beaten at Lissa (30th July.). Preliminaries of peace between Prussia and Austria signed at Nikolsburg (26th July.). Armistice (30th July.); and between Prussia and the Southern States (26th July—2nd Aug.). The Diet at Angers recognises the disunion of the Germanic Confederation; and the Northern Confederation is constituted by Prussia (4th Aug.). Armistice between Hanover and Austria (13th Aug.), signed by Prussia with Wurtzburg (18th Aug.); with Satan (19th Aug.); with Bavaria (22nd Aug.); with Hesse-Darmstadt (3rd Sept.). Peace of Baccarat between Austria and Prussia, viz., Austria given to Italy: the old Germanic Confederation dissolved, and Prussia takes the leadership of the States north of the Main recognised: Schleswig and Holstein ceded to Prussia: the kingdom of Saxony secured: and several articles (30th Aug.). Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and Frankfurt are annexed to Prussia (30th Sept.). secret military communications are made by Prussia with Southern States. Peace is signed between Italy and Austria at Vienna (3rd Oct., 1866). Resolution at Baccarat: the Prince Consort is deposed (Feb.). Prince Charles of Hohenzollern is elected Head of Bavaria (9th April, 1866). The French army leaves Rome (11th Dec., 1866). The First Parliament of North Germany is opened at Berlin (24th Feb.). A constitution is adopted for the North German Confederation (11th April, 1867). Alaska (Vandern. N. Amer.) is sold to the United States (13th March, 1867).
Principal Events (continued).
1868. Resignation of Lord Derby (25th Feb.). Mr. Disraeli becomes Premier (29th Feb.).
A Fenian attempt to assassinate the Duke of Edinburgh in Australia (12th March).
Debate on the state of Ireland (10th—16th March). Mr. Gladstone declares for the Disestablishment of the Irish Church. He moves three resolutions (30th March). Lord Stanley's amendment is rejected by 331 to 270 (3rd April).
Flogging in the army is abolished (26th March).
The Abyssinians are defeated by Lord Napier (10th April, Good Friday); the captives are surrendered (12th); Magdala is stormed, and Theodore kills himself (15th); the British retire (18th April).
Fenian trials for the Clerkenwell outrage (20th—27th April). Michael Barrett is found guilty, and executed (28th May). Last public execution.
Mr. Gladstone's First Resolution is carried by 330 to 265 (30th April). The Second and Third are agreed to; and a Fourth is added for the abolition of Maynooth College and the Regiam Donam (7th May).
The Bill for suspending appointments in the Irish Church is carried by 312 to 258 (22nd May); passes the Commons (16th June); is thrown out in the Lords by 192 to 97 (29th June). Act for executions within prisons (29th May).
Borough Boundary Act; and Reform Acts for Scotland and Ireland (15th July).
Compulsory Church Rates abolished (31st July).
Parliament prorogued (31st July); dissolved (11th Nov.). General Election (16th Nov.—7th Dec.). Mr. Disraeli resigns (2nd Dec.).
Mr. Gladstone becomes Premier (9th Dec.). The Queen's 8th Parliament (the 20th of the United Kingdom) meets (10th Dec.), and adjourns till 16th Feb. (29th Dec.).

Observations (continued).
The chief financial measure of this parliament was a decided effort to reduce the National Debt. In 1866, Mr. Gladstone paused in the remission of taxation, and announced a plan, which Mr. Disraeli adopted the next year by converting £24,000,000 of stock into Annuities, to terminate in 1888, at an increased annual charge of £1,500,000. Amidst all its party contests, this was the first series of Reformed Parliaments sanctioned the fusion of our North American Colonies into a Dominion of Canada. Acts for reforming the great public schools, for improving the dwellings of the labouring classes in towns, and for the transfer of the electric telegraphs to the Post Office, and abolished compulsory church rates, public executions, and flogging in the army. The "Offices and Oaths Act" reduced all official oaths to a single formula of allegiance, and removed religious restrictions from the office of Lord Chancellor of Ireland.
The year 1868 was signalized by the brief but brilliant campaign in Abyssinia, under Sir Robert Napier, who earned the title of Lord Napier of Magdala by rescuing, without the loss of a single soldier in battle, the British envoy and other prisoners detained by the tyrant Theodore, who perished by his own hand in the storming of his chief fortress. Lord Stanley, as Foreign Secretary, sided in the neutralization of Luxembourg—for which place France and Prussia had threatened to go to war; but his convention with the American Minister, Mr. R. Johnson, for the settlement of all disputes between the nations, including the old affair of San Juan, the rights of neutralised citizens, and the depredations of the "Alabama," was not confirmed by the Senate of the United States.
Meanwhile, Ireland remained, in Sir Robert Peel's emphatic words, "the great difficulty." From rebellion in the one island, the Fenians proceeded to acts of reckless terrorism in the other—attempting to surprise Chester Castle, murdering policemen, preposterously blowing down the walls of a London prison, with a fearful loss of life in the neighbouring houses, to rescue one of their leaders. The suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act was continued for the whole three years of this parliament; and, on the eve of the session, Mr. Gladstone complained that the Lords had been the question of the day. The policy of "leveling up," which the Ministry announced, was met by Mr. Gladstone with the proposal to disestablish and disendow the Irish Church; the Pope's bull and the Russian court were denounced in the Commons and the "Suspensory Bill" was passed out of the Lords, after grand displays of Parliamentary eloquence, served only to indicate the course reserved for the new Parliament, and for the history of the future. Our record pages at the new election of 1868, which returned a majority so decisive in favour of Mr. Gladstone's policy, that Mr. Disraeli made a public announcement of his resignation on the 2nd of December. The ministry formed by Mr. Gladstone received the seals of office on the day before the opening of the first Parliament under Mr. Disraeli's Reform Acts. This Ministry, with Mr. Lowe as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and Mr. Bright as President of the Board of Trade, pledged itself not only to settle the Irish question, but to begin a new course of financial and administrative reform.
The Prussians during this reign have been Drs. Howley, Sumner, Longley, and Tait. The Chancellors have been Lords Cottenham (twice), Lyndhurst (twice), Peel (twice), Grey (twice), Castlereagh (twice), Canning (twice), Campbell, Westbury, Cawdor (twice), Hatherley, and Selborne.

Contemporary Events (continued).
The fortress of Luxembourg is retained by the Prussian garrison, notwithstanding the dissolution of the Bund, to which it had belonged. The King of Holland, as Duke of Luxembourg, offers to see the Prussian Pretender, and war is imminent. A Convention at London agrees to a neutralization of the place (May, 1867). Prussia is bombarbed by the crowned King of Hungary (June, 1867).
Withdrawal of the French troops from Mexico (Jan.—March). Triumph of the Republicans. Maximilian is taken at Queretaro (May), and shot (June). The Republic is restored (July, 1867).
Garibaldian invasion of the Papal territory. The French re-occupy Rome (26th Oct.). Garibaldini are defeated at Mentana (Red Nov., 1867).
A fearful hurricane and earthquake at St. Thomas (20th Oct.—16th Nov., 1867).

After a three years' conflict between President Johnson and Congress, the House of Representatives receives, by 136 to 47, to impeach President (5th Feb.). The impeachment fails for want of the necessary majority of two-thirds of the votes in the Senate (16th May, 1868).
Civil marriage is sanctioned in Austria (1868). The Pope protests.
Assassination of Michael O'Connell, Prince of Benvorich (10th June). His nephew, Prince Milan O'Connell, is elected his successor (July, 1868).
A Papal Bull is issued, summoning a General Council to the Vatican in Dec., 1869 (29th June, 1868).
Marshall Harveys dies (3rd April); and O'Neale's Brady becomes Minister of Spain. The Duke and Duchess of Montpensier are arrested and removed from Spain (6th July); and Marshal Sarron and other generals are expelled from the country. An inscription is burned by the fleet at the Oaths (19th Sept.): Prince de l'Isle orders general recalls; and the Queen's General Koutches is defeated by Sarron at weighs (19th Sept.). Madrid declares war on the Bourbons (20th). The Queen crosses the frontier into France (21st Sept.). A provisional government is formed under Marshal Sarron (24th Oct., 1867).
Terrible earthquakes in Kedirad and Paro (18th—14th Aug.). A severe shock at San Francisco (1st Oct., 1868).
Turkey addresses an ultimatum to Greece, in consequence of her emission and the Greco-Italian Insurrection (19th Dec., 1868). The insurgents are defeated by a general conference at Paris (1869).

PRINCIPAL EVENTS (continued).

1869. Parliament re-assembles (16th Feb.). The Hudson’s Bay Territory ceded to the Dominion of Canada (9th April).

Act for the Disestablishment and Disendowment of the Irish Church (26th July).

Act for the Reform of Endowed Schools (5th Aug.). Imprisonment for Debt abolished, excepting by County Courts (5th Aug.) (Also in Ireland by an Act of 1872).

Parliament prorogued (12th Aug.).

1870. Parliament opened : 2nd Session (8th Feb.).

The Irish Land Act passed (1st Aug.).

Elementary Education Act for England and Wales (9th Aug.). (That for Scotland Aug. 6, 1872.)

1871. The Irish Church Act comes into force (1st Jan.).

Conference of London on the Black Sea question (Jan.—March).

Parliament opened : 3rd Session (9th Feb.).

Treaty of Washington for the settlement by arbitration of the “Alabama Claims” (8th May).

Bank Holidays Act (25th May).

