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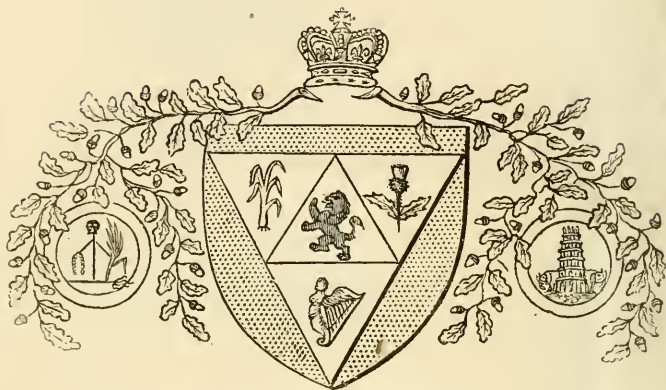
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History of England.

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EMBLEMATICAL FRONTISPIECE.



On a shield *Or*, the emblem of strength and durability, is an Equilateral Triangle, emblematical of the British Constitution: this is subdivided into other Triangles, bearing the national emblems of the component parts of the British Empire,—namely, the Lion, the Thistle, the Leek, and the Irish Harp.

Above the shield is the Imperial Crown of the Realm, from which spring two branches of Oak, sheltering the symbols of the East and West-Indies.

A

HISTORY OF ENGLAND;

IN WHICH THE

MOST REMARKABLE EVENTS

ARE ILLUSTRATED BY

NUMEROUS SYMBOLICAL ENGRAVINGS.

BY MISS M. A. RUNDALL.

Second Edition Improved,
WITH GREAT ALTERATIONS AND ADDITIONS.

LONDON :

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1829.





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EPISTLE DEDICATORY.

TO MY NEPHEWS AND NIECES.

MY DEAR CHILDREN,

THE trouble I have taken to illustrate the History of England by symbolical diagrams, is amply repaid by the assurance you give me, that the study of it has afforded you no less pleasure than improvement: and that the plan I have adopted, has awakened in your minds a more lively interest for the history of your native country, than any preceding work on the same subject.

I am fully aware that young people, in general, consider the History of England much less amusing than the Histories of Greece and Rome. It is not, however, that the incidents and facts recorded, are in themselves less interesting; but there is an air of romance, a mixture of truth and fable, that accompanies ancient history; and which, to young minds, who are more dazzled by what is splendid than attracted by what is solid: who love to be astonished rather than to be informed, is peculiarly delightful; as their ardent imaginations seem permitted to wander uncontrolled, over the airy regions of fiction. Yet, the simple, unadorned history of our ancestors, though it

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present nothing to captivate the imagination, speaks forcibly to the heart, and offers to our contemplation examples of magnanimity, wisdom, and courage, public and private virtue, no less admirable than those recorded by the Grecian and Roman historians.

In the education of boys, in most public schools, the study of the classics obtain pre-eminence, as by proficiency in them alone, can young men become distinguished at the Universities. The history of their native country seldom forms any part of their regular studies: its importance appears to be overlooked, and the acquirement of it is left to their leisure hours. Boys become familiar with the works of Xenophon, Nepos, Tacitus, and Plutarch; but are too often ignorant of the historians of their own country. They can recite the orations of Demosthenes, or of Cicero; yet are unacquainted with the eloquence of a Chatham, a Fox, a Burke, or a Pitt.

In affecting incidents—in heroic achievements—in the interesting development of its laws, and policy of government, the History of England holds out to youthful Britons ample materials for the exertions of their best feelings.

The untimely fate of Lady Jane Grey, of Charles the First, or of Russel, Sidney, &c., is not less pitiable than the fall of Pompey or of Cæsar. Our Edwards and Henries, our Marlborough, our Wolfe, and our Wellington, are not inferior in military skill to any of the boasted heroes of antiquity.

In what does the defeat of the Persians at Salamis surpass that of the “invincible armada,” or the destruction of the French fleet at the battle of the Nile?

If the virtuous Camillus, forgetful of his wrongs, saved Rome from the devastating fury of the Gauls, was Monk’s a less virtuous act, when he restored to an outcast prince a kingdom, he might have retained, and which he was almost solicited to keep? If Cincinnatus was taken from the plough to fill the chief dig-

nity of Rome, did not Wolsey and Cranmer arise from the meanest situations to the highest offices in church and state? If a Codrus devoted himself to death for the safety of his country, is the generous valour of British seamen less worthy of admiration, when, at the memorable siege of Gibraltar, they nobly plunged amidst a sea of fire, to save, at the hazard of their own, the lives of their enemies? What a contrast is presented to us in the conduct of the victorious Black Prince, after the battle of Poitiers, and that of ancient conquerors! While the former, with true nobility and greatness of mind, attended upon the person of a captive monarch, anxious, by the courtesy and respect of his demeanour, to soften the bitterness of defeat: we behold the latter, first dragging their royal victims at their chariot-wheels, exposed to the shouts and insults of a barbarous rabble; and next consigning their hapless victims to a cruel and ignominious death.

We can find parallels for the virtues of the ancients, but, thank Heaven, we can find no parallel to their vices! The most vicious of our Princes,* bear no comparison with Tiberius, Caligula, Nero, and many others; nor did the most successful of British usurpers† proscribe in cold blood the lives of thousands of their fellow citizens, like Sylla, Marius, and the Augustan Triumvirate of Rome!

To engage the attention of youth, to induce them to study with pleasure and with attention the history of the country which gave them birth, to excite their patriotism, to inspire them with that love for the constitution and the laws, which, in mature life, shall render them enlightened citizens, guarding

* Richard III., Henry VIII., Mary, and Charles II.

† Henry IV. and Oliver Cromwell.

with equal vigilance the throne from the attacks of licentiousness and anarchy ; and the people from tyranny and despotism, and strongly to impress upon their memories the leading events of the history of their country, has been my aim ; and to you, my beloved nephews and nieces, this Second Edition is dedicated, as a small testimony of the sincere esteem and love of your affectionate Aunt,

M. A. RUNDALL.

Port Hill House,

Jan. 1822.

P R E F A C E.

“ Because our understanding cannot in this body found itself but on
“ sensible things, nor arrive so clearly to the knowledge of things invi-
“ sible, as by orderly conning over the visible creature, the same method
“ is necessarily to be followed in all discreet teaching.”—*Milton.*

WE learn by experience, that the transactions in which we may be personally engaged, are those which continue most powerfully impressed upon our minds; and, that those events are the most perfectly remembered, in all their details and circumstances, to which we may be eye-witnesses. Such being the case with points rendered visible, and palpable as it were, to the senses, it became evident to me that great advantage would result from communicating events gone by, in a manner assimilated, as nearly as possible, to that, which so perfectly impresses the acts of present times upon our minds.

Pictorial designs certainly approach nearest to the natural system of impressing events upon the mind, of any plan heretofore used; but, to be rendered efficacious, they must be adopted to a very considerable extent, by which great bulk would be rendered necessary, and a heavy expense involved. To avoid these inconveniences, it became necessary to devise that which should embrace the spirit, and avoid the inconvenience of pictorial designs.

Symbols appeared to give this effect: they may be considered to bear the same relation to picture, that picture does to matter of fact; the first is the actual representation of the event which

took place, the latter may be considered as type of the representation. Symbols may be said to bear the same relation to picture that allegory does to matter of fact. They have, besides, this advantage: the student must consider and reflect, before he can discover the bearing of the "type;" and the greater the exertion to discover the meaning may be, the more tenaciously will the mind retain the meaning when discovered.

The use made by the *ancients* of symbols, was also in my mind when I adopted the plan, and I might defend the use of them upon their authority; but such a course is unnecessary: the sanction which the plan has received, and the acknowledgments which have been given of its efficacy, preclude the necessity of entering into such a disquisition.

I do not lay claim to much originality, as to the idea of illustrating by symbols, however much I may consider myself entitled to consideration on this account, for the manner in which the idea has been carried into effect. It has been my endeavour to define and perfect a system, the utility of which has been long acknowledged, but which has not heretofore been carried into practice to any extent. That my humble efforts have been received with approbation is a source of much satisfaction to me; and I cannot conclude without expressing my gratitude for the support with which I have been favoured.

M. A. R.

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THE
HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS.

THE Island of Great Britain is situated on the North-west of Europe, and lies between 50 and 58 degrees of North latitude. It is bounded on the North by the Atlantic Ocean; on the South by the English Channel; on the East by the German Ocean; and on the West by St. George's, or the Irish Channel.

At what time the Island of Britain was peopled, is uncertain. There are no accounts that can be depended upon prior to the arrival of Julius Cæsar; but he found the Southern parts full of people of a very warlike disposition, and supposed them to have been a colony of the Gauls. This opinion is embraced by most of the ancient as well as modern writers. The Britons, according to Cæsar and other Roman historians, were very numerous, and had their country well stocked with cattle. Their houses resembled those of the Gauls, being a confused parcel of huts, placed at a small distance from each other; to which all the avenues were slightly guarded with ramparts of earth, or with trees. They used copper or iron plates, weighed by a certain standard, instead of money. They were in a state

of wretched barbarism, even when compared with their rude neighbours, the **Gauls**, on the Continent. The use of clothes was scarcely known among them; but it was a general custom to paint their bodies. They lived chiefly on milk, on flesh procured by the chase, on acorns and on berries. They are said to have been fierce and cruel, and exceedingly blood-thirsty. The arms of the Britons were, a sword, a short lance, and a shield. They usually fought in chariots, some of which were armed with scythes at the wheels.

DEFINITION.

Gauls.—The ancient inhabitants of France, then called Gallia or Gaul.



EVENTS

Prior to the Conquest.

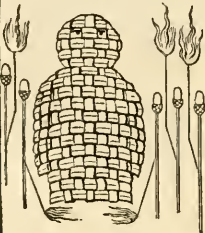
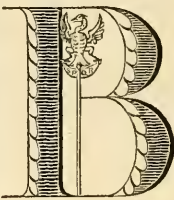
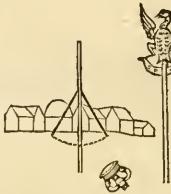
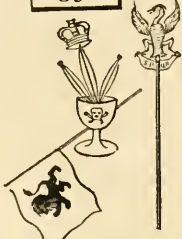
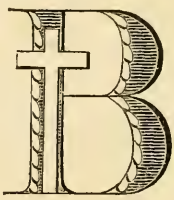
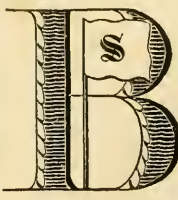

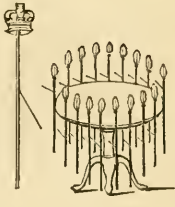
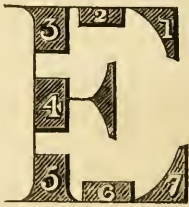
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Fig. 1.—A DRUDICAL SACRIFICE.

Explanation.—The upright lines represent Druids: they are surmounted with acorns, because the oak was held sacred among them, and considered as a symbol of the Deity. The torches in their hands shew that they are going to offer a sacrifice; and the figure of wicker-work is the idol in which they consumed their victims.

Fig. 2.—THE ROMAN INVASION.

The letter B signifies Britain. The Roman Eagle planted on its base, its invasion by the Romans.

Fig. 3.—CARACTACUS PRISONER AT ROME.

The upright line in the centre is Caractacus. His hands are chained; he is therefore a prisoner. The crown lying at his feet, reversed, denotes his loss of Empire. The Roman Eagle erect, shews by whom he was defeated; and its towering above the city, marks that city to be Rome.

Fig. 4.—BOADICEA.

The triple line surmounted with a crown, is Boadicea; her two daughters are near her. A death's head on the cup denotes poison. The British Flag recumbent, and the Roman Eagle erect, shew that she was defeated by the Romans.

Fig. 5.—CHRISTIANITY INTRODUCED INTO BRITAIN.

Shewn by the cross being inserted in the letter B.

Fig. 6.—BRITAIN INVADÉD BY THE SAXONS.

The Saxons are represented under the symbol of a flag inscribed with an S.

Fig. 7.—MARRIAGE OF VORTIGERN AND ROWENA.

Vortigern (the upright line surmounted with a crown) holds a ring in one hand, which he is presenting to Rowena, with the other he is giving to Hengist a symbol of the county of Kent, which is a hop-pole.

*Fig. 8.—KING ARTHUR AND THE KNIGHTS OF THE ROUND TABLE.**Fig. 9.—THE UNION OF THE HEPTARCHY, UNDER EGBERT.*

The letter E is divided into seven parts, which are united on one side, forming the initial for both England and Egbert.

A DRUIDICAL SACRIFICE.

THE first and most distinguished order, among the Gauls and Britons, was that of the Druids: they were chosen out of the best families; and the honours of their birth, joined with those of their function, procured them the highest veneration among the people. They were versed in Astrology, Geometry, Natural Philosophy, Politics, and Geography. They were the interpreters of Religion, and the judges of all affairs indifferently. Whoever refused obedience to them was declared impious and accursed. They believed in the immortality of the soul, and, according to some authors, in the transmigration of the soul. The Druids had one chief, who acted as high-priest: his authority over the rest was absolute; and he commanded, decreed, rewarded, or punished, at pleasure. To them was committed the education of youth. They worshipped the Supreme Being under the symbol of the oak, and performed all their religious rites in a wood or grove, having no other temple. It is said that they sacrificed human victims, whom they burned in large wicker idols, made so capacious as to contain a multitude of persons, who were thus consumed together.