Abolition of Tests for Degrees and Offices (except Divinity and clerical) in the English Universities (16th June).

Ecclesiastical Titles Act (1851) repealed (24th July).

The Sale and Purchase of Commissions in the Army abolished by Royal Warrant (July).

Local Government Board established (14th Aug.). (Also for Ireland by an Act of 1872.)

Parliament prorogued (21st Aug.).

Dangerous Illness of the Prince of Wales (13th Nov.—14th Dec.).

1872. Cession of the Dutch Colonies on the Gold Coast (5th Feb.), leading to the Ashantee War (1873).

Parliament opened : 4th Session (6th Feb.).

Thanksgiving at St. Paul’s for the Prince’s recovery (27th Feb.).

Act for the Vote by Ballot at Parliamentary and Municipal Elections (18th July).

The Act of Uniformity (1662) amended (18th July).

OBSERVATIONS (continued).

MINISTRY OF MR. GLADSTONE

On the 1st of March, 1869, Mr. Gladstone introduced, in the House of Commons, his Irish Church Bill. The second reading was carried by 369 votes against 250 (27th March). The Lords, after warm opposition, passed the second reading by 179 to 148. The Act provided for the dissolution of the union between the Churches of England and Ireland from the 1st of January, 1871, and for the reconstitution of the Irish Church as a voluntary communion. Its temporalities were vested in three Commissioners, to provide compensation for all existing interests, as well as for the Roman Catholic College of Maynooth and the Nonconformist recipients of the Regius Donum, the annual grants to the two latter being withdrawn by the Act of Disendowment.

The following Session was marked by the passing of the Roman Catholic Emancipation Act, which supplied the long-demanded compensation for tenants disturbed in their holdings, and provided Courts of Arbitration to settle all claims. It gave facilities for tenants to purchase their holdings, and provided for loans to them for this purpose, and to landlords for improvements. It limited the freedom of contract in so far as to prevent the defeat of the object of the Act by agreements between landlord and tenant.

The Session of 1870 is also memorable for the establishment of a system of National Education through the agency of School Boards elected by the ratepayers. The scheme was designed to secure the joint action of the new School Boards with the Voluntary Schools already existing. The vexed questions of the compulsory attendance of children, and of their religious education, were handed over to the Boards; but the use of all creeds and denominations distinctive of any religious body was forbidden in the Board Schools.

Meanwhile the great war in France laid hold upon the public mind, and diverted the course of domestic legislation. The sudden collapse of the imperial army and the pausing power of a “nation in arms,” made the reorganisation of our army the question of the day. The ministry proposed the Abolition of Purchase, as the foundation of any effective reform; and when the Lords defeated their Bill, Mr. Gladstone announced the decision of the Government to effect the changes by a Royal Warrant; and the Commons voted the funds for compensating the officers (1871). Other measures were taken for the reorganisation of the army; and Autumn Manoeuvres have been held in imitation of continental armies.

The two chief government failures of 1871 furnished the main work for the session of 1872. A new Licensing Act was passed, and the Vote by Ballot became the law of procedure at Parliamentary and Municipal Elections, at least (for such was the modification introduced by the Lords) for a period of eight years.

In the session of 1872, Mr. Gladstone proceeded to deal with the question of religious education in Ireland. The Irish University Bill, which seemed at first to be regarded with favour by all parties, was defeated on the second reading by a majority of three. But Mr. Disraeli declined to carry on, with the existing House of Commons, the Government which Mr. Gladstone expressed his wish to resign, after a Premiership of four years. The restored ministry accepted Mr. Fawcett’s Bill for the simple abolition of Tests in Trinity College and the University of Dublin.

The Session was, however, distinguished by the passage of Lord Chancellor Selborne’s great measure for the combination of the courts of law and equity in one Supreme Court of Judicature, and the establishment of a Court of Appeal;

CONTEMPORARY EVENTS (continued).

Completion of the Pacific Railway across N. America (15th May, 1869).

The French Constitution amended by a "Senate Consultivo" (16th Sept., 1869).

Pope Pius IX. opens an Oecumenical Council of above 500 bishops at the Vatican (10th Dec., 1869).

The Italian Ministry in France (16th Jan., 1870).

The firstnegotiations for annexing the U.S. Congress (26th Feb.).

"Pibliaic" in France, confirming the liberal reforms in the Empire by 7,338,387 to 5,182,383 votes (5th May).

The Spanish Cabinet ad adoptante, Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern as candidate for the throne (9th July).

The French Government announces its decision for War with Prussia (13th July); war proclaimed on the 19th.

The Quenemia Council adheres to the terms of Papal Infallibility by 450 votes to 96 (16th July).

The South German States join the Northern Confederation (25th July).

Napoleon III. takes the command at Metz (29th). The King of Prussia leaves Berlin for the army (1st Aug.).

Action at Maerbruck: the Prince Imperial’s “battle of fire” (2nd Aug.).

Defeat of the French at Wissembourg (16th), Wurth (16th), and Forbach (16th Aug.).

The army under Marshal Bazaine abandoned Strasbourg and marched up to Metz.

Vigorous defeat of the “Army of Châlons,” under Marshal MacMahon, at Sedan (1st Sept.), capture of Belfort, and surrender of Napoleon III. 100,000 prisoners of war (2nd Sept.).

Fall of the Empire, flight of the Emperor, and proclamation of the Republic at Paris (4th Sept.).

The German armies invest Paris (20th Sept.).

Fall of Straubing (19th Sept.).

Union of the Roman States to the Italian Kingdom voted by a popular Referendum (2nd Oct.), and proclamation by Victor Emmanuel (9th Oct.).

The Germans take Orleans (11th Oct.).

Capitulation of Metz (25th Oct.).

10,000 French officers and 20,000 prisoners in Germany (31st Oct.).

The Germans defeated for the first time at Orleans (10th Nov.).

Russia rescues the Treaty of 1500 (12th Nov.), which are modified by the Conference of London (1871).

Amedeus, Duke of Aosta, elected King of Spain (16th Nov.).

The North German Parliament declares the King of Prussia the “German Emperor” William I (18th Dec.), and proclaims at Versailles (18th Jan., 1871).
1872.—VICTORIA.—continued.—Supplement for 1869-1874.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS (continued).

New Licensing Act; new Adulteration Act; new Public Health Act (10th Aug.).

Parliament prorogued (10th Aug.).

The Arbitrators at Geneva award 15| million dollars (25,329,165 13s. 4d.) to be paid by England to the United States for the "Alabama Claims" (14th Sept.).

1873. Opening of Greenwich Hospital as a Naval College (1st Feb.).

Parliament opened: 5th Session (6th Feb.).

The Irish University Bill defeated on the Second Reading by 287 to 284 (March 11th). The Gladstone Ministry resign, but return to office.

Act abolishing Tests in the Trinity College and University of Dublin (26th May).

Mr. Lowe's last Budget: the Income Tax reduced to 3d. in the pound (4th April).

The Shah of Persia visits England (18th June—5th July).

War with the Ashantees (14th July).

Act for the constitution of a Supreme Court of Judicature (9th Aug.).

Prorogation of Parliament (5th Aug.) followed by important changes in the Ministry. 1874. Marriage of Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, to the Grand Duchess Marie Alexandrovna, only daughter of the Czar Alexander II. (23rd Jan.).

Sudden Dissolution of Parliament announced in Mr. Gladstone's letter to his constituents (24th Jan.).

Parliament dissolved (26th Jan.).

The Ashantee War ended by the taking of Coomasie (4th Feb.).

Resignation of Mr. Gladstone's Ministry (17th Feb.).

Mr. Disraeli Premier the second time (21st Feb.).

The Queen's 9th Parliament (the 21st of the United Kingdom) meets (5th March).

Sir S. Northcote's Budget, abolishing the Sugar Duties and Duty on Horses, and reducing the Income Tax to 2d. in the pound (16th April).

The Czar Alexander II. visits England (May).

OBSERVATIONS (continued).

the House of Lords surrendering their appellate jurisdiction in English and afterwards (1874) in Scotch and Irish cases. The great step has now been taken towards the fusion of law and equity. Meanwhile the labours of the Statute Law Commissioners in clearing the Statute Book of obsolete Acts, and consolidating others, have been ratified session after session, paving the way for a Digest or Codex. Other measures of Law Reform were the "Abolition of Tenant Right in England" (1870), the protection of the Property of Married Women from being swept away by a bad husband (1870), and an Act for the better Prevention of Crime (1871).

The prorogation of Parliament was followed by a number of Ministerial changes, of which the most significant was the Premier's own assumption of the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer. At the same time Mr. Bright, who had retired from the ministry through ill health, returned to office in the sinecure post of Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster.