DEFINITIONS.

Astrology.—The science which pretends to predict future events from the appearance of the stars.

Geometry.—The science which teaches the properties and relations of quantities having extension; that is, length, breadth, and thickness. It is the foundation of the Mathematics.

Natural Philosophy.—The science which treats of the properties and powers of Nature.

Politics.—The science of government.

Transmigration of the soul.—The doctrine of Pythagoras, an ancient Grecian philosopher; who taught, that the soul of man, after his decease, passes immediately into the body of some other animal, until purified from the sins committed in his human state.

Symbol.—A type, that which comprehends in its figure a representation of something else.

THE ROMAN INVASION.

BRITAIN was first invaded by the Romans, under Julius Cæsar, in the year B. C. 55. The motive for this expedition, according to Suetonius, was a desire of enriching himself with British pearls, which were then much esteemed. The pretence, however, which he made use of to justify his invasion, was, that the Britons had sent assistance to the Gauls, during his wars with them. The natives, informed of his intentions, endeavoured to appease him by submission, which did not however retard the execution of his design. After some resistance, Cæsar effected a landing at Deal; and having obtained several advantages over the Britons, withdrew his forces into Gaul, upon their promise of obedience to the Roman power. The stipulations which he had exacted not being fulfilled, he returned with a greater force the ensuing summer, and totally defeated Cassibelaunus.

After the death of Cæsar, the Britons enjoyed their liberty unmolested for almost a century. Under the reign of Claudius, the Romans renewed their hostilities; and in the time of Nero, Suetonius Paulinus obtained many victories, particularly over the Druids, in the Isle of Anglesey.

Julius Agricola, who governed Britain during the reign of Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian, defeated the Britons in every encounter; and having fixed a chain of garrisons between the frith of Clyde and Forth, he secured that part of the island which the Romans had subjugated, from the incursions of the Caledonians.

The Emperor Adrian built a rampart between the river Tyne and the frith of Solway, which was further strengthened by Severus.

The empire, about this time, was assailed on all sides by rapacious plunderers; and further weakened by intestine dissensions, so that the Romans could no longer attend to the remote province of Britain. They therefore took their final

leave of the island about the year 448, after being masters of it near four centuries.

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CARACTACUS PRISONER AT ROME.

CARACTACUS, king of the Northern Britons, was a renowned warrior, who for nine years made a vigorous stand against the Romans. He was at length defeated by Ostorius, and fled to Cartismunda, Queen of the Brigantes, who delivered him up to the Roman general. When led through the streets of Rome, he could not help exclaiming, as he viewed the grandeur and splendour of that noble city, "Alas! how is it possible that a people possessed of such magnificence at home, could envy me an humble cottage in Britain!" When brought before the Emperor, he addressed him in these words: "It my prosperity, O Claudius, had been as conspicuous as my birth and fortune, I should now have entered this city as a friend, and not as a prisoner; nor would you have disdained the friendship of a prince descended from such illustrious ancestors, and governing so many nations. My present condition, I own, is to you honourable, to me humiliating. I was lately possessed of subjects, horses, arms, and riches. Can you be surprised that I endeavoured to preserve them? If you, Romans, have a desire to arrive at **universal** monarchy, must all nations, to gratify you, tamely submit to servitude? If I had submitted without a struggle, how much would it have diminished the lustre of my fall, and of your **victory**! And now, if you resolve to put me to death, my story will soon be buried in oblivion; but if you think proper to preserve my life, I shall remain a lasting monument of your clemency." This speech had such an effect upon Claudius, that he immediately pardoned Caractacus and his whole family, and commanded them to be set at liberty.

DEFINITION.

Brigantes.—The ancient appellation of the inhabitants of Yorkshire, Durham, Lancashire, Westmoreland, and Cumberland.

BOADICEA.

PRASUTAGUS, king of the Iceni, by his last will, left the Roman Emperor joint-heir with his two daughters, in hopes of obtaining his favour and protection for them by so great an obligation; but the event turned out very different. No sooner was he dead, than the Romans seized on all his possessions, and treated the queen, Boadicea, and her daughters, with the utmost cruelty and indignity.

Boadicea was a woman of too haughty a disposition tamely to suffer insult; she therefore persuaded the Iceni to take up arms in her favour, who, being joined by the Trinobantes, and some other nations, poured like a torrent on the Roman forces, who are said by some authors to have sustained a loss of 70,000 men on this occasion (but Milton, in his history, says the Romans amounted to 10,000 men only, and estimates their loss at no more than 400): however they soon after defeated the Britons with a terrible slaughter; and Boadicea, to avoid falling into their hands, put an end to her life by poison.

DEFINITIONS.

Iceni.—The ancient name of the inhabitants of Norfolk and Suffolk.

Trinobantes.—The ancient name of the inhabitants of Essex.

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CHRISTIANITY INTRODUCED INTO BRITAIN.

CHRISTIANITY is supposed to have been originally introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or some of his disciples. In the year 596, Pope Gregory I. sent Augustine into Britain, to convert the English Saxons to Christianity. Augustine, with forty Monks, landed on the Isle of Thanet; and having sent some French interpreters to King Ethelbert, to inform him of their errand, the King gave them permission to convert as many of his subjects as they could; and assigned their place of residence at Doro-

vernum, now called Canterbury : to which they were confined till the king himself was converted; whose example had a powerful influence in promoting the conversion of his subjects.



BRITAIN INVADED BY THE SAXONS.

THE Britons having suffered severely from the incursions of the Picts and Scots, after the Romans had taken their final departure from Britain, resolved to invite the Saxons to assist them in repelling their northern neighbours. Ambassadors were accordingly sent, who were very favourably received; and an expedition was fitted out under the command of Hengist and Horsa, who soon after their arrival in Britain defeated the Picts and Scots. Vortigern at that time governed the kingdom; and was so highly pleased with the behaviour of his allies, that he bestowed large possessions on them.

DEFINITION.

Picts and Scots.—The ancient inhabitants of North Britain.



MARRIAGE OF VORTIGERN AND ROWENA.

HENGIST, the Saxon commander, having highly ingratiated himself with Vortigern, persuaded that weak monarch to authorize him to send for further aid, under the pretence that the enemy were still unsubdued: accordingly, another body of Saxons arrived; and along with these came Rowena, the daughter of Hengist. Vortigern fell in love with her; and, in order to obtain her in marriage, divorced his lawful wife. Hengist pretended to be averse to the match, but Vortigern obtained his consent by investing him with the sovereignty of Kent. The latter was soon after deposed by his subjects, who raised his son Vortimer to the throne. Vortimer reigned only six years; and upon his death Vortigern was restored. The Saxons still continued to gain ground; and Hengist, under

pretence of concluding a treaty with Vortigern, invited him to a feast. The King accepted the invitation, and went accompanied by three hundred of his nobility, who, during the entertainment, were all massacred by the treacherous Saxons. Vortigern alone escaped: he was some time after killed by lightning.



KING ARTHUR AND THE KNIGHTS OF THE ROUND TABLE.

THE history of King Arthur is so much obscured by absurd, romantic, and ridiculous fables, that some have supposed no such person ever existed; but a most convincing proof of his existence is, that his tomb was discovered at Glastonbury in Somersetshire, in the reign of Henry II. This renowned prince, the son of Uther Pendragon, King of Britain, is said to have defeated the Saxons under Cerdic in twelve pitched battles. The last of these was fought on Badon Hill, supposed to be Bamsdown, near Bath: in which the Saxons received such a terrible overthrow, that for many years they gave the Britons no further molestation. He is said to have instituted the famous order of the *Knights of the Round Table*.

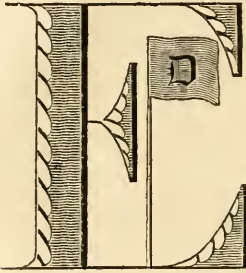


THE UNION OF THE HEPTARCHY, UNDER EGBERT.

THE Saxon Heptarchy consisted of seven independent kingdoms, established at different times by these persevering invaders. The first Saxon kingdom in Britain was that of Kent, founded by Hengist; the second was the kingdom of the South Saxons, containing Sussex and Surrey; the third, the West Saxons, comprising Cornwall, Devon, Dorset, Wilts, Hants, and Berks; the fourth, the East Saxons, containing Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertfordshire; the fifth, under

the name of Northumberland, embraced Lancaster, York, Durham, Cumberland and Northumberland, and part of Scotland, as far as Edinburgh Frith; the sixth, the East Angles, comprized Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridgeshire; the seventh, Mercia, included the counties of Gloucester, Hereford, Worcester, Warwick, Leicester, Rutland, Northampton, Lincoln, Huntingdon, Bedford, Buckingham, Oxford, Stafford, Salop, Nottingham, Chester, and part of Hertfordshire.

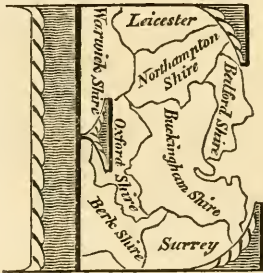
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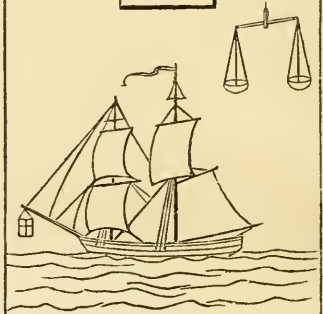
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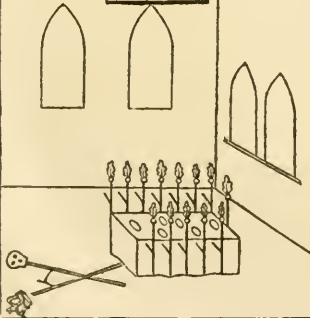
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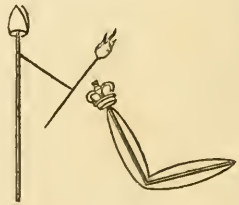


PLATE II.

Fig. 1.—ENGLAND INVADED BY THE DANES.

The Danes are represented by the flag inscribed with a D.

Fig. 2.—ALFRED THE GREAT.

The King with a harp in his hand is Alfred, who, in the disguise of a shepherd, entered into the Danish camp, which is shewn by the Danish standard in front of the tents. On the right of the diagram is Selwood Forest; and the small upright lines are the soldiers of Alfred, awaiting his commands.

Fig. 3.—ENGLAND DIVIDED INTO SHIRES.*Fig. 4.*—BENEFITS OF ALFRED'S GOVERNMENT.

The ship is emblematical of navigation; and the scales of justice.

Fig. 5.—THE DEATH OF EDMUND.

The assassin is distinguished by a line surmounted by a death's head.

Fig. 6.—EDWY.

The upright line, with a mitre, is Archbishop Odo; in his hand he holds a firebrand, with which he persecuted Queen Elgiva, the beautiful wife of King Edwy. She is represented as bent beneath his power.

ENGLAND INVADED BY THE DANES.

SOON after Egbert became sole monarch of England, the Danes landed in the Isle of Sheppey, plundered it, and escaped with safety. The next year they landed in Dorsetshire, and were defeated by Egbert at Charmouth; after which they formed an alliance with the Britons of Cornwall. Two years afterwards they made an irruption into Devonshire. About this time Egbert died, and left the kingdom to Ethelwolf, his son; during whose government, and the reigns of Ethelbald and Ethelred, his immediate successors, the Danes continued their incursions, until they had subdued almost the whole country.



ALFRED THE GREAT.

ALFRED the Great, the fourth son of Ethelwolf, succeeded his brother Ethelred; and, on his accession to the throne, found himself involved in a dangerous war with the Danes, who had penetrated into the heart of his kingdom. For a time he was obliged to live concealed; but hearing that some of his subjects had defeated the Danes, and taken their magical standard, he wrote letters to his nobility, informing them of the place of his retreat, and inviting them to come and consult with him on the measures they had best adopt for the public advantage. In order to ascertain the situation of the enemy, Alfred disguised himself as a shepherd; and, with a harp in his hand, went into their camp, through which he passed without suspicion; and was even admitted into the royal tent, to play to Guthurm, the Danish King. Having, by this means, acquired an exact knowledge of the situation of the enemy, he returned, and dismissed his nobility to their respective homes, with orders for each to draw together as great a force as he could, and meet him upon a certain day in Selwood Forest. All this was accomplished with so much

secrecy and expedition, that Alfred appeared at the head of a formidable army, before the Danes had the least intelligence of his design. He took advantage of their surprise and terror, fell upon them, and totally defeated them at Eddington. Those who escaped from the battle fled to a neighbouring castle, where they were soon after besieged, and obliged to surrender at discretion. Alfred granted them very favourable terms. Guthurm, with thirty of his chief officers, embraced the Christian faith; and, on their baptism, Alfred answered for Guthurm at the font, giving him the name of Ethelstone.



ENGLAND DIVIDED INTO SHIRES.

AFTER reducing the Danes to obedience, Alfred enjoyed a profound peace for three years, and sedulously bent all his thoughts towards improving and regulating the internal government of his country. He divided England into counties and hundreds, and founded the University of Oxford. All our historians agree in representing him as one of the bravest, wisest, and best kings that ever reigned in England.



BENEFITS OF ALFRED'S GOVERNMENT.