Parliament was already summoned for the 5th February, 1874; when, on the 24th January, Mr. Gladstone issued an Address to his constituents at Greenwich, announcing the prospect of a surplus of above 5 millions for the financial year, which, with some readjustments of taxation, would enable him to abolish the Income Tax, and to remove part of the burden of local taxation. But, to effect this, the Government, after their reverses in several recent elections, needed a clear proof of the support of the nation, to which they had therefore determined to appeal. Accordingly, Parliament was dissolved on the 29th January. The first general election held under the joint operation of the New Reform and Ballot Acts made a change of no less than 110 votes in the balance of parties, giving the Conservatives an estimated majority of about 60. Mr. Gladstone resigned without awaiting the meeting of Parliament; and Mr. Disraeli, becoming Premier, formed a cabinet of 14 (6 peers and 8 commoners); Mr. Cross now taking office for the first time as Home Secretary, and Sir Stafford Northcote (of Mr. Gladstone's financial school) becoming Chancellor of the Exchequer. The Budget of Sir S. Northcote was introduced on the 5th March; it announced a net revenue of 762 millions for the year ending 1st April 1874, which had sufficed to pay the whole of the Alabama award and the cost of the Ashantee war (£90,000,000). The surplus of the coming year was estimated at no less than six millions. The Income Tax was reduced to 2d. in the pound, the Duties on Sugar and Horses were abolished, and some relief was given to local burthen by contributions from the Exchequer. Already, during the five years of Mr. Gladstone's administration, taxes had been reduced to the amount of £111 millions. The National Debt, which stood at £560 millions in 1868, was reduced in 1874 to £779 millions.

During the period under review England has been engaged in one of her expensive "little wars." This war, which arose out of a transfer of the Dutch colonies on the Gold Coast to Great Britain, in consideration of a money payment and the cession of some territorial claims in Sumatra, was brought to a successful termination by the abilities of Sir Garnet Wolseley, and was virtually closed by the capture of Coomasie. New means of intercommunication, at home and abroad, have, meanwhile, been supplied by further great reductions in Postage, by the placing of the Telegraphs in the United Kingdom under the Post Office, by the laying of new cables connecting Europe still more closely with the East and West Indies, with America and Australia, and by the opening of the Pacific Railway, the Suez Canal, and the Mont Cenis Tunnel.

CONTEMPORARY EVENTS (continued).

Rome made the capital of Italy (14th Jan., 1871).

An ammunition (26th Jan.), a French National Assembly, and a Spanish National Assembly (4th Feb.); meetings of the Executive Power (16th Feb.); Peace at Verona (26th Feb.).

Appointees by the Assembly (25th Feb., 1871). Formal entry of the German army into Paris (1st March, 1871).

Paris seized by the "Red Republicans" (15th March), the "Commune" (reclaimed April). The National Assembly sits at Versailles (9th April). The ex-Empire lands in England (8th March, 1871).

Paris retaken by the troops of the Assembly (11th May, 1871).

Triumphal entry of the Prussian army into Berlin (30th June, 1871).

Meeting of the Emperors of Austria, Germany, and Russia at Berlin (24th Sept., 1871).

The Czar Alexander is defeated in the French Assembly (11th Feb., 1873).

Abolition of Assemblies, King of Spain, and proclamation of a Republic (11th Feb., 1873).

Termination of the war of Cavouris celebrated at Thorn (15th Feb., 1873).

The Czar Alexander at Paris (7th April, 1873). On a visit to the King of England, France, Italy, and Turkey.

K. Thun is defeated in the French Assembly (11th Feb., 1873).


Fusions of the Orleans and Legitimists (5th Aug.), and subsequent collapse of the plan for monarchical restoration through the letter of the Comte de Chambord refunding the remaining national debt (27th Oct.). Marshal MacMahon impeached for 7 years 27th Oct.).

Treaty of Peace between Russia and Turkey (35th Aug., 1873).

Final payment of the War Indemnity (5th Sept.), and evacuation of France by the Germans (15th Sept., 1873).

The King of Italy visits Vienna and Berlin (27th and 25th Sept., 1873).

Sinking of the Court-Martial on Marshal MacMahon (18th Dec.), committed to acquittal for his (7th Dec., 1873).

Treaty between Russia and Bokhara published (26th Dec., 1873).
Remarks on the Hanoverian Line,
And the Present Condition of the British Empire.

Government and Laws.—The great principles of the Constitution were finally established by the Revolution of 1688; but room was still left for the peaceful struggles of progress and order within the limits thus defined. The whole result has been the steady advance of popular power, tempered by loyalty to the sovereign, by the vast influence of the landed aristocracy and the clergy, and by the growing weight of a new plutocratic element. The personal power of the sovereign (in its direct form) has been replaced by the full establishment of ministerial responsibility. William III. was the last sovereign who used the veto, which, though still a prerogative of the crown, is now practically impossible; for no measure passes the two Houses without being originated or consented to by Ministers; or else resisted by them, not by the veto, but by resignation or a dissolution. Though the constitution of Parliament, before the Reform of 1832, was such as to make the Government more dependent on the Crown and the nobility than on the people, still no Minister could long withstand a plain manifestation of the popular will. It is now admitted that the Premier must be the organ of the majority of the House of Commons, and that the Lords can only delay, and not finally refuse, their assent to measures deliberately sanctioned by the Lower House.

A century and a half has been spent in working out, amidst frequent interruptions and re-actions, the principles of civil and religious liberty which prevailed in theory when George I. ascended the throne in spite of Jacobite intrigues; but the legislative fruits of those principles have been gathered almost entirely in the last fifty years, since the pacification of 1815; and the same period has given birth to ideas of commercial freedom, educational progress, and social amelioration, of which a few of the men of the Commonwealth and Revolution had even a glimpse.

The circumstances, under which the House of Hanover came to the throne, placed the Government in the hands of the Whigs during the reign of the first two Georges; but the power of the Tory or Jacobite party (for the terms were then almost synonymous) was sufficient to limit Stanhope's attempts to repeal the enactments of Charles II. against religious liberty, and to put short Walpole's career of peaceful and economical stagnation. Nor must it be forgotten that the leading Whigs had to bear the odium of being an aristocratic clique, who had contrived to secure the Government for themselves in the name of constitutional liberty.

For nearly forty years after the accession of the Hanoverian dynasty, the nation was chiefly occupied with the efforts of the exiled Stuarts, and the continental wars which were more or less connected with their intrigue. Scarcely had this unquiet period been ended by the defeat of Prince Charles and the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, when the outbreak of the Seven Years' War gave opportunity for the gigantic schemes of the elder Pitt for the aggrandisement of England. It would need a genius like his own to strike the balance of loss and gain between the consequent postponement of internal reforms and the increased power of making them fruitful when their time came.

The accession of a young King, the first Englishman of his race, possessed of a strong will and a high notion of his prerogatives, diverted the traditional faith of the Tories for their last cause into the channel of loyalty to the reigning sovereign; and the "King's party" inherited some of the spirit of the old Cavaliers. On the other hand, the jealousy of royal favourites and despotic tendencies revived, and a small section of the liberal party began to exhibit the phase of modern Radicalism. The character of John Wilkes and the vehemence of Trenchard threw much discredit on their cause; but the cry for freedom was raised too vigorously to be ever again silenced; and the conflict produced the one additional security for personal freedom, the abolition of the general warrants.

The American Rebellion tended to define the new position of the two parties in the State, by its assertion of the abstract "rights of man," and by the vehement part taken by the King; and after the short interval, during which the younger Pitt emulated the economic reforms of Walpole, and foreshadowed those of Peel and Gladstone, the catastrophe of 1789 and the ensuing democratic excesses in France roused the nation round the throne and confirmed the reform with revolution.

Peace brought back the desire and the opportunity for progress; and the latter years of George IV. produced the Reform of the Treason and Corporation Acts, and the great measure of Catholic Emancipation. The demand for Parliamentary Reform—that is, for a system of representation which should make the lower House the true organ of the Commons of Great Britain—had already made head irresistibly; when the French Revolution of 1830 gave an impulse which burst all barriers; and the last great conflict between the possessors and the claimants of political power issued in the Reform Act of 1832.

That event ushered in what may be distinguished as an Era of Freedom, in the widest sense, political and personal, commercial and religious; differing from the epoch so-called by the French Revolutionists of 1793, chiefly because checked by a Conservatism opposition, the new name of which indicated its new spirit. The Reform of 1832 was not only a step in constitutional progress, but a means of giving practical effect to long-discussed theories of improvement. Its first fruits were the Abolition of Colonial Slavery, the freedom of trade to India, the amendment of the Poor Law, the Reform of Municipal Corporations, the Commutation of Tithes, the re-distribution of Ecclesiastical Revenues, besides a number of legal and economical improvements.

The fear of too rapid a progress was soon allayed by a Conservative reaction; but with the practical result, that measures in which the one party failed were adopted and carried by the other. The principles of commercial and industrial freedom, hitherto regarded as the Utopian dreams of political economists, were realised in the Repeal of the Corn and Navigation Laws, and the remission of a multitude of Customs' and Excise Duties; and the last political privilege on religious grounds was removed by the Jewish Relief Act. Faith in popular principles has grown, with their extension, to such a degree, that the Reform Acts of 1867—69 were passed by a Conservative Government almost without a warning of those democratic dangers, any remaining fear of which was dissipated by the new elections.
REMARKS ON THE HANOVERIAN LINE—(CONTINUED).

That the administration should be conducted for the good of the governed, rather than the gain of the governors, is a principle established by the reform of the Civil List, begun by Burke, and completed under William IV. and Victoria; by various measures affecting official duties and emoluments; by the bringing of every item of revenue and expenditure to account before the House of Commons, and by the system of examinations for appointments in the Civil and Military Services.