ALFRED gave great encouragement to Navigation in general, promoted Commerce, and enlarged the Navy, which had previously been much neglected. He was a great economist of time; and as clocks and watches were not then invented, he measured his time by wax candles, made of certain dimensions; and in order to prevent their wasting, from being exposed to the air, he invented the lanthorn. He was a lover of justice; instituted the leading principles of the Common Law, still in force, and is generally allowed to have laid the basis of our excellent Constitution. The introduction of the Trial by Jury is, by some, attributed to him but others say; that it is

of a much more ancient date. He died in 901. The policy and vigour which he had infused into the civil and military branches of government, and the spirit caught by his nearest descendants, upheld the country during five connected reigns. His second son, and immediate successor, Edward the Elder, not only repelled the new invasions which the Danes attempted, but reduced some foreign settlers already in the kingdom, and expelled others. He obliged the Scots to submit, forced several tribes of Britons to co-operate in the national defence; and, having fortified nine cities or military stations, left the kingdom independent, internally tranquil, and ready armed against foreign aggression. He died in 925.

DEFINITIONS.

Navigation.—The art of sailing, or of conducting ships from one port to another.

Commerce.—The interchange of commodities between different nations; trade.

Common Law.—Those laws which are common to the whole kingdom, originating in custom from time immemorial. They were formed into a code, first by Alfred, and afterwards by Edward the Confessor.

Trial by Jury.—A jury consists of twelve persons, peers or equals of the person accused; they are sworn to investigate the truth of the evidence brought before them, and upon their decision (which is called a verdict) the prisoner is acquitted or condemned.

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THE DEATH OF EDMUND.

ON the death of Edward the Elder, the infancy of his legitimate children gave Athelstan, his natural son, an opportunity to ascend the throne. He had to overcome several domestic confederacies and foreign leagues, before he could enjoy the crown in tranquillity. He reduced Constantine, King of Scotland, who had repeatedly seconded movements against his authority in the English provinces; and he imposed a

tribute on Wales. To encourage commerce, he enacted the remarkable law, that a merchant who had made three long voyages on his own account should be admitted to the rank of thane or gentleman. After a reign of nine years, he died in 934. Edmund, the third King from Alfred, was the son of Edward the Elder, and brother of Athelstan. He was the first who inflicted capital punishments: finding that mulcts and fines were not sufficient to prevent robberies, he ordered that, on the apprehension of a gang of robbers, the oldest of the band should be hanged. This was reckoned a very severe law at that time. The virtues, abilities, and temperance of this prince, promised a long and prosperous reign; but unhappily, as he was one day celebrating a feast in Gloucestershire, he saw sitting at one of the tables, with his attendants, a man of the name of Leolf, a robber whom he had banished for his crimes. The King ordered him to leave the room: this he refused to do; which so enraged Edmund, that, starting from his seat, he sprang upon the villain, who plunging a dagger into the King's breast, he fell dead upon the bosom of his murderer.

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EDWY.

EDWY was the son of Edmund, and nephew to Edred, who had succeeded Edmund. Elgiva, his beautiful wife, became obnoxious to the Monks from having married within the degrees of affinity prohibited by the canon law. On the day of the coronation, Edwy having retired from the noisy festivities of his nobles, to enjoy the conversation of his queen and her mother in private, Dunstan rushed furiously into the room; and, after upbraiding the King, pushed him back into the hall. Edwy, to revenge this insult, accused Dunstan of malversation, and banished him the kingdom; but this excited the indignation of the whole nation, who universally considered Dunstan as a man

of great sanctity. In the mean time Archbishop Odo sent a party of soldiers to the palace, who seized the Queen, and branded her on the face with a red-hot iron; after which they banished her into Ireland, and obliged the King to divorce her. The Queen, however, being cured of her wounds, returned into England, in the hope of rejoining the King, whom she still considered as her husband; but, unfortunately, she was intercepted by a party of the Primate's soldiers, who put her to death with the most ferocious cruelty.

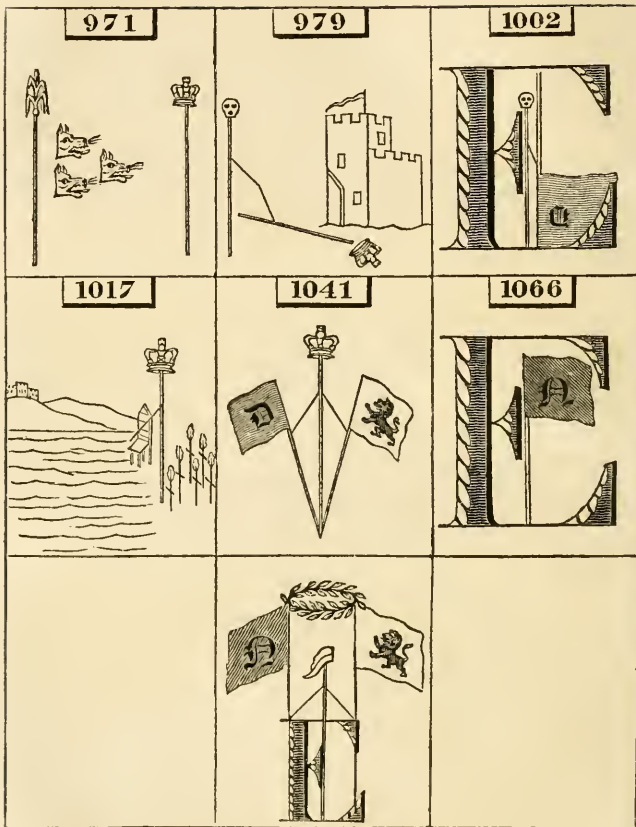


PLATE III.

Fig. 1.—EDGAR.

The upright line, surmounted with a leek, represents the Welsh; and the wolves' heads shew the tribute which that country paid to Edgar.

Fig. 2.—DEATH OF EDWARD THE MARTYR.

The flag on the top of the castle shews it to be a royal palace: it is the residence of Elfrida. The King is fallen to the ground, pierced through the body by the assassin who stands over him.

Fig. 3.—ETHELRED.

The Danish flag reversed by an assassin, shews the massacre of the Danes. The letter E, that it extended all over England.

Fig. 4.—CANUTE REPROVING HIS FLATTERERS.

The line surmounted by a crown, occupying a chair placed on the sea-shore, and encircled by symbols for knights and nobles, represents Canute reprovng the flattery of his courtiers.

Fig. 5.—REIGN OF EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.

The King, holding the English and Danish flags furled together at the bottom, denotes the union of the English and Danes under Edward the Confessor.

*Fig. 6.—ENGLAND INVADED BY THE NORMANS.**Fig. 7.—CONQUEST OF ENGLAND BY WILLIAM OF NORMANDY.*

William, with the ducal coronet, is standing on the territory of England (represented by the letter E), holding the flags of England and Normandy, united at the top by a crown of laurel.

E D G A R.

THE reign of Edgar, the brother of Edwy, proved one of the most fortunate which is recorded in the ancient English history. This King took the most effectual methods, as well for preventing tumults at home as invasions from abroad. He built a powerful navy; and, in order to keep the seamen in the practice of their duty, commanded the fleet, from time to time, to make the circuit of his dominions. Edgar took warning from the fate of his predecessor, and paid due court to the Monks; who, on their part, celebrated him with the highest praises: though some of his actions prove that he was a man incapable of being bound either by the ties of religion or humanity. Edgar had taken great pleasure in hunting wolves, which at that time were extremely numerous in England. At last, finding that they had all taken shelter in the forests and mountains of Wales, he changed the tribute, imposed on the Welsh by Athelstan, into an annual tribute of three hundred wolves' heads; and thus produced such diligence in hunting them, that they have never since appeared in England.



DEATH OF EDWARD THE MARTYR.

EDWARD the Martyr was the son of Edgar by his first wife. His stepmother, Elfrida, was a woman of exquisite beauty, but ambitious, haughty, treacherous, and cruel. She was the daughter and heiress of Olgar Earl of Devonshire. Before she had been introduced at Court, the fame of her beauty reached the King, who, desirous of knowing whether the report of her charms had not been exaggerated, sent his favourite, Ethelwold, to see her, and to bring him a faithful report; declaring, that if she equalled his expectations, he would marry her. The favourite no sooner saw the incomparable fair one than, forgetful of his master's commission, he asked and obtained her in marriage for himself. On his return to Edgar, he represented

Elfrida to be destitute of any superior attractions, but that her birth and inheritance made her an advantageous match for a subject. The King afterwards discovered the deception, and one day told him that he was determined to see the lady who had been the subject of such universal panegyric. Ethelwold hastened to prepare his wife for this dreaded visit; and, relating his past artifices, conjured her to conceal her beauty as much as possible from the monarch: but she, influenced by ambition and revenge, heightened the effect of her charms by every thing that depended on herself. She succeeded in attracting the King's attention; and, upon the murder of her husband, who, as some represent, was killed by the King's own hand, she became the wife of Edgar, and by him had a son named Ethelred. On the death of Edgar, in 958, she was desirous to secure the crown for this son, to the exclusion of Edward, the rightful heir. In the first attempt to execute her ambitious design, she was disappointed; and, notwithstanding her intrigues, Edward was crowned by Dunstan. This prince, though he well knew how strenuously his stepmother had opposed his succession, yet behaved to her with the greatest respect. Being one day in the neighbourhood of the castle where she resided, he paid her a visit, unattended by any of his retinue. After mounting his horse, with a design to depart, he desired some liquor to be brought to him. While he was drinking, a servant of Elfrida's stabbed him in the back: the King, finding himself wounded, clapped spurs to his horse: but, fainting from the loss of blood, he fell from his saddle, and his feet becoming entangled in the stirrup, he was dragged along till he expired. This amiable prince reigned only four years.

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ETHELRED.

IN the reign of Ethelred, surnamed the Unready, the Danes again invaded England; but after they had ravaged Essex and

the adjacent provinces, the weak Ethelred, by a bribe of ten thousand pounds, induced them to depart. In the year 993 they again appeared, under the command of Sueno their King; but were once more bought off. This shameful compromise, however, procured only a temporary relief: the Danes resumed their accustomed ravages; till at length Ethelred became desirous of conciliating that formidable people, by forming an alliance with the chief of a Danish settlement in France. He accordingly married Emma, sister to Richard II., Duke of Normandy. Although the Danes had been long established in England, yet their descendants did not assimilate in manners nor unite in interest with the English inhabitants, and were always ready to betray them to the foreign Danes. Hence hereditary animosities were perpetuated between the two races of people; which induced Ethelred, acting on the barbarous policy common to weak princes, to give secret orders for a general massacre of the Danes throughout the kingdom. Accordingly, on the 13th of November 1002, they were all put to the sword, and neither sex nor age was spared.

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CANUTE REPROVING HIS FLATTERERS.

Soon after the massacre of the Danes by order of Ethelred, Sueno appeared off the western coast, menacing vengeance for his slaughtered countrymen. He ravaged the whole country: agriculture was neglected; a famine ensued; and the kingdom was reduced to the greatest misery. At length Ethelred, dreading alike the violence of his enemies and the treachery of his subjects, fled into Normandy. Upon the death of Sueno, which happened shortly afterwards, the people recalled their banished monarch; but misfortunes had not taught him wisdom, and he governed with his accustomed imbecility until his death.

Canute, the son and successor of Sueno, ravaged the eastern coast with merciless fury. Edmund Ironside, who had succeed-

ed his father Ethelred, in vain opposed him : he was obliged to divide the kingdom with him. Dying soon afterwards, he left Canute in possession of the whole. This fierce monarch, having exiled the two sons of Edmund Ironside, the heirs of the royal Saxon line, to secure himself in the possession of the throne, appeared to be desirous of obliterating the remembrance of his former cruelties by his public virtues; for he became as remarkable for his justice, humanity, and religion, as he had formerly been for his cruelty, rapine, and violence. Upon a certain occasion, being desirous of shewing his courtiers the futility of the exaggerated adulation which they bestowed on him, he commanded his chair to be brought, and, having seated himself on the sea-shore whilst the tide was coming in, he thus addressed the sea: "O sea, thou art under my dominion; the land on which I sit is mine: I charge thee approach no further, nor dare to wet the feet of thy sovereign." The tide, however, continuing to advance; he arose, and, turning to his courtiers, exclaimed: "Learn from hence, that the title of Lord and Master belongs only to Him whom both wind and sea obey."

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REIGN OF EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.

HAROLD and Hardicanute, the successor of Canute, had, by their cruelties and avarice, rendered themselves hateful to the nation at large, who bestowed the crown on Edward, surnamed the Confessor, a prince of the Saxon line. His reign was long and happy. His lieutenant, Harold, repressed and chastised the incursions of the Welsh, by employing, at once, bodies of light-armed foot to pursue them to their fortresses, parties of cavalry to command the open country, and a squadron of ships to make attacks on their coast. The King managed to unite the English and Danes so firmly in support of each other, that henceforward they formed but one people.

ENGLAND INVADED BY THE NORMANS.

AFTER the death of Edward the Confessor, there were two competitors for the crown: Harold, the son of Earl Godwin, and William Duke of Normandy. Harold affirmed, that he had been nominated to the succession by the late King's will; and, being greatly beloved, he was elected by the unanimous voice of the people, and crowned the very day after the death of Edward. Soon after his accession, his brother Tosti, assisted by the Norwegians, invaded England. Tosti was defeated by Harold at Sandfort. The King had scarcely time to rejoice at this victory when news was brought him that the Normans were landed in Sussex. Previous to this invasion of England by the Normans, William Duke of Normandy had sent an embassy to England, summoning Harold to resign the kingdom, and upbraiding him with the breach of an oath, which, during the life of Edward the Confessor, when Harold was a fugitive in Normandy, William had extorted from the latter, to this effect: That he would assist William in enforcing his pretensions, and second the intentions of King Edward. Harold replied, "That the oath with which he was reproached was
" neither lawful nor obligatory, whether in regard to the fear
" of violence under which it was extorted, or the transfer of
" the succession, which he had no authority from the late King
" to make. That he had obtained the crown by the united
" suffrages of the people; and should show himself unworthy
" their favour did he not strenuously maintain those liberties
" with which they had entrusted him. That the Duke, if he
" made any attempt by force of arms, should experience the
" power of a united nation, conducted by a prince who, sensible of the obligations imposed on him by his royal dignity,
" was determined that the same moment should put a period
" to his life and to his government."

CONQUEST OF ENGLAND BY WILLIAM OF NORMANDY.

THE battle which gave to William of Normandy the appellation of Conqueror, and the title of King of England, was fought near Hastings, a sea-port town in Sussex. The night previous to the battle was passed very differently by the two armies. The English spent the interval in riot and feasting; the Normans in devotion and prayer. When the signal for battle was given, the Norman army advanced at once, singing the hymn, or song, of Roland. Their first attack, though desperate, was received with equal valour by the English. After a furious combat, which remained long undecided, the Normans, overcome by the difficulty of the ground, began to give way, and confusion was spreading among the ranks, when William, who found himself on the brink of destruction, hastened with a select band to the relief of his dismayed forces, and restored the action: but finding that the English were aided by the advantage of the ground, he determined to make use of a stratagem to allure them from it; for this purpose he ordered his troops to make a hasty retreat into the plain, and, when pursued, immediately to turn on the enemy. The artifice succeeded; the English were repulsed with great slaughter, and driven back to the hill; where, being again rallied by the bravery of Harold, they were able, notwithstanding their loss, to maintain their post and continue the combat. At length Harold was slain by an arrow, whilst fighting with great bravery at the head of his men. His two valiant brothers shared the same fate. The English, discouraged by the fall of their princes, gave ground on all sides, and were pursued with great slaughter by the victorious Normans. Thus was gained the famous and decisive victory of Hastings, after a sanguinary conflict, which lasted from morning till sunset. William had three horses killed under him. There fell on the side of the Nor-

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mans near 15,000 men, while the loss was still more considerable on the part of the vanquished.

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WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

William the Conqueror was the natural son of Robert, Duke of Normandy, by Arlette, a beautiful young woman of Falaise, with whom Robert fell in love as she stood at the door gazing on him as he passed through the town. William possessed great abilities and vigour of mind; was ambitious, bold, and enterprising; yet, in times of danger and difficulty, cool, deliberate, and indefatigable. He was not devoid of generosity: but it seemed in him to be more the result of a desire to be celebrated as much for his clemency as for his severity, than a principle of virtue. His aspect is said to have been nobly severe and imperious; his stature tall, his constitution robust, and the composition of his bones and muscles so strong, that there was hardly a man of that age who could bend his bow, or handle his arms.



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| <p>1068</p> | <p>1078</p> | <p>1078</p> |
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| <p>1087</p> | <p>1087</p> | <p>1087</p> |

PLATE IV.

Fig. 1.—THE CURFEW.

The extinguisher, marked with the figure 8, denotes that at that hour all fires and candles were to be put out. The figure on the right hand is an exact representation of the ancient *Couvre-feu* or *Curfew*.

Fig. 2.—BUILDING OF THE TOWER OF LONDON.

On the left is a man holding the plan of a fortification; a tower is rising on the right hand: and various implements necessary in the art of building are scattered in the foreground.

Fig. 3.—ORIGIN OF THE DISSENTIONS IN THE CONQUEROR'S FAMILY.

The Princes, William and Henry, are sportively throwing water on the head of their elder brother, Robert, who is passing through the court. Robert, enraged, has drawn his sword, and is encouraging his followers to resent the supposed indignity.

*Fig. 4.—ROBERT SOLICITING HIS FATHER'S FORGIVENESS.**Fig. 5.—THE NEW FOREST, WITH A RUINED VILLAGE.**Fig. 6.—DOMESDAY BOOK.**Fig. 7.—DEATH OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.**Fig. 8.—DIVISION OF THE CONQUEROR'S DOMINIONS AMONGST HIS SONS.*

THE CURFEW.

A BELL, called the Curfew-bell, was ordered by William to be rung every evening at eight o'clock; at the sound of which all the inhabitants were compelled to extinguish their fires and candles. It was probably instituted by him, less for the purpose of securing the dwellings of the people from fire, than for that of keeping them in check, and thereby preventing those nocturnal meetings among them, which he feared might be prejudicial to his government.



BUILDING OF THE TOWER OF LONDON.

IT was long before the English could be brought quietly to submit to the government of their conquerors. William, on all occasions, gave the preference to his Norman followers; bestowed on them the estates of those English barons who had opposed him, and invested them with all the real power of the kingdom. This greatly disgusted the English, who considered that he owed the kingdom more to their generosity than to actual conquest. The oppression of the people, and the exclusion of the English nobility from power, produced frequent insurrections on the part of the vanquished, and repeated punishments on that of the Conqueror. To so great a height had their dissensions risen, that seldom a day passed but some Normans were assassinated. The King had disarmed the city of London, and every town where the inhabitants were warlike or populous. During the time that William was absent in Normandy, the English formed a plan for a general massacre of the Normans, similar to that of the Danes: but the timely return of the King frustrated their sanguinary project. From this time he not only lost all confidence in his English subjects, but began to regard them as inveterate and irreconcilable enemies. He had already erected many fortresses in different parts of the country, and quartered his Norman soldiers

wherever he dreaded an insurrection. He built the Tower of London to overawe the citizens, and from that time determined to treat the English as a conquered nation.

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ORIGIN OF THE DISSENTIONS IN THE CON- QUEROR'S FAMILY.

WILLIAM had four sons, and several daughters. Richard, the second son, had been killed, in hunting, by a stag. The latter part of the King's life was greatly embittered by the dissensions in his own family. Robert, the eldest, was a prince who inherited all the bravery and ambition of his ancestors. He had formerly been promised the government of Maine, a province in France, and had also been declared heir to the Duchy of Normandy; but on his demanding from his father the fulfilment of these promises, William gave him a direct denial, observing, that, "it was not his custom to throw off his clothes until he went to bed." Robert not only declared his resentment at this usage, but publicly expressed his jealousy of his brothers, William and Henry. An open rupture soon occurred. The two young princes one day, in a juvenile frolic, threw some water on their elder brother, as he passed through the court, after leaving their apartment. Robert instantly construed this jest into a studied indignity; and his resentment being inflamed by some of his favourites, he drew his sword, and ran up stairs to take vengeance on his brothers. The whole castle was quickly filled with uproar and confusion: the King with some difficulty appeased the tumult, but he could not allay the animosity which from that moment prevailed in his family.

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ROBERT SOLICITING HIS FATHER'S FORGIVENESS.

ROBERT, denied reparation for the supposed affront (as mentioned in the preceding section), withdrew the same night, and,

with several of his confederates, hastened to Rouen, hoping to surprise the castle: but the vigilance of the governor defeated this design. The popular character of the prince, however, induced all the young nobility, as well of Normandy as of Anjou and Brittany, to espouse his quarrel. Some writers have even supposed that his mother encouraged him in his rebellion, and sent him secret remittances. This unnatural contest lasted some years, and William was obliged to have recourse to the English for support against his son. He accordingly collected an army, and conducted it to Normandy: there he soon defeated Robert, and re-established himself in his native dominions. Robert fled to the castle of Gerberoy, which the King of France had provided for him, and where he was shortly after besieged by his father. The garrison was strong, and, being conscious of their treason, made an obstinate resistance. During the seige, many skirmishes and duels took place under the walls; in one of which the King and his son happened to meet: and both being concealed by their helmets, they attacked each other with great fury. Robert wounded his father in the arm, threw him from his horse, and was preparing to repeat his blow, which would in all probability have cost William his life, had he not called out for assistance. The prince, recollecting his father's voice, leaped from his horse, and raised the fallen monarch from the ground. Struck with remorse for his undutiful conduct, the prince fell on his knees before his father, imploring forgiveness, and promising strict obedience in future. The King at first refused to pardon him, and even denounced his malediction: but they were soon after reconciled, and William took Robert with him to England.



THE NEW FOREST, WITH A RUINED VILLAGE.

WILLIAM delighted greatly in hunting; and, in order to make an extensive forest for this exercise, he laid waste and

depopulated the county of Hampshire for thirty miles: he turned out the inhabitants, and destroyed the villages, without making any compensation to the wretched people, whom he thus cruelly deprived of their fields and habitations. It is worthy of remark, that several of this King's descendants met with their death in this forest: viz. his two sons, Richard and Rufus, and his grandson, Henry of Normandy.

In the time of the Saxons, all the nobility had been privileged to hunt in the royal forests; but William seized all these for his sole personal use, and published the first severe laws to restrain the hunting or shooting of game. The killing of a boar, a deer, or even a hare, was punished with the loss of the trespasser's eyes; whilst the murder of one of the King's subjects might be atoned for by the payment of a moderate fine.



DOMESDAY BOOK.

THIS ancient record, containing a survey of all the lands in England, was begun, according to the testimony of the Red Book in the Exchequer, by order of William the Conqueror, with the advice of his Parliament, in the year 1080, and completed in 1086. The reason assigned for making it, according to several ancient records and historians, was, that every man should be satisfied with his own right, and not with impunity usurp what belonged to another: but, according to other representations, all those who possessed landed estates became vassals to the King, and paid him so much money, by way of homage, in proportion to the lands which they held. This survey, at the time it was made, gave great offence to the people, who feared that it was only a prelude to some new imposition. William took great pains to have it executed with fidelity and impartiality; and though, in some instances, it appears that the commissioners made false returns, yet the authority of Doomsday (or *Domesday*) Book was never called in question:

and whenever it has been necessary to distinguish, whether lands were held in ancient demesne, or in any other manner, recourse has been had to Domesday Book, and to that only, to determine the doubt. Formerly it was secured under three locks and keys; one of which was kept by the treasurer, and the two others by two chamberlains of the Exchequer. It is now deposited in the Chapter-house at Westminster, and is open for the inspection of every person, whose curiosity may induce him to examine it.

DEFINITIONS.

Exchequer.—A Court of Record, in which all causes relating to the revenues of the Crown are managed.

Domesday or *Dem-boc.*—Is of Saxon original, and signifies the Book of the Verdict.

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DEATH OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

WE now approach the last events of William's active reign. During his absence in Normandy, on the expedition against his son Robert, his brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, formed the design of transporting his immense wealth to Rome, to purchase the papacy. William hastened his return, to defeat this scheme. Odo, whose vessel had been detained at the Isle of Wight by contrary winds, was just stepping on board, when William arrived, and ordered him to be arrested. The King sent him prisoner to Normandy; and, notwithstanding the menaces of Pope Gregory VII., detained him in custody.

Soon after he had disgraced Odo, intelligence arrived of a general insurrection at Maine, the inhabitants of which had always been averse to his government. Upon his arrival on the Continent, he found that the insurgents had been secretly excited by the King of France. William, after he had announced hostile intentions against Philip on this account, was detained in bed some time by severe sickness. His delay was ascribed by

Philip to his extreme corpulence, who by his sarcasms stimulated William's resentment and impatience to lead an army into the French dominions. On his recovery, the English monarch levied a powerful army; and, entering the Isle of France, destroyed every thing with fire and sword. He afterwards took Nantes, and reduced it to ashes. But his mode of vengeance hastened the termination of his conquests and life: his horse, happening to put his foot on some hot cinders, plunged so violently, that the King was thrown forward, and severely bruised in the fall. He was carried in a litter to the monastery of St. Germain, where he shortly after expired, penetrated with remorse for the many violences and cruelties of which he had been guilty.

William died the 9th of September 1087, in the sixty-third year of his age, after having reigned twenty-one years over England, and fifty-four over Normandy.



DIVISION OF THE CONQUEROR'S DOMINIONS AMONGST HIS SONS.

WILLIAM left to his eldest son Robert nothing in addition to the dukedom of Normandy and the province of Maine. By a letter, despatched, while his last illness was in progress, to Lanfranc the Primate, he directed him to crown his son William king of England. To Henry, the youngest, he bequeathed only the treasures of his mother Matilda; but foretold that Henry would one day surpass both his brothers in opulence and power.

PLATE V.

WILLIAM RUFUS.

Fig. 1.—NORMANDY INVADED BY THE ENGLISH.

Fig. 2.—INVASION OF ENGLAND BY THE SCOTS AND WELSH.

The Scots are represented by the thistle, and the Welsh by the leak.

Fig. 3.—ORIGIN OF THE CRUSADES.

Peter the Hermit, pointing to the Cross, denotes the origin of the Crusades.

Fig. 4.—NORMANDY MORTGAGED TO WILLIAM RUFUS.

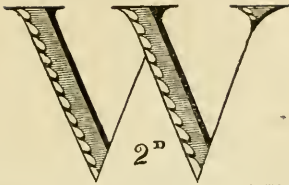
Robert, Duke of Normandy, desirous of going to the Holy Land, which is represented by the cross on the hill, is offering William II. a map of his dominions. The King holds a bag of money which he is to give Robert for the mortgage.