But nothing has so much tended at once to increase the political power of the people, and to place it on the secure basis of open discussion, as the liberty of speech and of the press. We have seen that the last act for licensing printed works was suffered to expire under William III.; but this concession fell far short of the great argument of the Areopagitica, that (saving certain outrages which the law must punish) the press itself should correct the evil influence of the press. Government prosecutions for seditious and blasphemous libels were among the chief measures of resistance opposed by the Government of George III. to the principles of the radicals; but they at length failed, not only before the eloquence of Erskine and the untiring pertinacity of William Hone, but chiefly through the resolute deafness of juries to the judicial doctrines, that they were to find only on the fact of publication and leave the judge to decide the character of the libel. The liberty of reporting the debates in Parliament was conceded, after a vehement struggle, in 1771; but the immunity of a fair report, as against a person alleging himself to be injured by it, was only established by the Court of Queen's Bench, in Wason v. Walter, at the end of 1868. The last legislative restraint on free publication were removed by the repeal of the newspaper stamp-duty in 1855, and of the duty on paper in 1861; and the establishment of the Book Post in 1855 has increased the facilities for the universal extension of political discussion.

ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.—The Act of 13 Will. III. c. 2 (1702) made the judges independent of the royal pleasure, and that of 1 Geo. III. c. 23 (1761) made their commissions survive the demise of the crown. The result has been an almost perfect freedom from judicial corruption. The growth of litigation, with population and commerce, has required an increased judicial staff. Each of the three English Courts of Common Law (the Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer) received a fourth judge in 1784, a fifth in 1830, and a sixth in 1868 (specially for the trial of election petitions); and all these courts have been opened to all classes of suits. The Court of Exchequer Chamber, composed of judges from all three courts, for appeals at common and criminal law, was organized in 1830 and 1848.

In Equity (with the exception of the equitable jurisdiction of the Court of Exchequer, abolished in 1841) the Lord High Chancellor and the Master of the Rolls were the sole judges till 1815, when the office of Vice-Chancellor of England was established. In 1841 two new Vice-chancellors were appointed; and in 1851 the three were placed on an equality. At the same time two Lords Justices were appointed, to form, with the Chancellor, the Court of Appeal in Equity. In 1857 the Ecclesiastical Courts were deprived of their jurisdiction over wills and matrimonial causes; and a new Judge of Probate was appointed, and also a Court of Divorce and matrimonial causes, of which the Judge of Probate is the Ordinary Judge (the Chancellor and one of the Chief Justices making up the full court).

It is needless to recount the numerous improvements in the regulation of procedure. Among the examples of emancipation from needless trammels, special notice is due to the reception of the evidence of the parties to a suit in Equity (1843) and at Common Law (1861); and the abolition of the old forms of scholastic pleading (1833 and onwards). The improvements in the law of real property are of too technical a nature to be stated here. A great step was taken towards bringing cheap and speedy justice within the reach of all the people, by Lord Brougham's revival of the ancient County Courts for the recovery of small debts, in 1846. Their powers have been subsequently extended to cases of tort, equity, admiralty jurisdiction and bankruptcy. The amount awarded by the judgment of these courts in 1867 was £1,161,629; the costs being £47,184, and the court fees £231,835; while of 94,216 plaints, four-ninths were settled without coming into court. In the same year £654,627 were recovered in the superior courts. Successive changes, from 1822 to 1861, have left the Law of Bankruptcy in a condition which has called for the new measure now (1869) before Parliament, involving the final abolition of imprisonment for debt, towards which steps were taken in 1838 and 1861.

The amelioration of Criminal Law, begun in the last years of George III., has at length been carried so far that death is only inflicted for murder; public executions have been abolished; and the corruption of the very seed of our colonies by transportation has ceased. In proportion to the mitigation of punishment has been its greater certainty. In London, this has been especially promoted by the establishment of the Central Criminal Court (1864), and the enlarged powers given to the police magistrates. Parliament is now (1869) attempting to deal with the social plague and danger of a class of habitual criminals; but the pressing demands for a public prosecutor and a court of criminal appeal still remain unsatisfied. The old medieval relics of the wager of battle, and the benefit of pursuance and of the clergy, only yielded to the reductio ad absurdum of actual cases, those of Thornton in 1818, and of Lord Cardigan in 1841. In 1861 the criminal law was consolidated into Six Acts, which may be regarded as the foundation of a Code.

GROWTH OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.—The first Hanoverian sovereign was called to reign over two kingdoms, of which Ireland was disunited from her sister in spirit as well as form, while Northern Britain herself was disaffected to the new dynasty. He possessed the colonies in America, which his great-grandson lost, and a few dependencies, of which the future fortunes were as yet unsuspected. A century and a half has produced a growth, at home and abroad, exceeding the whole previous progress of the nation; and of this growth the most striking part belongs to the last third of the whole period.

POPULATION.—The population of England and Wales is estimated to have been from 1,500,000 to 2,000,000 at the Conquest, and to have been reduced one-third under the Norman Kings. It was reckoned at 2,092,978 at the accession of Richard II. (1377); 4,689,000 at that of Richard III. (1483); about 5,000,000 at the death of Elizabeth; 5,260,000 at the death of Charles II. (1685); and 5,472,000, in 1700.
REMARKS ON THE HANOVERIAN LINE—(CONTINUED).

The following are the estimates for the successive decades of the 18th century:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1710</td>
<td>5,240,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1720</td>
<td>5,655,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1730</td>
<td>5,796,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For Scotland and Ireland the data are obscure; but we have the following estimates:—

Population of Scotland, 1,355,663 in 1751; of Ireland, 850,000 in 1693, 2,095,094 in 1712, 2,872,884 in 1754.

The following are the results of a decennial census:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Division</th>
<th>1801</th>
<th>1811</th>
<th>1821</th>
<th>1831</th>
<th>1841</th>
<th>1851</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>8,221,434</td>
<td>8,382,527</td>
<td>8,521,437</td>
<td>8,609,286</td>
<td>8,986,128</td>
<td>9,284,143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wales</td>
<td>841,460</td>
<td>881,126</td>
<td>917,438</td>
<td>926,523</td>
<td>968,010</td>
<td>1,006,428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>1,099,068</td>
<td>1,159,298</td>
<td>1,208,416</td>
<td>1,240,407</td>
<td>1,302,146</td>
<td>1,370,784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Army, Navy, etc.</td>
<td>470,286</td>
<td>460,600</td>
<td>416,260</td>
<td>417,917</td>
<td>418,652</td>
<td>419,216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Great Britain</td>
<td>10,940,764</td>
<td>11,465,023</td>
<td>11,688,291</td>
<td>11,884,818</td>
<td>12,444,434</td>
<td>12,935,466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland and Islands in British Seas</td>
<td>5,000,000</td>
<td>5,287,463</td>
<td>5,401,772</td>
<td>5,767,401</td>
<td>6,018,794</td>
<td>6,254,542</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total | 35,000,000 | 35,955,023 | 36,091,278 | 36,405,909 | 37,389,437 | 37,759,283 | 37,709,168 |

[1871. The Census gave a total Population of 83,817,108.]

In the first 50 years of this century (1801-1851) it increased by 6,297,221, or 65 per cent.; in the second 30 years (1851-1881) it was 4,942,303, or only 20 per cent., a result due to emigration. The number of inhabited houses decreased from 4,792,846, in 1841, to 4,717,172 in 1851 (owing to a decrease in Ireland of 281,104); but increased again to 5,146,983, in 1861, this increase of 9-8 per cent. being more than half as much again as the rate of increase in the population.

The growth thus shown has been most conspicuous in the northern seats of industry, and in the great manufacturing towns and sea-ports, such as Manchester, Leeds, Sheffield, Liverpool, Glasgow, besides other places created by modern trade and commerce.

We have only space to give the details for London, where a population of 674,550, in 1700, having only increased to 765,350 in 1750, grew to 900,000 in 1801, to 1,050,000 in 1811, to 1,374,800 in 1821, to 2,382,295 in 1851, and to 3,999,081 in 1861; of whom only 118,247 were within the limits of the "City." Vastly at this population exceeds that of the greatest provincial towns, the relative greatness of London is not in so high a proportion as it was at the Revolution. The population, which is now between six and seven times that of Liverpool or Glasgow or Manchester, was then more than seventeen times that of Bristol or Norwich.

CONQUESTS.—The continental wars of William, Anna, and the first two Georges, restored to Britain a power which bore fruit in the conquests organised by Chatham in America and achieved by Clive in India, and established her maritime ascendancy, of which Gibraltar was the trophy and seal. Her only other European possession (the Channel Islands) was the last remnant of the heritage of her Norman Kings. The conquest of Canada (1759-60) compensated, by anticipation, for the loss of the North American colonies, which was itself a gain to her true interests. The great French war of 1793-1815 added to our possessions some islands in the West Indies, the Cape of Good Hope, the Mauritius, and Ceylon; and, in Europe, Malta, besides the protectorate of the Ionian Islands, which were resigned to Greece in 1854. The successful struggle against Napoleon's attempt to make Egypt his stepping-stone to the mastery of the East, though involving no conquest, gave a prestige that secured the ancient route to India, by the Red Sea, which, however, was only re-opened in the present reign. Our establishments at Aden, in the Malay Archipelago, and at Hong-Kong, serve as the outposts of our Eastern power and commerce, and those on the West Coast of Africa bear witness to more disinterested efforts for the suppression of the slave trade.

BRITISH EMPIRE IN INDIA.—The first steps, by which the commercial adventures of the East India Company were developed into a career of conquest, had their springs in European as well as Indian politics. The Mogul Empire was thoroughly established about the time when Vasco da Gama discovered the passage round the Cape (1497) and founded the first Portuguese settlement at Cochin (1502). The first English adventure was made in 1601;* the Dutch followed in 1601; the Danes obtained Tranquebar in 1619; the French East India Company was established in 1664, and their settlement at Pondicherry was made in 1668. English factories were established at Surat in 1612, at Madras (Fort St. George) in 1642, at Bombay (the dowry of Charles II.'s Portuguese queen) in 1668; and Calcutta was purchased and Fort William built in 1698. The first presidency was that of Madras (1663), from which that of Calcutta was separated in 1701; and Bombay was made a presidency in 1707. In the same year died Aurungzebe, the last of the great Mogul emperors, and their dominion, having received repeated blows from the successful rebellion of the Nizam of the Deccan, in 1729, the rise of the Marathas, in 1739, and the invasion of the Persian Nadir Shah, in 1749, became almost nominal on the death of Mohammed Shah, in 1748. The only European settlers in India that retained the power to profit by her disorganisation were the French and English, who were then in the heat of the war of the Austrian succession. The former planned an able scheme for driving their rivals out of India; but their conquest of Fort St. George had to be given back after the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1749). But, at this very juncture, a disputed succession, which was to cause the overthrow of the Nizam of the Deccan, gave occasion to the renewal of the war, and called forth the two champions, Dupleix and Clive. The former, by placing puppets of his own on the thrones of the Deccan and the Carnatic, was already threatening Madras, when Clive recovered the Carnatic for the prince friendly to the British by his marvellous capture of Arcot (1761).

* See the "Remarks" on the Tudor and Stuart Times.
REMARKS ON THE HANOVERIAN LINE—(CONTINUED).

Our next struggle was with the new rulers of Bengal, Surajah Dowla, who, abandoning the friendly policy of his predecessors, took Calcutta and Fort William, and murdered his 146 English prisoners (excluding only 28 survivors) in the horrible "Black Hole" (20th June, 1760). Clive, who had landed at Madras on the very same day after an absence in England, retook Calcutta on the 2nd January, 1767; and from his wonderful victory over Surajah Dowla, at Plassey, may be dated the beginning of the British Empire in India (23rd June, 1765). The epochs of its growth can only be briefly indicated. The defeat of the French governor, Lally, by Sir Eyre Coote, at Wandewash, gained the Carnatic (1769); and Pondicherry was taken in 1761. Muoro's victory at Thames (1764) reduced the Mogul Ilah Alum II. to dependency on the British; and he ceded to Clive the virtual sovereignty of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriasa (1765).

Under the India Bill of 1773, Warren Hastings became the first Governor-General. Seven years later, Hyder Ali, who had usurped the throne of the Mysore (1761), and whose invasion of the Carnatic (1769) had already led to war with the British, overran the Carnatic for the second time, took Arcot (1784), and threatened to expel us from Southern India; but Sir Eyre Coote's two victories over him and his French allies (1781, 1782) were followed by Hyder's death (1782). In 1786, Pitt placed India under the double government of the Company and the Board of Control, and in the same year a disgraceful peace was made with Tipfoo Sahib, the son of Hyder Ali, whose renewed attacks were only ended by his death at the storming of Seringapatam in 1799. The Carnatic was conquered in the following year. Pondicherry, which had been restored to the French in 1767, was retaken in 1793, and restored in 1801. In 1809, in the same year, the French power in India came to an end. In the same year Sir Arthur Wellesley gave the omen of his future greatness by his brilliant victory over the Maharrats at Assaye. The long war with Hoolar, and the Pindaree war, ended in 1818, were followed by the first Burmese War, in which the province of Arracan was gained (1824-26); Pegu was the fruit of the second Burmese War, 1851-52. In 1838, the trade to India, and the tea trade with China, were thrown open. The wars in Afghanistan, the Punjab and Sindh, the acquisition of Oude and the Indian Mutiny, with its consequence in the transference of the dominion over India to the British crown, have already been related; but the opening of the first Indian railway in 1853 is an equally memorable epoch.

Colonisation—The progress of our colonies in North America has been rather steady than striking; and the policy pursued after the rebellion of 1837 has made them conspicuous for their loyalty. In 1867 was accomplished the fusion of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, into the "Dominion of Canada," with a territory of 777,076 square miles, and an estimated population of 5,378,885; and, in 1896, the Hudson's Bay Company has proposed the sale to Canada the vast territory granted to Prince Rupert and his associates by Charles II., comprising one-third of the North American Continent. The settlement of British Columbia, on the Pacific Coast of North America, in 1858, was the result of discoveries of gold.

But the chief field of our recent colonial enterprise has been in the vast insular continent of Australia. Captain Cook, the hero and martyr of Oceanic discovery, landed at Botany Bay in 1770, and gave to the land, already called New Holland by the Dutch, the name of New South Wales. Sydney was founded in 1788, and Hobart Town in Van Dieman's Land (now called Tasmania) in 1804. These were essentially penal settlements; but the liberated convicts formed the basis of a new community, which was re-inforced by free emigrants. In 1821 the population of New South Wales was 20,783, of whom three-fourths were convicts. The vast increase of population at home, during the first half of the present century, led to a vastly increased emigration, under a more systematic direction. The total of 2,681 emigrants, in 1816, rose, in 1820, to 25,739; in 1830, to 66,907; in 1840, to 90,743; and in 1850, to 280,843. Western Australia was formed into a province in 1829; South Australia in 1834; Port Phillip was colonised in 1836, and erected into the province of Victoria in 1856; and Queensland was made a province in 1859. The discovery of gold was made in 1851. The population of these colonies had risen to 130,000 in 1841; 270,000 in 1851; and to 1,398,967 at the end of 1865. The systematic colonisation of New Zealand began in 1839; and, notwithstanding the frequent wars with the natives in the Northern Island, the European population reached 84,394 in 1860, and 196,607 at the end of 1865. All these Oceanic colonies have been placed under constitutional government, and the principle has been now established, that they should provide for their own defence. Of 195,956 emigrants (including 31,165 foreigners), who left Great Britain in 1867, 164,075 went to the United States, and the remainder to our various colonies. In 1875, the total number of emigrants had increased to 295,918, of whom nearly four-fifths went to the United States.

LIFE OF THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN 1878.—A. IN EUROPE.—The Channel Islands, Iceland, Gibraltar, Gibraltar, and Malta.—B. IN ASIA.—British India, Ceylon, the Mauritius, Labuan (off Bornoe); the "Straits Settlements" of Singapore, Penang, and Malacca; Hong-Kong (China); and Aden, at the mouth of the Red Sea.—C. IN AFRICA.—The Cape Colony and Natal; the west coast settlements of Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast, Gambia, and Lagos; and the islands of Ascension and St. Helena.—D. IN NORTH AMERICA.—The Dominion of Canada, Prince Edward's Island, Newfoundland, British Columbia and Vancouver's Island, the Hudson's Bay Territory, and the regions on the Arctic Ocean, except the N.W. corner from 141° W. longitude, which was lately Russian America, and is now the United States' territory of Alaska.—E. IN THE WEST INDIES.—Antigua, the Bahamas, the Bermudas, with Turk's I. and Calico (Keys), Dominica, Grenada, Jamaica, Montserrat, St. Christopher's (or St. Kitt's), Anguilla, Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Tobago, Trinidad, Tortola, and some of the lesser Virgin Islands; also British Guiana (Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice) on the north coast of S. America; and British Honduras in Central America.—F. IN AUSTRALASIA OR OCEANIA.—The Australian colonies of Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Western Australia; Tasmania; and New Zealand. Far removed from all the rest are the Falkland Islands in the Southern Atlantic, and the uninhabited Antarctic Continent (or Archipelago) discovered by Sir J. C. Ross in 1844.
REMARKS ON THE HANOVERIAN LINE—(CONTINUED).

THE NATIONAL DEBT.—It is not the practice of borrowing (as is sometimes stated) but the process of funding, that dates from the Revolution of 1688. The loans, which our early kings begged or extorted from the Jews, were merely personal; and, even after Parliament gave security for public loans, they were purely temporary. It was not till after the Restoration that State debts began to assume a permanent character. In 1684, securities bearing interest were made negotiable, and a part of the revenue was set aside to meet them. In 1672, £1,282,000 of revenue had been pledged for the immediate payment of loans advanced by goldsmiths and bankers, when Charles II. suddenly shut up the Exchequer.

In 1699, an Act of Parliament provided for the redemption of a moiety of the original amount, and the conversion of the other moiety into a permanent debt, bearing 5 per cent. interest. This moiety, of £564,265 was the nucleus of the Permanent National Debt, begotten to the country at the Revolution; and besides this there was about £400,000 of outstanding debt. The total amount in 1691 is reckoned at £3,120,000, bearing an interest of £322,000. The wars of William against Louis XIV. quadrupled the debt to £12,552,486, in 1701; those of Anne trebled it again to £26,175,460, in 1714; from the Peace of Utrecht to that of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), in spite of 21 years of peace, 13 years of war doubled the amount to £75,812,123. Meanwhile, however, the able measures of Walpole and Pelham for reducing the rate of interest bore such fruits that, whereas the annual charge on a little over 36 millions, in 1714, was £3,065,135, that on nearly 70 millions, in 1748, was still but £3,165,765. The glories won by Chatham in the Seven Years War were paid for by almost another duplication of the debt to £132,716,049, with an annual charge of £5,032,738, in 1783; and the contest of George III. with the Americans and their allies added above 100 millions more.