Fig. 5.—WESTMINSTER HALL.

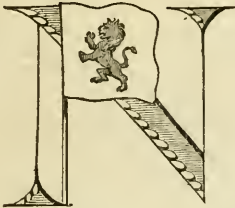
At the upper end is the figure of Justice; and beneath, the twelve Judges.

Fig. 6.—WILLIAM RUFUS KILLED IN THE NEW FOREST.

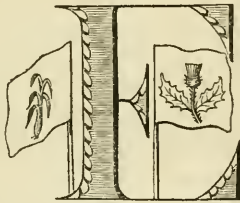
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1090



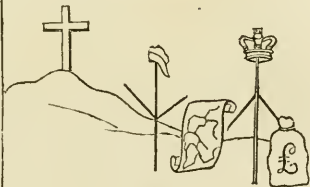
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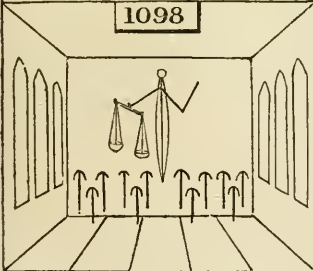
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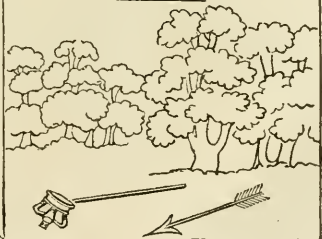
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1098



1100





WILLIAM RUFUS.

THE character of this prince was disgraced by the practice of almost every vice: he was devoid of principle and honour; was haughty, passionate, revengeful, a scoffer at religion, and an inveterate enemy to the English. He appears to have been a violent and tyrannical prince; a perfidious, encroaching, and dangerous neighbour; and an unkind and ungenerous relation. He was so impatient to obtain possession of the throne, that he left his father in the agonies of death, and set out for England. He employed the utmost despatch in getting himself firmly established, fearing that Robert would claim the crown in virtue of his seniority. The haughty, violent, and tyrannical behaviour of the King occasioned many of the nobility to enter into a conspiracy against him; at the head of which was his uncle Odo, Bishop of Bayeux. The King, however, assisted by his English subjects, defeated their project. Some of the conspirators were pardoned, but most of them had their estates confiscated.

During the opposition of the Norman Barons, he had contrived to gain the attachment of the English, by promising to mitigate their burdens, and to grant them liberty to hunt in the royal forests; but as soon as the impending danger was averted, he thought no more of these engagements. After the death of Lanfranc, who had been his preceptor, and who restrained him within some limits, William gave full scope to his rapacity. Not content with oppressing the laity, he seized the temporalities of all the vacant bishoprics and abbeys, and openly put many of them to sale. While his proceedings excited discontent, the terror of his great power prevented commotion.

NORMANDY INVADED BY THE ENGLISH.

IN the year 1090, William thought himself strong enough to undertake the conquest of Normandy, which at that time was in great confusion, owing to the indolence and negligence with which the government there was administered. Several of the nobles had revolted from Robert, and were encouraged in their disaffection by the King of France. Robert also feared the intrigues of his brother Henry, whom, for the sum of three thousand marks, he had put in possession of the district of Cotentin, nearly one-third part of the duchy of Normandy: he therefore surprised him, and kept him for some time a close prisoner; but finding himself threatened with an invasion by William, he gave Henry his liberty, who assisted him in quelling the rebellion of his subjects. The King of England soon afterwards landed in Normandy; but the nobles on both sides interposed, and a treaty of peace was concluded,



INVASION OF ENGLAND BY THE SCOTS AND WELSH.

WHILST William was in Normandy, Malcolm King of Scotland took advantage of his absence to invade Northumberland, whence he carried off a great booty. William, on his return, invaded Scotland, which brought on a peace between the two kingdoms. In order to prevent the future incursions of his northern neighbours, the English King rebuilt the city of Carlisle, which had been destroyed by the Danes. Malcolm, upon some disgust that he received from William, renewed his incursions, but was soon after slain in battle. He had with him a general of the name of Walter, to whom, as a reward for his services, he had given the office of steward of his household. From this officer sprung the unfortunate family of the Stewarts, who for a long time swayed the Scottish sceptre, and for nearly a century that of the English. The Welsh also made many incursions into England, ravaging and plundering the adjacent

counties; but on the approach of the English, they immediately retired to their fortresses in the mountains, where it was impossible to attack them.

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ORIGIN OF THE CRUSADES.

THE Crusades, or Holy Wars, first began in 1096, on the following occasion.—Jerusalem had been taken, and Palestine conquered, by Omar, the successor of Abu Beker, who had succeeded Mahomet himself. This greatly incommoded the pilgrims, who went from all quarters to perform their devotions at the Holy Sepulchre: they were however permitted to go unmolested, on paying a small tribute to the Saracen Caliphs. But, in 1065, Jerusalem fell under the power of the Turks; who being more fierce and barbarous than the former possessors, the pilgrims found they could no longer perform their devotions there in safety. Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens in Picardy, had made the pilgrimage to Jerusalem; and being deeply affected with the danger to which the pilgrims were exposed, as well as with the oppression under which the Eastern Christians groaned, formed the bold design of leading into Asia the vast armies of the West, in order to rescue the Holy Land from the possession of Infidels. He submitted this project to Urban II., who then filled the papal chair. Urban summoned, at Placentia in Italy, a Council, consisting of four thousand ecclesiastics and thirty thousand seculars; and, as no hall could be found sufficiently large to contain such a multitude, the assembly was held on a plain. Here the Pope himself, as well as Peter, harangued the people, representing the lamentable situation of their brethren in the East, and the indignity offered to the Christian name, in allowing the Holy City to remain in the hands of the Infidels. These speeches were so agreeable to the auditors, that the whole multitude, as by one impulse, vehemently declared for the war, and solemnly

devoted themselves to a service which they believed to be so meritorious in the sight of God.

Although Italy had embraced the design with ardour, Urban saw it necessary to engage the cooperation of all the nations of Christendom. He therefore sent Peter to the chief courts in Europe; and meanwhile summoned another Council at Clermont, in Auvergne. The fame of the great and pious project attracted to the meeting an august circle of cardinals, mitred prelates, powerful barons, and princes. When the Pope was in the midst of a pathetic address, the whole assembly cried out, "It is the will of God!" These words were ascribed to a divine impulse; and, after the war was undertaken, the adventurers always employed them as the signal of battle.

An undisciplined multitude, computed at three hundred thousand men, preceded the regular armies, under the command of Peter the Hermit, and Walter the *Penniless*. Traversing Hungary and Bulgaria, on their way to Constantinople, then the capital of the Greek empire, this irregular host was compelled to seek subsistence by plunder; and the enraged inhabitants attacked and slaughtered most of them. About a third part escaped with Peter and Walter. The more disciplined armies followed; and, after passing the Straits of Constantinople, were mustered in the plains of Asia, amounting, altogether, to seven hundred thousand men.



NORMANDY MORTGAGED TO WILLIAM RUFUS.

ALL orders of men were impatient to embark in the Holy War, and every individual who enlisted had the cross affixed to his right shoulder. The nobles, who engaged in it, sold at low prices their ancient castles and inheritances, in the hope of procuring more opulent establishments in the East. The infirm and aged, who could not give their personal assistance, contributed to the expedition by presents and money.

The princes engaged in this first Crusade were, Robert Duke of Normandy, who mortgaged his dominions to Rufus for ten thousand marks; Hugo, Count of Vermandois; Robert, Earl of Flanders; Raymond, Earl of Thoulouse; Godfrey of Bouillon, with his brothers Baldwin and Eustace; Stephen, Earl of Chartres; Hugo, Count of St. Paul; besides many other lords. In this expedition the city of Jerusalem was taken by the confederated army, and Godfrey made King.



WESTMINSTER HALL.

WESTMINSTER HALL was first built by William Rufus, as an addition to a royal palace, and was afterwards rebuilt by Richard II. It is reckoned one the largest rooms in Europe, being two hundred feet long, seventy wide, and ninety high, supported only by buttresses. In this room the Kings of England generally held their coronation, and other solemn feasts. Since the reign of Henry III. the three great courts of Chancery, King's Bench, and Common Pleas, have been held in separate apartments of this hall, and the court of Exchequer above stairs. It is also the principal entrance to the House of Commons and the House of Lords; and when any Peers of the Realm are tried by impeachment, it is fitted up as the Court of Judicature.



WILLIAM RUFUS KILLED IN THE NEW FOREST.

THE acquisition of Maine and of Normandy involved William Rufus in perpetual contests with the haughty and turbulent Barons who inhabited those countries; yet, notwithstanding, he was still desirous of extending his dominions, either by purchase or conquest. William Earl of Poictou and Guienne, had assembled a large army for the purpose of joining the Crusades; and, like Robert of Normandy, offered to mortgage his

dominions for money sufficient to convey him into Asia. The King accepted the offer, and prepared a fleet and army to take possession of those dominions: when an unfortunate accident put a period to his project, and to his life. Walter Tyrrel, a French gentleman, remarkable for his skill in archery, attended the King to a hunting match in the New Forest; and being anxious to shew his dexterity, let fly an arrow at a deer that suddenly started before him. The arrow glanced from a tree, and struck the King to the heart, who instantly fell; while Tyrrel, afflicted at the accident, clapped spurs to his horse, hastened to the sea-side, and embarked for France, where he joined the Crusade that was setting out from that country. The death of William Rufus happened on the 2d of August 1100, before he had completed the fortieth year of his age. He reigned thirteen years.

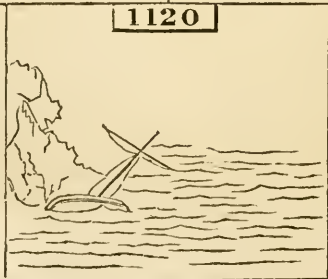
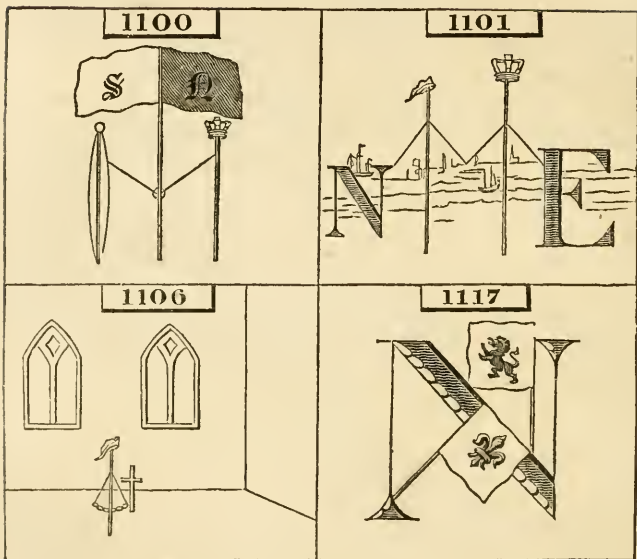
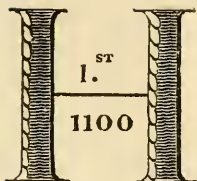


PLATE VI.

HENRY THE FIRST.

Fig. 1.—MARRIAGE OF HENRY AND MATILDA.

Fig. 2.—TREATY OF PEACE BETWEEN ROBERT AND HENRY,
Concluded at Portsmouth, A.D. 1101; by which the former
renounced his claims to England, and the latter his pretensions
to Normandy.

Fig. 3.—ROBERT IMPRISONED IN CARDIFF CASTLE.

Fig. 4.—NORMANDY INVADED BY THE FRENCH.

The symbol of the French forces is a flag with a fleur de lys: their flag is drooping; while the flag of the English, by whom they are defeated, is waving over it.

Fig. 5.—DEATH OF PRINCE WILLIAM.

HENRY THE FIRST.

HENRY I. was the third son of the Conqueror. He is described to have been of middle stature and robust make, with dark brown hair, and serene blue eyes. He was facetious, eloquent, and affable: his capacity, naturally good, was so much improved and cultivated, that he acquired the name of Beau Clerc. He was cool, cautious, politic, and penetrating: his courage was unquestioned, and his fortitude invincible: but he was vindictive, cruel, and implacable; inexorable to offenders, rigorous and severe in the execution of justice. His Norman descent, and connections with the Continent, inspired him with a contempt for the English. At the beginning of his reign, in order to crush a conspiracy of the Norman lords, he, like the preceding monarch, amused the English with promises of liberty: he even signed an illusory Charter in their favour, and had recourse to other temporary artifices, related in the next chapter: but, during his whole reign, his native subjects were treated as an inferior race, and kept in a state of abject depression.

DEFINITION.

Charter.—A deed by which the King passes any grant, to one or more persons, or to any body politic.



MARRIAGE OF HENRY AND MATILDA.

AFTER the death of William, the crown, of right, belonged to Robert, his eldest brother; but Henry, availing himself of Robert's absence in the Holy Land, no sooner heard of the death of Rufus, than he hurried to Winchester, seized the royal treasure, and, in less than three days, got himself crowned King of England, by Maurice Bishop of London. Possession supplied every deficiency of title, and no one dared to appear in behalf of the absent prince. But Henry still looked, with uneasy apprehension, to the possibility of his being dethroned,

should his brother Robert land in the kingdom to enforce his right to the crown. He distrusted the Norman nobility, because he knew that many of them were attached to his brother. To conciliate, therefore, the affection of his English subjects, Henry abolished the Curfew, and passed a Charter, engaging to remove many of the grievous oppressions that had been complained of during the reigns of his father and brother: he further promised a general confirmation and observance of the laws of King Edward. But none of these concessions, as far as they embraced essential benefits, were ever executed; and the grievances proposed to be redressed by the Charter continued in their full extent, and were felt everywhere.