But the climax was reached in the gigantic struggle with revolutionary and Imperial France, into which England entered, in 1793, with a debt of £339,653,421, and from which she emerged, in 1815, with the fourfold burden of £902,324,000 (including the capital value of terminable annuities and all other charge). Forty years of peace (notwithstanding the addition of 20 millions of compensation to the West Indian slaveholders in 1833, and 10 millions for the Irish famine in 1847) reduced the debt by one-ninth, or 100 millions, in 1854, when it stood at the minimum of £500,616,000; but in two years the Russian War raised it to £581,722,000. This increase was just effaced in the next 10 years by a period of prosperity, and by the falling in of more than 2 millions of Terminable Annuities in 1861 and 1867. Meanwhile, the annual charge has been diminished since the peace by successive reductions of interest, till the interest on the nominal capital practically stands at 3 per cent. The reduction of the capital has been affected chiefly by the application of one-fourth of the annual surplus under an act of George IV.; but the policy has recently prevailed of raising new loans (as those for fortifications) by Terminable Annuities, and of converting stock into the same form. By the application of this principle on a large scale in Mr. Disraeli’s Budget of 1867, the debt was reduced in 1868 to £797,031,650; at an increased annual charge of £27,100,585. On 1st April, 1874, the debt stood as follows: Unredeemed Funded Debt, £4,479,600; capital value of Terminable Annuities, £51,300,600; Total, £4,779,294,200.
REMARKS ON THE HANOVERIAN LINE—(continued.)

NATIONAL WEALTH AND RESOURCES.—These burthens of taxation and of debt, from which, even before the great French war, national ruin was predicted, are now borne more easily than a fourth part of them was borne at the Revolution; because the national wealth has increased in a still larger proportion. Population, as we have seen, has increased six-fold; and the productiveness of the soil (including both arable and pasture) has probably advanced in the same ratio, under the operation of enclosure acts, improved methods of cultivation, and the use of steam in tillage; and to these supplies were added from abroad (in 1866) corn to the value of about £40,000,000, and cattle worth £4,000,000, besides articles of exclusively foreign produce.

Important as these results are, they are thrown into the shade by that growth of Manufactures, which dates from the first half of the reign of George III., and was fostered by a series of ingenious inventions, such as the spinning-jenny by Hargreaves (1767), the water-frame by Arkwright (1789), the mule by Crompton (1779), the power-loom by Cartwright (1785), and above all (for we cannot enter into the details of various manufactures) the Steam-engines by Watt (1776). The imports of raw cotton were 715,008 lbs. in 1718; 8,970,393 lbs. in 1765; 11,328,039 lbs. in 1782; 26,000,000 lbs. in 1800; 695,000,000 lbs. in 1840; and 1,377,129,986 lbs. in 1866. The simultaneous growth in the production of coal and iron, and the effects of Watt’s great discovery on mining enterprises (for which it was first designed) cannot be glanced at. The increase in the consumption of coal since the Revolution has been at least 100 fold; more than 105 millions of tons having been raised in 1867; more than 6 millions brought into London; and more than 10 millions exported. The production of iron has increased from about 10,000 tons to about 4,000,000 tons.

INTERCOMMUNICATION.—This growth of industry has at once created and been promoted by an equal advance in the facilities for the movement of persons, goods and letters. At the Revolution, the badness of the roads scarcely permitted the use of waggons, and goods were mostly carried by pack horses; travellers journeyed on horseback or stage-waggons, while the more wealthy were slowly dragged in their own lumbering coaches by post horses, numerous from necessity and not for ostentation; the newly established letter-post only reached a pace of five miles an hour; and the highwayman ruled the road. Stage coaches were indeed, begun under Charles II.; but it was not till 1784 that Mr. Palmer’s mail-coaches effected the journey from London to Bath in 10 or 18 hours; nor till 1818 that MacAdam invented his smooth hard roads, of which some 30,000 miles have been made. The great epoch of the Canals, which we owe chiefly to the genius of Brindley and the enterprise of the Duke of Bridgewater, coincides with the last year of George II. It is computed that there are now 2,600 miles of canals, and 2,500 of navigable rivers in Great Britain, and 510 in Ireland. As to the progress of Railways, only a few of the landmarks can be pointed out. Their use in collieries and mines dates from 1786. The first line sanctioned by Parliament was laid from Croydon to Wandsworth, in 1801; the first of George Stephenson’s railways for passenger traffic, the Stockton and Darlington, was opened in 1825; and the great epoch of the system was the opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway on 15th of Sept., 1830; when the use of locomotive engines, the speed of which had been proved by Stephenson’s “Rocket” the year before, was finally adopted. At the end of 1866, the authorised capital embarked in the railways, of the United Kingdom was £262,684,466 (above 3½ths of the National Debt). Upon 13,804 miles at work, 8,125 locomotives, drawing 19,228 carriages and 7,278 attendant vehicles (besides 2,345,941 waggons for live stock and goods) carried 274,391,382 passengers over about 73 millions of miles in the aggregate; the average number of journeys being 11 for each inhabitant of England and Wales; 7½ for each in Scotland; and 2½ for each in Ireland. The total receipts were £328,184,154; the working expenses £18,811,673; and the average profit was about 8.37 per cent. on the capital.

POST AND TELEGRAPH.—We have already noticed the foundation of the Post Office in the Stuart period, when the Penny Post was anticipated (in London) by Robert Dockwra (1655), whose enterprise was adjudged by the King’s Bench an infringement of the monopoly granted to the Duke of York, from whose accession the profits of the Letter Post became a part of the crown revenue. The two-penny post was established in London in 1794. Sir Rowland Hill’s scheme for a uniform Penny Post, prepaid by affixed stamps, was introduced in 1840; and the system of Money Orders (begun in 1792), was revived about the same time. The Book Post was established in 1865; the conveyance of Newspapers having been a privilege long since granted as a compensation for the stamp. In 1867, there were delivered in the United Kingdom nearly 776 millions of letters (an average of 144 per house and 26 per head); and nearly 103 millions of newspapers, books, samples, and patterns. About £20,000,000 were received and paid by money orders. The gross revenue was £6,668,214, and the total cost of the service £2,546,856. The Electric Telegraph was first brought into practical use by Sir C. Wheatstone and Mr. Cooke in 1858; the first submarine cable between England and France was laid in 1861, and the electric union between England and America, temporarily effected in 1866, was established in 1866. In 1868 an act was passed for the acquisition of the Electric Telegraphs of Great Britain by the Post Office.

COMMERCIAL AND NAVIGATION.—The following comparison of Imports into Great Britain from all parts of the world furnishes the simplest test of our commercial progress:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Before Free Trade</th>
<th>Since Free Trade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1710</td>
<td>£4,755,777</td>
<td>£103,579,689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1810</td>
<td>41,138,135</td>
<td>217,485,924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1840</td>
<td>82,004,000</td>
<td>275,249,653</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above figures are not so clearly compared, owing both to the distinction between native and foreign produce and to the different systems of computation (the official values being much greater than the declared). It will be enough to state that the total official value of exports from Great Britain to all parts of the world rose from £6,097,120, in 1700, to £1,910,397,180 in 1851; and the declared value of British and Irish produce exported rose from £74,148,722 in 1851, to £188,827,735 in 1866.
REMARKS ON THE HANOVERIAN LINE—(CONTINUED).

The amount of English Shipping at the Revolution scarcely exceeded 300,000 tons; in the middle of the eighteenth century it was about 600,000 tons less than that of London now. In 1866 there were registered 21,718 merchant ships of the United Kingdom (exclusive of river steamers), with a tonnage of 61 millions, employing nearly 300,000 men, and foreign vessels of about half the above tonnage entered and left our ports. The application of Steam to navigation, first proposed in 1735, and tried on the Thames in 1801, was brought into practice by Fulton, in America, 1807. The first steam vessel was built in England, in 1815; and Ocean Steam Navigation was opened up by the simultaneous voyages of the Sirius and Great Western from Bristol to New York, in 1838. The Screw Propeller was first used by F. P. Smith, in 1838.

A general idea of the progress of Great Britain in wealth during the present century may be obtained from the returns of the Property and Income Tax. In 1904 a tax of 6 per cent. produced £4,550,000; in 1815, a tax of 10 per cent. produced £14,975,557; the tax was repealed in 1816. On its revival, by Sir R. Peel, it produced above 8 millions, at 7d. in the pound, in 1844, and more than 6 millions, at 4d. in the pound, in 1866. In that year the total amount of property and profits assessed was a little over 370 millions, of which above 125 millions were the incomes of real property (Schedule A), and above 167 millions the profits of trade and professions (Schedule D), the latter having increased much more than the former. The rateable value of property in England and Wales was 90 millions in 1866. Among the less wealthy classes, habits of providence have been encouraged by the establishment of Savings Banks, in 1815, and the system was adopted by Government in connection with the machinery of the Post Office in 1861; and that machinery was further used for the granting of small life insurances and deferred annuities, in 1866. Prosperity, after diminishing greatly from the climax it reached in 1839, showed an alarming increase in 1866, 1867, and 1868. The rates for England and Wales, which were £319,000 in 1866, rose to £1,555,904 in 1870, to £2,184,600, in 1875, to £2,925,421 in 1872, and to £3,111,422 in 1875; and stood at nearly 7 millions in 1870, the amount in Scotland being £230,779, and in Ireland £75,774.