Meanwhile, in order to strengthen his claim to the crown, Henry determined to marry Matilda, the niece of Edgar Atheling; for he was sensible that the English looked back with regret to the interruption of the Saxon line. From a nunnery, where she had been educated, she was therefore taken to be placed on a throne; and Henry hoped, by electing her as his consort, to heal the division, and establish perpetual amity between the Saxons and Normans.



TREATY OF PEACE BETWEEN ROBERT AND HENRY.

WHILST Henry was rendering himself popular at home, his brother Robert had loitered away a twelvemonth in Italy, where he married Sibylla, daughter of the Count Conversana. In 1101 he arrived in England, in order to lay claim to the crown. His fame, on account of his great exploits in Palestine, was such, that he was joined by many noblemen of the first rank; and the whole nation seemed prepossessed in his favour. Henry, however, by paying court to Anselm Archbishop of Canterbury, had secured the army in his interest, with which he immediately marched down to Portsmouth, to meet Robert, who had landed there with his forces a few days before. The

armies lay for some days in sight of each other, both unwilling to commence hostilities ; when an accommodation was effected, through the mediation of Anselm and other leading men ; and the pretensions of the rival brothers were thus settled in an amicable manner. A treaty was entered into, by which it was agreed, that Robert should resign his claim to England, and receive, in lieu of it, an annual pension of three thousand marks ; that if either of the princes died without issue, the other should succeed to his dominions ; that the adherents of each should be pardoned, and restored to all their possessions, in Normandy or England ; and that neither Henry nor Robert should henceforth encourage, receive, or protect, the enemies of each other. The two princes separated with marks of mutual friendship ; but Henry, under various pretences, confiscated the estates of all Robert's adherents : and when the latter returned to England, in order to remonstrate with his brother on this unjust conduct, he met with so bad a reception, that, apprehending his liberty to be in danger, he was happy to make his escape, at the expense of relinquishing his pension.



ROBERT IMPRISONED IN CARDIFF CASTLE.

THE indolent good-nature of Robert, joined to his aversion from business, occasioned the greatest disorder in his dominions. The Normans, admiring the good policy and wise government of Henry in England, petitioned him to come over and redress their grievances. Henry, who only wanted a pretext to invade his brother's territories, readily embraced their offer, and began the conquest of Normandy with the siege of Tinchebray, a place of great strength, and well supplied with every appointment. The Duke of Normandy was not backward in making preparations to receive him : he was joined by the Earl of Montargne, and Robert de Balesme, who brought a considerable force to his assistance. The King of France also sent him

some troops: and several Norman lords, when they found Henry was not acting for them, but for himself, joined their levies to his, and greatly increased his army. Thinking himself, with these reinforcements, a match for his brother, Robert hastened to relieve Tinchebray. The two armies met under the walls of that place: they were nearly equal in numbers: Robert had the strongest line of infantry, Henry the most numerous cavalry. The battle did not last long; for the Norman horse were thrown into disorder at the first onset; and the whole army was quickly put to the rout. The Duke of Normandy, finding it impossible to rally his men, surrendered; as did also Edgar Atheling and the Earl of Montargne. Four hundred knights and ten thousand men were made prisoners. The battle of Hastings had put the Normans in possession of England; the battle of Tinchebray made the English masters of Normandy. The Duke was sent prisoner to Cardiff Castle, in Wales, where he died, after a tedious captivity of twenty-six years. Some authors say, that, in consequence of Robert's attempting to make his escape, Henry ordered his sight to be destroyed, by applying a burning hot basin to his eyes: but the silence of the best historians concerning it renders the point doubtful. The conquest of Normandy was completed in 1106.

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NORMANDY INVADED BY THE FRENCH.

It was the policy of Louis le Gros, king of France, to lose no opportunity of disturbing the government of Henry in Normandy, by encouraging the malcontents, and stirring up the neighbouring princes against him. He invested William Crito, the son of Robert, with the duchy of Normandy, and promised to assist him with all his forces to take possession of it. For this purpose he entered Normandy with a powerful army. Henry prudently waited until the French had vented the first ebullitions of their fury: he then passed over into Normandy

with a considerable body of men, and offered the enemy battle. Louis accepted the challenge; and the two armies engaged. During the fight, a French cavalier, named Crispin, personally attacked the King of England, and struck him so violently, that, notwithstanding his helmet, the King was covered with blood; the sight of which animated him with fresh courage, and summoning all his vigour, he discharged so furious a blow upon his adversary, that he threw him from his horse, and took him prisoner. This exploit roused the spirit of his troops to fresh exertions; and, after a sharp conflict, the enemy was obliged to quit the field, and the standard of France was taken.



DEATH OF PRINCE WILLIAM.

HENRY had taken with him into Normandy his only son, William, in order to have him acknowledged by the people as his successor. On their return to England, in the year 1120, the King, in order to make the voyage more agreeable to the royal youth, allowed him, and many of the young nobility, to go together in one of the vessels of the fleet. The prince, who was then only sixteen years of age, anxious to be first on shore, offered the seamen a reward if they arrived before the King: the pilot, in his eager haste, ran the ship upon a rock; and it was instantly dashed to pieces. William, who had been put into the boat, would have escaped, had he not been induced to turn back, in the hope of saving his sister Maude: this giving other individuals a prospect of saving their lives, several leaped in, and, the boat being upset, they all, except one man, went to the bottom. When Henry heard of the fate of his only son, he covered his face in the agony of grief, and seemed to become suddenly insensible to every source of comfort. He is said to have never afterwards smiled, or to have recovered his wonted cheerfulness. It is doubtful whether the premature death of this prince was not a benefit to the nation, for he had

been often heard to express the utmost hatred to the natives; and to threaten, that when he came to the crown, he would make them draw the plough, and use them as beasts of burden. As Henry had no legitimate children surviving, except Matilda, whom he had betrothed to the Emperor of Germany, he married Adelisa, the daughter of Godfrey Duke of Louvaine, and niece to Pope Calixtus II., but she brought him no children. In the year 1135, Henry died in Normandy, from eating too plentifully of lampreys, having lived sixty-seven years, and reigned thirty-five.

PLATE VII.

Fig. 1.—STEPHEN AND MATILDA COMPETITORS FOR THE CROWN.

Fig. 2.—IMPRISONMENT OF THE BISHOPS OF SALISBURY, LINCOLN,
AND ELY.

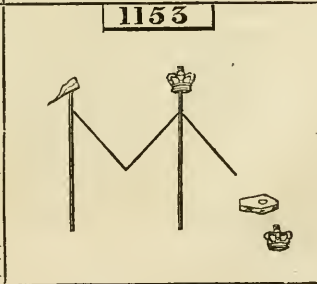
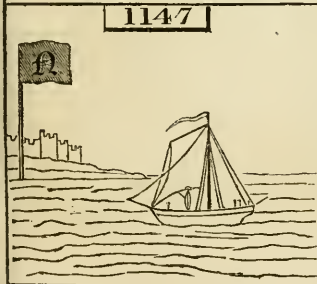
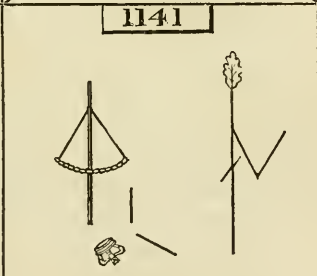
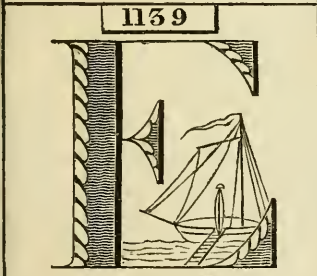
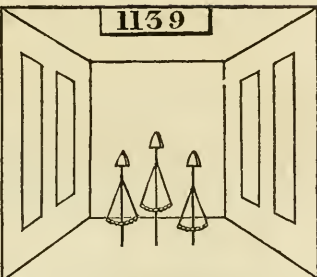
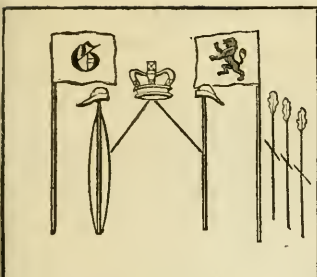
Fig. 3.—LANDING OF MATILDA IN ENGLAND.

Fig. 4.—DEFEAT OF STEPHEN AT THE BATTLE OF LINCOLN.

Fig. 5.—MATILDA RETURNING INTO NORMANDY.

Fig. 6.—COMPROMISE OF STEPHEN AND HENRY PLANTAGENET.

The King is engaged in a conference with Henry Plantagenet: the crown, and the coffin near it, to which he is pointing, are symbols of concession, that on his own death the latter shall succeed to the English crown.



STEPHEN AND MATILDA COMPETITORS FOR THE CROWN.

STEPHEN, the third son of Adela, daughter of William the Conqueror, by the Count of Blois, was a prince of great courage, fortitude, and activity. Had he succeeded by a just title, he seems to have been well qualified to have promoted the happiness of his people. He was not deficient in ability, and possessed, in a high degree, the art of gaining the affections of those about him. Immediately on the death of Henry I. he hastened to London, where, with very little opposition, he was crowned King by the Bishop of Winchester; and, in order to establish himself on the throne as firmly as possible, he passed a charter, making very liberal promises to all ranks of people. He also seized the late King's treasures at Winchester, which amounted to £100,000; with this he not only hired mercenaries to support his pretensions, but procured a Bull from the Pope confirming his title to the throne.

Matilda, his rival, was the only surviving child of Henry I. She was first married to Henry V., Emperor of Germany, and afterwards to Godfrey Plantagenet, eldest son of the Count of Anjou. She was not backward in her endeavours to recover her just rights; but for some time met with so little success, either in England or Normandy, that her husband was glad to make peace with Stephen, on condition of being paid five thousand marks annually. Robert, Earl of Gloucester (natural son of the late King), a man of great honour and ability, and firmly attached to the cause of Matilda, was the first who shook the power of Stephen. When the latter usurped the throne, Robert had stipulated conditions on which he would take the oath of fealty to him: one of which was, that the King should never invade any of Robert's rights or dignities. The great power of that nobleman induced Stephen to accept the overture, though he knew that the reservation of independence was, on a favourable opportunity, to be made subservient to revolt.

In the year 1137, having concerted an insurrection, the Earl of Gloucester retired to the Continent, whence he sent the King a defiance, solemnly renouncing his allegiance. In the following year David, King of Scotland, appeared with an army in support of his niece's title, and penetrated into Yorkshire; but he was defeated at Northallerton by a powerful army which some of the northern Barons had raised. The complete failure of this invasion so awed the party disaffected to Stephen, that his power might have been established, had he not engaged in a contest with the clergy.

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IMPRISONMENT OF THE BISHOPS OF SALISBURY, LINCOLN, AND ELY.

IN the beginning of Stephen's reign, the Barons, imitating the Earl of Gloucester, extorted from him a permission to fortify their castles, and to put themselves into a posture of defence. The clergy also annexed to the oath of allegiance the following conditions, namely, that they were only bound so long as the King defended the ecclesiastical liberties, and supported the discipline of the church. Stephen was obliged to comply with both conditions. All England was immediately filled with fortresses: the nobility garrisoned these with their vassals, or with licentious soldiers, who flocked to them from all parts. The whole country became a scene of rapine and devastation; wars were carried on by the Barons in every quarter; they even assumed the right of coining money, and of exercising without appeal every act of jurisdiction. The inferior gentry, as well as the people, finding no defence from the laws during this total suspension of sovereign authority, were obliged, for their immediate safety, to pay court to some neighbouring chieftain, and to purchase his protection, both by submitting to his exactions, and by assisting him in his depredations upon others.

When Stephen saw the mischief arising from this liberty, of which the original grant on his part was too reluctant and invo-

luntary to be called injudicious, he determined to reduce it as much as possible: for this purpose he began with the castles erected by the Clergy, who seemed to have the least right to these military securities. Therefore, taking advantage of a disturbance that had arisen between the retainers of the Bishop of Salisbury and those of the Earl of Brittany, in which the former had been supported by the Bishops of Lincoln and Ely, he seized the Bishops implicated, threw them into prison, and obliged them to surrender the castles which they had recently built and fortified. The commotion thus produced was an opportunity favourable to the pretensions of Matilda.



LANDING OF MATILDA IN ENGLAND.

ON the 22d of September 1139 Matilda landed in England, accompanied by Robert, Earl of Gloucester, and 140 knights; her train of partizans daily increased, and she was soon enabled to face Stephen in the field with equal forces. Numberless encounters followed, and war was spread through every quarter of the country; for the turbulent Barons having, in a great measure, thrown off the restraint of a paramount government, redoubled their oppressions, cruelties, and devastations, under the plea of fighting for their country. They tortured their captives to make them reveal their treasures, sold them for slaves, and set fire to their houses, after pillaging them of every thing valuable. When private rights were subverted, the land was left untilled, a grievous famine ensued, and the whole nation was reduced to a deplorable state of misery.



DEFEAT OF STEPHEN AT THE BATTLE OF LINCOLN.