SOCIAL AND INTELLECTUAL PROGRESS.—When we pass from wealth to the other material sources of happiness, and from them to the higher objects of life, we find this period marked by progress in many points, and still more satisfactorily by an awakening to others formerly neglected. Such, for example, is the newly-created Statistical Science, including the drainage, water supply, and lighting of our towns, under legislative supervision, the result of which has been, not only increased convenience and security, but the mitigation of fever and of epidemic diseases, and a perceptible addition to the average duration of human life. The provision of improved dwellings for the people received a stimulus from the donations of Mr. Peabody, an American merchant (£150,000 in 1863, and £100,000 more in 1868), and the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science was founded in 1867 by Lord Brougham.

* Oriel was first used for illumination by Mr. Marsden, in Cornwall, 1798, and applied to the lighting of the streets of London between 1807 and 1829.

EDUCATION.—The same great name is inextricably associated with the cause of Education, in which some of the earlier labourers were Robert Raikes, who founded Sunday Schools about 1781, and Joseph Lancaster, who devoted himself to the instruction of poor children in 1769, invented the monitorial system, and founded the British and Foreign School Society in 1806. From the efforts of his worthy rival, Dr. Bell, sprung the National School Society in 1811. Infant Schools were commenced by Wilderspin in 1816. In 1819 the Charity Commission, moved for by Henry Brougham, began its labours in restoring educational endowments to their proper uses. The Irish National School System, for the common education of Protestants and Roman Catholics, was set to work in 1831. In 1834 the Government began the annual grants for education, which have risen from £20,000 to £1,302,749 in 1868; and in 1839 the administration of these grants, and the inspection of schools aided by them, were placed under a Committee of the Privy Council, the Vice-President of which is virtually a Minister for Education. Therogged School Union was established in 1844; and much might be added of the operations of other voluntary societies. In 1867, the total number of children in the inspected schools of Great Britain was 1,692,112, besides 1,276,708 in other schools; and the Irish National Schools had 818,198 children.

For higher education a great step was taken, also under the leadership of Lord Brougham, by the foundation, in 1826, of University College, London (at first called the London University), with a wider range of literary and scientific learning than that of the older Universities, as well as freedom from religious tests; followed by the foundation of King's College, London, in 1829; and leading to the national institution of the University of London, for granting degrees without any religious restrictions, in 1836. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge have since been reformed, and thrown open to students of all religions; and the great Public Schools are in progress of remodelling.

CHEAP LITERATURE.—The name of Brougham stands also associated with those of Charles Knight and William and Robert Chambers, in the van of the movement for the extension of cheap literature, which was made possible by the invention of the paper-making machine in 1801, and of the steam printing machine in 1814. The Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge was founded simultaneously with University College, and its Penny Magazine (the first great example of a cheap illustrated periodical of high excellence) was published in the same year with Chambers's Journal, 1832. The increase of Newspapers, under the stimulus of postal facilities, the reduction and final abolition of the stamp, advertisement and paper-duities, and the aid of inventions, can only be glanced at. The "Times" was first published as the "Daily Universal Register," in 1788, and under its present name in 1788. Penny Daily Papers were commenced on the abolition of the stamp duty in 1854. In 1866, 1,404 newspapers were published in the United Kingdom.

The progress of general literature, of science, and of art, as well as the religious and moral state of the nation, are subjects too large to be entered upon in these pages.

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| Continental Sovereigns of Lesser European States, Popes, Presidents of the United States, Governors-General of India, and Prime Ministers Since the Accession of George I. |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Great Britain** | **Papacy** | **Sovereigns of Portugal** | **Sovereigns of Sardinia** | **Sovereigns of Sweden** | **Duchy of Savoy** | **States of Holland** | **States of Poland** | **Prime Ministers of England** |

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Independence of the United States of America acknowledged

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**1789:** Independence of the United States of America acknowledged

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1815-30. George IV. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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1829. William IV. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

1830. William IV. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

1847. Victoria.

---

1862. William III. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

1883. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

1901. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

1910. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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1919. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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1929. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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1938. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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1956. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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1965. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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2010. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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2028. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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2037. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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2046. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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2055. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

2064. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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2073. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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2082. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

2091. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

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2100. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

2109. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

2118. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

2127. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

2136. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

2145. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

2154. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

2163. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

2172. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

2181. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.

---

2190. Edward VII. Prince of Wales, Regent.
**Genealogical Table of the Hanoverian Line**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generation</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Father</th>
<th>Mother</th>
<th>Spouse</th>
<th>Children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>Edward</td>
<td>Duke of York</td>
<td>Sophia Charlotte</td>
<td>Prussia</td>
<td>Victoria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>William</td>
<td>Duke of Cumberland</td>
<td>Anne</td>
<td>Cumberland</td>
<td>Augusta, Adolphus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Frederick</td>
<td>Prince of Wales</td>
<td>Sophia Dorothea</td>
<td>Electress of Hanover</td>
<td>Augusta, Landgravine of Hesse-Cassel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>George I</td>
<td>Prince of Hanover</td>
<td>Caroline Matilda</td>
<td>Christian VII of Denmark</td>
<td>Frederick IV</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The other daughters of George III were: Elizabeth (== Landgravine of Hesse-Homburg); Mary (== Duke of Gloucester); Sophia; and Amalia; there were also two sons who died in infancy, Octavius and Alfred.*
### TABLE ILLUSTRATING THE CLAIMS OF BALIOL AND BRUCE TO THE CROWN OF SCOTLAND.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Branch</th>
<th>Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>David I.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Henry Prince of Scotland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>William (the Lion)</td>
<td>David, Earl of Huntingdon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alexander II.</td>
<td>Margaret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Isabella</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alexander III.</td>
<td>Dervorgild</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Robert Bruce (claimant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Henry Hastings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Margaret, Eric, King of Norway</td>
<td>John Baliol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[Robert Bruce]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>John Hastings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Margaret, the Maid of Norway</td>
<td>Philip III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Charles of Valois</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE ILLUSTRATING THE CLAIM OF EDWARD III. TO THE CROWN OF FRANCE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Branch</th>
<th>Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Philip III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philip IV.</td>
<td>Louis X.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philip V.</td>
<td>Charles IV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charles</td>
<td>Isabella</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Philip VI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philip V.</td>
<td>Jane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charles</td>
<td>Edward III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Charles of Navarre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE ILLUSTRATING THE WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Branch</th>
<th>Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Philip III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philip IV.</td>
<td>Maria Anna = Ferdinand III., Emperor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charles II.</td>
<td>Maria Theresa = Louis XIV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leopold I. (by 2nd wife)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Margaret Theresa = Leopold I., Emperor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joseph, Emperor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Charles, Archduke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maria Antoinette = Elector of Bavaria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louis, Duke of Burgundy</td>
<td>Louis, the Dauphin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Joseph Ferdinand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louis XV. of France</td>
<td>Philip V. of Spain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Battle of Towton (Yorkshire), March 29th, 1461. Edward IV defeated the Lancastrians under Somerset, son of the Duke slain in the first battle of St. Albans, Queen Margaret, and Henry VI. Henry VI retired to Scotland.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battle of Bosworth Field (Leicestershire), August 22nd, 1485. Richard III was defeated by Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond. Richard fell, and Henry was proclaimed King as Henry VII.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PRINCIPAL BATTLES OF THE PARLIAMENTARY WAR, A.D. 1642-1651.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Battle of Edgehill (Warwicksire), October 23rd, 1642. Between the Royalists under the king and Prince Rupert, and the Parliamentary army under the Earl of Essex. The battle was indecisive. The Earl of Lindsey fell on the Royalist side.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Battle of Marston Moor (Yorkshire), July 3rd, 1644. Prince Rupert, having forced Fairfax and the Scots to raise the siege of York, joined his forces to those of Newcastile, and gave battle to the Parliamentary army, under Cromwell. The Royalists were defeated with great loss.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle of Naseby (Northamptonshire), June 14th, 1645. The Royalists were commanded by the King and Prince Rupert; the Parliamentary army by Cromwell, Ireton, and Fairfax. The left wing of the latter, under Ireton, was routed by Prince Rupert, but the military genius of Cromwell decided the fortunes of the day, and Charles was totally defeated.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IMPORTANT TREATIES AND ALLIANCES.

Treaty of Wallingford, A.D. 1194.
Between Stephen and the Empress Maud. Its conditions were that Stephen was to keep the crown of England and was to succeed by Henry, the son of Maud; that William, the brother of Stephen, should be confirmed in all the lands possessed by his father before he became King, and that the Bishops and Barons should swear fealty to Henry.

Treaty of Brestigny, May 8th, 1356.
The ransom of John, King of France, was fixed at 8,000,000 crowns. Edward resigned all claim to the crown of France, and to the provinces of Normandy, Maine, Touraine, Anjou, and Maine, and retained in full sovereignty Guienne, Gascony, Poitou, Saintonge, the Limousin, Angoumois, Chais and Ponthieu.

Treaty of Troyes, May 31st, 1340.
Between Henry V. and the Duke of Burgundy. Its conditions were, 1. That Henry should marry the Princess Catherine; 2. That he should be Regent of France during the lifetime of King Charles; 3. That Henry should succeed to the throne at the death of Charles.

Treaty of Poissy, 1429.
Between Edward IV. and Louis XI. of France. Edward agreed to withdraw his army from France on condition of receiving 75,000 crowns, was not to have the eldest daughter of Edward—Louis broke off the match in 1465.

Treaty of Estaples, Nov. 3rd, 1471.
Between Henry VII. and Charles VIII. of France. The conditions were that Henry should withdraw his army from France, and that Charles should expel Richard III. and should pay £196,000 and an annual tribute.