AFTER a multitude of indecisive conflicts, the King laid siege to the city of Lincoln, in the hope of surprising Matilda: but

the Duke of Gloucester hastened to her relief. The two armies engaged on the 2d of February 1141, within sight of the city. The battle was long and obstinate; at length Stephen's cavalry gave way, and the infantry, finding themselves unsupported, also fled. Meanwhile the King, who was left with few attendants, fought on foot with most astonishing intrepidity. He endeavoured to force his way through the enemy with his battle-axe; but that breaking, he drew his sword, and continued the unequal contest some time longer, until, his sword flying in pieces, he was compelled to surrender himself a prisoner. He was conducted to Gloucester; and though the treatment which he received was at first respectful, he was soon afterwards, upon some slight suspicion, loaded with irons and thrown into prison.

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MATILDA RETURNING INTO NORMANDY.

ABOUT a month after the battle of Lincoln, Matilda was crowned at Westminster with great solemnity; but her incapacity to govern so turbulent a nation as the English then were soon became apparent: she was equally destitute of policy and prudence; was proud, insolent, and overbearing. A conspiracy was therefore formed against her, headed by the Bishop of Winchester, who detached a party of his friends to block up the city of London, where she resided. He also attempted to seize her person: but, having notice of the plot, she fled to Winchester; here she was shortly after besieged by the Bishop, and, the town being pressed by famine, she with difficulty made her escape. Her brother, the Earl of Gloucester, in the attempt to follow her, was taken prisoner. The Earl was exchanged for Stephen, who, being once more seated on the throne, prosecuted the war with redoubled vigour; and Matilda flew from one fortress to another, a fugitive, unable to keep the field. She escaped from Oxford to Wallingford Castle, at a time when the fields were covered with snow, by being

dressed all in white, with four knights, her attendants, habited in the same colour. At length she was obliged to quit the kingdom, and retire into Normandy. About this time the Earl of Gloucester died, an event which gave a fatal blow to the interests of Matilda.

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COMPROMISE OF STEPHEN AND HENRY PLANTAGENET.

IN 1153 Prince Henry (the son of Matilda by her second husband, Geoffry Plantagenet), then in his sixteenth year, came over to England to dispute once more Stephen's pretensions to the crown. He met with some success on his first landing; but was quickly opposed by Stephen with a powerful army. The hostile forces lay within a quarter of a mile of each other, and a general engagement seemed to be impending; when William, Earl of Arundel, an adherent of the King, offered his mediation to adjust the claims of the royal competitors without an appeal to arms. The proposition was acceded to by both parties, and a treaty was set on foot. During its progress, the death of Eustace, Stephen's eldest son, whom he had designed to succeed him, intervened; an event which facilitated its conclusion. It was agreed that Stephen should reign during his life; that justice should be administered in his name; and that, on his death, Henry should succeed him. This treaty filled all England with joy; and, after the Barons had sworn to the observance of it, Henry left England. Stephen returned to the peaceable possession of his crown, which, however, he lived to enjoy but a short time: he died on the 25th of October, in the year 1154, aged 49.

His surviving son William inherited his patrimonial property, and became Earl of Boulogne, in right of the Queen his mother.



HENRY THE SECOND.

HENRY the Second is said to have been the greatest prince of his time, for wisdom, virtue, and ability. He was of a middle stature, strong, and well-proportioned: his countenance was lively and engaging; his conversation affable and entertaining; his elocution easy and persuasive. He loved peace, but possessed both conduct and bravery in war: in the execution of justice, he was severe without rigour; and in his manner of living, temperate without austerity. When he could enjoy leisure, he recreated himself in learned conversation or in reading; and he cultivated his natural talents by study, above any prince of his time. He was remarkably compassionate; and so charitable, that he constantly allotted one-tenth of his household provisions to the poor, and, in a time of dearth, maintained ten thousand indigent persons from the beginning of spring to the end of autumn.

On his accession to the English throne, Henry found himself also invested with very extensive dominions on the Continent. In right of his father he possessed Anjou, Touraine, and Maine; in that of his mother, Normandy; in that of his wife, Guienne, Poictou, Saintogne, Auvergne, Perigord, Angoumois, and Limousin: he soon after annexed Brittany to his other states, by marrying his son, who was yet a child, to the heiress of Brittany, who was a child also. These territories composed above a third part of the French monarchy, and confessedly the most opulent part of it; so that Henry, who was vassal to the King of France, was greatly his superior in power. The first acts of his administration were wise and vigorous: he began with demolishing the castles that had been erected in the last reign, and which served only as retreats for the vicious and turbulent; except only a few well situated for the defence of the kingdom, which he garrisoned for that purpose; he, at the same time, banished all the foreign mercenaries, who had committed the greatest disorders. The debased money which had

been struck during the reign of Stephen he called in, issuing in its place a new coinage of the standard goodness and weight. He resumed many of the grants which had been given to churches and monasteries; and he gave charters to several towns, by which the citizens acquired, with their personal freedom, privileges independent of any superior but himself.



BECKET DISCLAIMING THE CIVIL AUTHORITY.

THE growing ascendancy of the Clergy at this time, to which the imperfect title of the last King and the superstition of the people had contributed, connected with the very relaxed state of church discipline, called aloud for reform; and it required great wisdom, as well as firmness, on the part of the monarch, to curb the scandalous usurpation of that order, who during the last reign had extorted from Stephen an immunity from all but ecclesiastical penalties: therefore, not being amenable to the civil law, the number and magnitude of their crimes had increased in proportion to the impunity with which they might be committed; and it is upon record, that, between the short space from the King's accession to his first interference to abridge the ecclesiastical power, no fewer than a hundred murders had been committed by the Clergy, of which not one was punished with degradation by their spiritual superiors. On the death of Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, which happened in 1162, Henry invested Thomas à Becket, his Chancellor, with that high office, who was the first man of English pedigree that had risen to any eminent station since the Norman Conquest.

Before his instalment, Becket had been exceedingly complaisant, good-humoured, and agreeable to his master; but no sooner was he invested with this great dignity, which made him for life second only to the King, than he totally altered his conduct, and assumed those airs of affected and ostentatious humility, which he thought would recommend him to the igno-

rant and superstitious multitude. He resigned the office of chancellor without consulting his Sovereign: for he knew that the King intended to abridge the ecclesiastical power, and was desirous to avoid the embarrassing appearance of being the King's adviser. Henry, indignant that the Clergy should escape with impunity for crimes which demanded the severest punishment, proceeded to determine the exact boundaries between the civil and ecclesiastical jurisdictions, and for that purpose summoned a great council of the Clergy and Nobility at Clarendon, to whom he submitted this important subject. Many regulations were there drawn up, which were afterwards known by the name of the *Constitutions of Clarendon*. The principal of these were, "That clergymen accused of any crime should be tried in the civil courts; that laymen should not be tried in spiritual courts, except on the allegations of legal and reputable witnesses; that the King should ultimately judge in ecclesiastical and spiritual appeals; that the Archbishops and Bishops should be regarded as Barons, and obliged to contribute to the public expenses like other persons of their rank." These and some others of less consequence, amounting in all to sixteen, were subscribed to by all the Bishops present; and even Becket, after some hesitation, put his name to it. The constitutions, thus enacted, were sent to Rome to be ratified by the Pope; but he rejected them with the greatest indignation. Upon this, Becket expressed his repentance at having complied with the wishes of the King, declared himself unworthy of performing his daily functions in the church, and actually suspended himself till he should have received pardon for his offence. This he soon obtained; but the King, considering these affected austerities as insults offered to himself, determined to humble him, and for this purpose instituted various suits and prosecutions against him. The last was a citation to account for the monies received and expended while he was Chancellor. The deficiency was computed at no less a sum than forty thousand marks; and

Becket, either unable to give an account of it or to find securities, took an extraordinary method to evade it: he arrayed himself in his episcopal vestments, and, taking the cross in his hand, went forward to the palace. Having entered the council chamber, he sat down, holding the crosier as his banner and protection. He then, in the most solemn manner, put himself under the protection of the Supreme Pontiff, and appealed to his authority against any penalty which his iniquitous judges might inflict. This he did in the hope of intimidating the judges. When he left the palace he requested the King's permission to quit Northampton, which was refused: Becket then withdrew in disguise, and escaped to the Continent. Meanwhile the tribunal, who had to decide on the charges against him, declared him a perjured traitor.

DEFINITIONS.

Civil Law.—The law which relates to the government and internal policy of the state. It is generally understood to be founded upon the municipal law of the Roman Empire, as comprized in the Institutes of Justinian, under whose auspices the present body of *civil law* was compiled and finished by Triboniu and other lawyers, about A. D. 533.

Marks.—An ancient coin, value 13s. 4d.

Supreme Pontiff.—The Pope, or Chief of the Roman Catholic Church.



BECKET'S TRIUMPHANT RETURN.

BECKET on his arrival at the Holy See was received with every mark of esteem, whilst Henry's ambassadors were treated with coolness and contempt. The King, greatly irritated, determined to throw off all dependance upon the Court of Rome. The Pope and the Archbishop meanwhile issued fulminations tending to shake the foundation of the King's government; excommunicating his ministers, and menacing the state

with an interdict. At the first, Henry paid but little regard to the anathemas of his opponents; but when he found that his authority over his subjects was endangered by them, and that rivals on the Continent were endeavouring to disturb his dominions, he began seriously to desire an accommodation. The Pope, too, being threatened with the machinations of an Antipope, whose pretensions he was apprehensive the King of England might support, became more willing to negotiate; and, after much delay, occasioned by conflicting interests, a reconciliation was effected, and Becket reinstated in the see of Canterbury. Nothing could exceed the arrogance of this haughty prelate on his return to England, after he had been an exile seven years; instead of retiring quietly to his diocese, he made a progress through Kent with all the splendour of a sovereign Pontiff, and was received in London with every demonstration of joy.

DEFINITIONS.

Archbishop of Canterbury.—After the King, he is the chief dignitary of the church of England, and the first Peer in the realm, having rank next to the Royal Family. It is his prerogative by custom to crown the Kings and Queens of England; and he has also the power to grant licenses and dispensations in all cases formerly sued for in the Court of Rome, if not repugnant to the law of God, or statutes of the realm.

Excommunication.—A prohibition to participate in religious rites.

Interdict.—A papal ordinance to the clergy, forbidding them to celebrate the holy offices of religion.

Anathemas.—Curses pronounced by ecclesiastical authority.

Antipope.—A person who claims or usurps the papacy in opposition to the right Pope.

THE DEATH OF BECKET.

No sooner was Becket re-established in his dignity, than he began to direct the weight of ecclesiastical authority upon his enemies, and upon such of the clergy as had been subservient to the King in his absence. He suspended the Archbishop of York, and excommunicated the Bishops of London and Salisbury, with several of the principal nobility and clergy; because the first, at the requisition of the King, had crowned his eldest son, and the others had assisted at the coronation. The parties excommunicated repaired to the King, who was then in Normandy, threw themselves at his feet, and implored his protection, inveighing bitterly against the haughty and vindictive ecclesiastic. Henry, enraged at the repeated insolence of Becket's conduct, was heard to exclaim, "Is there none to revenge their monarch's cause upon this audacious priest?" These words induced four of his attendants, *viz.* Hugh de Moreville, William de Tracy, Richard Brito, and Reginauld Fitzurse, to form a design against Becket's life. They hastened to Canterbury, and, on the 29th of December 1171, entering the cathedral where Becket was officiating with but few attendants, they beat out his brains with clubs. The King was thrown into the utmost consternation on hearing of Becket's murder: apprehending that his death might accomplish what his most violent opposition during his life had failed to do, he felt, or affected, the deepest sorrow, and for three days even refused all nourishment; till, at last, his courtiers broke in upon his solitude, and induced him to acquiesce in an event which could not be recalled.

DEFINITION.

Suspended.—Forbidden to exercise their clerical functions.

THE CONQUEST OF IRELAND.

IRELAND was at this time divided into five principal sovereignties, namely, Munster, Leinster, Ulster, Meath and Connaught, each governed by its respective sovereign; but there was commonly one prince, who, having superior influence to the rest, acted, for the time, as King of Ireland. To him the haughty chieftains paid a precarious tribute, and united with him rather as his allies than his subjects. Dermot Macmarogh, Prince of Leinster, was a fierce, haughty, and oppressive tyrant; he had carried off the wife of O'Ruarc, when that prince was in the utmost distress, and had been defeated and driven out of his dominions by a confederacy of the bordering chieftains. Dermot, in his turn, was vanquished by Torlogh O'Connor, deposed as unworthy of his station, and another of his family raised to the throne. The exiled chief fled for safety to England, where, his character being unknown, he was received as an injured prince, driven from his throne by an iniquitous confederacy.

Henry being in Aquitaine, Dermot went thither from England, and implored his assistance; promising to hold his dominions, which, with assistance from England, he was confident of regaining, in vassalage to Henry and his heirs. Henry had long meditated the conquest of Ireland, and had even procured a grant from the Pope, investing him with the sovereignty of that country: he therefore received Dermot with great encouragement. But the situation of his own affairs did not allow him, at that time, to take advantage of the servile and flattering application from the Irish chieftain: Henry, therefore, dismissed him with large presents, and letters of credence to his subjects in England, empowering them to aid him in the recovery of his dominions. Dermot, after several discouraging refusals from the English knights and barons, at length prevailed on Richard Earl of Strigul or Chepstow, surnamed *Strongbow*, with Robert Fitz-Stephen, Maurice Fitz-Gerald,

and a few other feudal lords of South Wales, to go over to Ireland as his auxiliaries. In May 1170 they landed in a creek near Wexford. The whole force which they carried to the succour of Dermot amounted to no more than forty knights, sixty men in armour, and five hundred archers. This assistance, trivial as it may seem, changed the face of affairs almost instantaneously. The Irish opposed to Dermot were everywhere defeated with great slaughter.