Treaty of Westminster, April 4th, 1484.
Between the States General and the English Commonwealth. Its conditions were that the Dutch should pay the usual honour to the English flag; that £30,000 should be paid as compensation for the massacre at Amboyna; and that neither Commonwealth, Hudson's Bay territory and Nova Scotia were ceded to the English by France, and Musco and Gibraltar by Spain—By the Treaty of Edinburg (1713), Spain resigned Naples, Milan and Sardinia to Austria.

The Quaduple Alliance, 1718.
Between England, France, Austria and Spain, against Philip V. of Spain, who sought to obtain the Regency of France, and to regain the territories ceded by Spain by the Treaty of Utrecht. In 1720 peace was concluded by Phillip, who joined the Quadruple Alliance. The Sardinians were defeated at Cape Passaro by Admiral Nyg.

Treaty of Hanover, Sept. 3rd, 1735.
Between England, France and Prussia, to counteract the first Treaty of Vienna between Austria and Spain, by which the East India Company, established at Ostend by the Emperor, was guaranteed, and the Allies, by secret articles, agreed to demand the restitution of Gibraltar. Sweden and Holland also acceded to the Treaty.

Treaty of Seville, Nov. 9th, 1729.
Between England, France and Spain, by which the English was granted to England, and the English agreed to the succession of the Infant Don Carlos to the Lowdy of Parma.

Treaty of Vienna, March 16th, 1731.
Between England, Spain and the Emperor: It was agreed that the Charter of the Ostend East India Company should be cancelled, and that England should guarantee the Frugianse Republic.

Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748.
Between England, Holland and Austria on one side, and France and Spain on the other, terminating the Austrian War, in which England had aided Maria Theresa. Its conditions were that England and France should mutually assure each other in peace and war, and that Prussia should resign Silesia. France engaged to demolish the fortifications of Dunkirk.

Peace of Paris or Fontainebleau, Feb. 10th, 1763.
Between England, France and Spain, closing the Seven Years' War, in which England had been the ally of Prussia. By this Treaty France ceded to England Canada, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, several of the West Indian Islands, and which the fortifications of Port Royal, and exchanged for Belgium. Spain ceded Florida to England.

Peace of Versailles, Sept. 3rd, 1783.
Between England and the United States (France, Spain and Holland, terminating the American war of Independence. England recognized the independence of the United States, and gave them the right of fishing on the banks of Newfoundland; the Danish West Indies and St. Lucia for Dominica, Grenada and other West India islands, and restored Chandos, Labrador and Pondicherry in the East Indies. To Spain, England ceded Minorca and the Floridias, and to Holland all her possessions, except Napoléon.

Peace of Amiens, March 25th, 1802.
Between England and France, Spain and Holland, terminating the First Revolutionary war. England ceded all the French, Spanish and Dutch colonies acquired in the late war, except Ceylon and Trinidad; restored Malta to the Knights of St. John, and Egypt to the Porte. France evacuated Naples and the Papal States.

First Peace of Paris, May 30th, 1814.
Between France and England, Austria, Russia and Prussia. France was reduced to her limits of 1793. England was to retain Malta, Tobago, St. Lucia, and the Island of France, but was to restore all other French and Spanish colonies, as well as the East Indian colonies, except Ceylon. Hanover was made a kngd., with descent only in the male line. Napoléon retained the title of Emperor. Elia was resigned to him.

The War of 1812—14, between England and the United States, was ended by the Treaty of Ghent (Dec. 24th, 1814).

Second Peace of Paris, Nov. 29th, 1815.
Between France and England, Austria, Russia and Prussia. France was reduced to her limits of 1793; and was to pay £100,000,000 of compensation to England, and evacuate Belgium, which were to be restored.

Third Peace of Paris, March 20th, 1814.
Between Russia and England, France, Austria, Saxony and Turkey. The Russian and Turkish forces were drawn back from the mouth of the Danube; her protectorate in the Danubian Principalities was abolished; the Black Sea and Danube were neutralized for commerce; Russia agreed to declare the fortifications of Sebastopol, and not to maintain a naval force in the Black sea.

(Reduced by the Conference of London 1812.)
IMPORTANT CHARTERS AND STATUTES.

Constitutions of Clarendon, A.D. 1164.

Of these provisions, sixteen in number, the principal were:—that the clergy should be brought under secular jurisdiction; that no tenant in chief should be excommunicated, and no clergy should leave the realm without the king’s consent; that the king should approve the election of the bishop; that appeals should lie from the Spiritual Courts to the king; and that the bishops should do homage for the lands of their sees.

Magna Charta, June 19th, A.D. 1215. Provided that no aids should be levied from the Tenants of the Crown without their consent; and that no freeman should be imprisoned but by the lawful judgment of his Peers (vide p. 44).

Statute of Westminster I. 1 Edw. I.

For the reformation of various abuses and defects.—It may well be called a Code.

Statute of Gloucester, 6 Edward I. c. 1.

For the better administration of justice.

Statute of Mortmain, “De Vitis religiosis,” 7 Edw. I., Prohibited the gift of lands to religious societies, without the consent of the Lord of the Fee.

De Donis Conditionales, 13 Edw. I., c. 1 (Westminster II.), Created estates tail; securing the transmission of lands through the different generations of the same family; and enacted that, in default of issue, the estate should revert to the donor.

Quia Emptores,” 18 Edw. I., Prohibited subinfeudation, and the creation of new Manors.

Confirmation of the Charters, 25 Edw. I., Confirmed Magna Charta, and the Charter of the Forests. The latter provided that all the land afforested since the accession of John should be thrown open, that illegal and excessive punishments should be abolished, and that all forest abuses should be inquired into and removed.

Statute of Treason, 25 Edw. III., Limited the crime of High Treason to 1, compassing the death of the king; 2, Wearing war against him; and 3, Aiding his enemies.—(Additional safeguards, of the greatest importance for the accused were added by the 1 & 2 Will. III., c. 3 (1696): “An Act for regulating trials in cases of treason and misprision of treason,” and by another act of 7 Anne.)

Statute of Pains and Penalties, 16 R. II., c. 6.

Put out of the king’s protection any person procuring at home, or elsewhere, bills, excommunications, instruments, etc., which touch the king, his crown, and realm.

Act of Supremacy, 25 Hen. VIII., and 1 Elizabeth, Vested the ecclesiastical supremacy in the Crown, and punished the denial of it, for the first offence, with forfeiture of goods; for the second, with the penalty of Presumption; and for the third, with the penalty of Treason.

Act of Uniformity, 1 Eliz., c. 1, Compelled attendance at Parish Churches, prohibited the use of any but the Established Liturgy, and punished “anything spoken in derogation of the Book of Common Prayer,” for the third offence with imprisonment for life.

Petition of Right, 8 Car. I., c. 1.

Enacted, 1. That no loan or tax should be levied without consent of Parliament; 2. That no man be imprisoned but by legal process; 3. That martial law be not executed.

17 Car. I., c. 10, Abolished the court of Star Chamber, and declared that neither the king nor Privy Council have any authority to determine any cause relating to the subject’s goods or lands; and that any person committed by warrant of the king or council, may have a Habeas Corpus. C. 11 abolished the Court of High Commission. C. 14 declared ship-money illegal.

12 Car. II., c. 24, Abolished military tenures, converting them into freeholds; thus taking away all warships, aids, escusages, and fines for alienation; deprived the Crown of the right to pre-emption and purveyance, and granted in lieu thereof to the king a revenue of excise and custom.

Corporation & Test Acts, 13 Car. II., c. 1 & 2, Required conformity to the Established Church in all municipal, civil and military officers. Repealed a.d. 1828.

Act of Uniformity, 13 Car. II., c. 4, Incorporated the penal clauses of the Act 1 Elizabeth; it required that all clergymen should possess episcopal ordination; should declare the unlawfulness of resistance to the king under any circumstances; should abjure the “Solemn League and Covenant,” and should declare their assent and consent to the Book of Common Prayer.

Habeas Corpus Act, 31 Car. II., c. 2, Provided that prisoners, on application to the judges, may obtain their discharge, unless detained by legal process; that jallers not delivering to prisoners, within six hours after demand, a copy of the warrant of commitment, be fined £100; that prisoners be indicted the first term after their commitment; and that no person, once delivered by the writ of Habeas Corpus, be re-committed for the same offence.

Toleration Act, 1 Will. & M., c. 18, Repealed the Acts requiring Dissenters to conform.

Bill of Rights, 1 Will. & M., c. 2, Declared illegal the dispensing power, the erection of Courts of High Commission, and the keeping a standing army, without the consent of Parliament. It secured freedom of debate, and the right of the subject to petition the king.

Act of Settlement, 13 & 14 Will. III., c. 3, Limited the succession to the crown to Sophia, Electress of Hanover, and her heirs, being Protestants. It enacted that the Judges should hold their office during life; and that no person holding office under the Crown should be capable of holding a seat in Parliament. The latter clause was subsequently modified (vide p. 94).

Septennial Act, 1 Geo. I., c. 38, Repealed the Triennial Act, and extended the duration of Parliament to seven years.

Reform Acts, 2 Will. IV., and 31 & 32 Vict., Abolished “rotten boroughs; extended the franchise ultimately to tenants at £50 in counties, and rated householders and lodgers in boroughs; and redistributed the seats among old and new constituencies (vide pp. 134, 135).
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