Fitz-Stephen and Fitz-Gerald were jointly invested with the lordship of Wexford. Richard Earl Strongbow afterwards landed at Waterford, with a larger force, consisting of two hundred knights, and one thousand two hundred infantry. For his services to Dermot, in this expedition, he was invested with the lordship of Dublin.

Henry now resolved to transport an army to Ireland, and complete the conquest of that country in person. Preparatory to this, he summoned Strongbow to return without delay. The Earl obeyed, and met the King at Newnham, near Gloucester, whom he conciliated by the surrender of Dublin, and a large territory adjacent: the other adventurers followed his example.

Henry embarked at Milford, with a train of barons, four hundred knights, and about four thousand soldiers, on board a fleet of two hundred and forty sail. He landed at Waterford, in October 1172, and seemed not so much to go to conquer a kingdom as to receive what was already his own. The Irish chieftains submitted one after the other; and thus, in the short space of a few weeks, this valuable country became an appendage to the English crown.

DEFINITION.

Vassalage.—Dependance or subjection according to the feudal system.

The remains of vassalage in this country are estates held by copyhold tenure.

HENRY DOING PENANCE AT BECKET'S TOMB.

WHILE Henry was regulating his new dominions, he received the unwelcome news that two cardinals, Albert and Theodine, delegated by the Pope, had arrived in Normandy the preceding year, to make inquisition into the death of Becket. By these he was summoned to appear without delay, if he would avoid excommunication, and a general interdict upon his dominions. The Pope, with difficulty persuaded of his innocence, refused to continue him within the pale of the Church, except on condition that he would in future perform every injunction of the Holy See. Between the time of this submission to papal authority, and the performance of the extraordinary penance to which he submitted, there happened the distressing contests with his children—the revolt of various of his subjects—and the invasion of England by an army of eighty thousand Scots—as afterwards related.

Henry, attributing these accumulated disasters to the displeasure of heaven for the murder of Becket, or desirous to be reconciled entirely to the Church, in the year 1174 carried into effect his promise of doing penance at the Archbishop's shrine. He accordingly made a journey to Canterbury. When he came within sight of the cathedral, he alighted from his horse, and walked barefoot, in the habit of a pilgrim, to Becket's tomb. After he had prostrated himself there, and prayed for a considerable time, he submitted to be scourged by the monks on his bare shoulders; and passed all that day and night in fasting, kneeling upon the stone, and watching the relics. He made a grant of fifty pounds a year for the constant supply of tapers to be kept burning before the shrine. On the following day he received absolution.

DEFINITIONS.

Cardinal.—An ecclesiastical prince in the Romish Church, being entitled to vote at the election of a Pope. The Cardinals compose the

Pope's Council, and until the year 1630 were styled illustrious, but since that period they have had the title of Eminence.

Pale of the Church.—Protection of the Church.

Penance.—Punishment, public or private, sustained as an expression of repentance for sin.

Absolution, in the Roman Catholic Church, implies an absolute pardon for sins committed, and for which persons were not to be accountable hereafter.

—O—

WILLIAM KING OF SCOTLAND MADE PRISONER.

WHILST Henry was engaged on the Continent by the rebellion of his sons, William King of Scotland invaded England, and committed dreadful ravages; he was, however, repulsed, and a truce agreed upon. This he soon violated, and renewed his outrages, but was shortly after defeated and taken prisoner. Henry obliged him to do homage for the kingdom of Scotland, and compelled all the Bishops and Barons of that nation to do the same; and this was the greatest humiliation to which the Scottish nation had ever been subjected. This homage was performed in the cathedral of York, on the 10th of August 1174.

DEFINITION.

Homage.—An acknowledgment of service and fealty to a sovereign or superior lord.

—O—

ENGLAND DIVIDED INTO CIRCUITS.

ENGLAND was divided into circuits by Henry II. Each circuit contains a certain number of counties. Two judges are appointed to each circuit, which they visit in spring and autumn, to administer justice to those subjects who are at a distance from the capital. In the Lent or Spring Assizes, the Northern circuit, which contains the counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmoreland, extends to York and Lancaster.

The Assizes of Durham, Newcastle, Carlisle, and Appleby, being held only in the autumn, this is distinguished by the name of the Long Circuit. The Western circuit embraces Hampshire, Wiltshire, Dorsetshire, Somersetshire, Devonshire, and Cornwall. The Midland includes the counties of Derby, Nottingham, Lincoln, Rutland, Northampton, Leicester, and Warwick. The Oxford circuit contains Worcestershire, Staffordshire, Shropshire, Herefordshire, Monmouthshire, Gloucestershire, Oxfordshire, and Berkshire. The Norfolk comprises the counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Buckingham, and Bedford. The Home circuit contains Hertfordshire, Essex, Kent, Sussex, and Surrey.



FAIR ROSAMOND'S BOWER.

THE fair Rosamond, whose beauty, wit, and accomplishments fascinated Henry, was the daughter of Walter Lord Clifford: with her he passed all his hours of leisure; and, in order to elude the jealousy of his queen Eleanor, he kept Rosamond concealed in a labyrinth at Woodstock. By this lady he had two sons: William Longsword, Earl of Salisbury; and Geoffry, Bishop of Lincoln. Whilst Henry was absent in France, on account of a rebellion there, the Queen found means to discover the retreat of her rival; and, giving her the option of poison or a dagger, compelled the unhappy Rosamond to put an end to her existence.



REBELLION OF HENRY'S SONS.

HENRY had no sooner terminated the war with Ireland, and the dangerous controversy with the Pope, than he was involved in unnatural contests with his children, to whom he had always behaved with the utmost tenderness and affection. He had caused his eldest son, Henry, to be anointed King, designing

him for his successor over the kingdom of England, the duchy of Normandy, and the counties of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine. Richard, the second son, was invested with the provinces of Guienne and Poictou: Geoffry, the third, was in possession of Brittany: and the new conquest, Ireland, was destined for John. The King of France, alarmed at the greatness of Henry's family, excited the young prince, Henry, in 1180, to demand of his father the immediate resignation, either of the crown of England, or the duchy of Normandy. The King refused to comply with so extraordinary a demand; upon which the Prince made his escape to Paris. The Queen, too, being swayed by resentment at the King's indifference to her, imparted a spirit of discontent to her sons Geoffry and Richard, whom she persuaded also to demand the territories assigned to them, and then fly to the court of France: she also endeavoured herself to escape in man's apparel to the same court, but was discovered, and confined by Henry's order. The Princes raised the standard of rebellion, supported by the King of France; and as there were but few of the Barons on whom Henry could rely, he enlisted twenty thousand Brabançons into his service. With this force he totally defeated his enemies on the Continent; and being desirous of putting an end to the war, agreed to a conference, in which he offered his children the most advantageous terms: but owing to the insolent conduct of the Earl of Leicester, the conference was suddenly broken off.

It was not long, however, before the disobedient Princes were made sensible of their error: but the terms now granted them were much less favourable than those which Henry had before offered. In 1183, Prince Henry died of a fever at Martel, deeply lamenting his undutiful conduct. A short time afterwards, Geoffry was killed at a tournament at Paris. The loss of this Prince was felt by few except the King; he was hated by the people, amongst whom he was styled *the Child of Perdition*.

Philip King of France once more seduced Richard from his filial duty. The event of this war was very unfortunate to Henry; who was obliged to conclude a peace on very humiliating terms, prescribed by his surviving sons in concert with the King of France. The name of John being found on the list of rebellious nobles whom it was stipulated should be pardoned, the good old King was so shocked that he broke out into the most bitter lamentations, cursed the day in which he received his miserable being, and bestowed his malediction on his children, which he could never after be persuaded to recal.

PLATE IX.

CHARACTER OF RICHARD THE FIRST.

Fig. 1.—MASSACRE OF THE JEWS AT THE CORONATION OF RICHARD THE FIRST.

An emblem of the depressed state of the Jews, the fallen banner, inscribed with the word *Ephraim*, in Hebrew characters (אֶפְרַיִם), is trampled upon by assassins: one holds a bag of treasure, which intimates the object of the murderers. The crown alludes to the coronation.

Fig. 2.—RICHARD SELLING HIS PARAMOUNT DOMINION OF ENGLAND OVER SCOTLAND.

The line surmounted with the English crown is Richard, transferring to a correspondent emblem of the King of Scotland his sovereignty in chief over that kingdom, represented by the Scottish banner. The bag of treasure indicates the sum which the King of Scotland paid to recover his independence. The crown designates Richard's intended expedition to Palestine.

Fig. 3.—DEFEAT OF SALADIN IN THE HOLY LAND.

The King holds in one hand a sword, and with the other grasps the standard of the Saracens, which is drooping beneath that of England. The crown at a distance denotes Palestine.

Fig. 4.—IMPRISONMENT OF RICHARD.

Eleanor, the Queen Mother, giving one hundred thousand marks to the Emperor of Germany, a part of the ransom to be paid for the King her son.

Fig. 5.—RICHARD PARDONING HIS BROTHER JOHN.*Fig. 6.*—DEATH OF RICHARD.

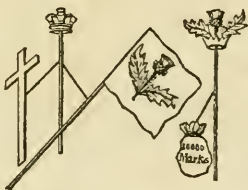
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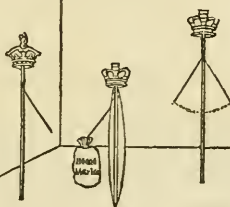
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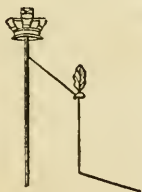
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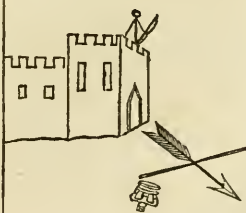
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CHARACTER OF RICHARD THE FIRST.

RICHARD the First succeeded his father, A. D. 1189. The most shining part of this Prince's character is derived from his military talents. His valour acquired him the appellation of *Cœur de Lion*, or Lion-hearted: he passionately aspired after military glory; and as his conduct in the field was not inferior to his valour, he seems to have possessed every talent necessary for acquiring it. His resentments were strong, and his pride unconquerable. Of an impetuous and vehement spirit, he was distinguished by all the good, as well as by all the bad qualities incident to that character. He was open, frank, generous, sincere, and brave; but revengeful, domineering, haughty, and cruel: he was thus better calculated to dazzle men by the splendour of his enterprizes, than to promote their happiness by sound policy. As military talents make great impression on the people, he appears to have been much beloved by them; and he is remarked to have been the first of the Norman line who manifested any sincere regard for his English subjects.

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MASSACRE OF THE JEWS AT THE CORONATION OF RICHARD THE FIRST.

AN immoderate zeal for the externals of religion, united with the grossest superstition, formed a strong feature in the character of the people at this time. The Jews, who were in possession of immense sums of ready money, which they lent at exorbitant and unequal rates of interest, were the objects of universal detestation; which induced the King to issue an edict, forbidding any of them to appear at his coronation: but some of them, bringing him large presents from their body, presumed, notwithstanding these orders, to approach the hall where the King dined. Being discovered, they were exposed to the insults of the bye-standers; in consequence of which they fled, and were pursued by the people. A report was spread that the

King had given orders to massacre the Jews: this supposed order was immediately executed, in the most cruel manner, on such as were so unhappy as to fall into the hands of the populace; those who kept at home were exposed to equal danger: the people broke into their houses, which they plundered, after having murdered their owners. Multitudes were slaughtered in the city of London; and this example was followed in most of the cities in England. In York, five hundred of the Jews, who had taken refuge in the castle, finding themselves unable to defend the place, murdered their wives and children, threw the dead bodies over the wall against their enemies, who were in the act of scaling it; and then, setting fire to the castle, perished in the flames. The gentry of the neighbourhood, who were all indebted to the Jews, ran to the cathedral where their bonds were kept, and made a solemn bonfire of them before the altar.

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RICHARD SELLING THE PARAMOUNT DOMINION OF ENGLAND OVER SCOTLAND.

THE conquest of the Holy Land was the leading object of Richard's ambition: he lost no time therefore in making preparations for his expedition into Palestine. His father had left him a treasure of above a hundred thousand marks; and this sum he augmented by all the expedients he could devise, however pernicious to the public interest, or dangerous to the royal authority. He put to sale the revenues and manors of the Crown; and several offices of the greatest trust and power were disposed of to persons whose qualifications reached no higher than ability to pay the required sums. Liberties, charters, and castles, were granted to the highest bidders; and the mercenary rapacity of the King became quite undisguised. When some of the wiser among his ministers remonstrated with him on his venality, he replied, that he would sell London itself could he

find a purchaser. Nothing indeed could be a stronger proof of his neglect of all future interest, in comparison of the Crusade, than his selling for so small a sum as ten thousand marks the vassalage of Scotland, together with the fortresses of Roxburgh and Berwick, the greatest acquisition that had been made by his father during his victorious reign. The English of all ranks and stations were oppressed by numerous exactions; menaces were employed against both the innocent and the guilty, in order to extort money from them: and where a pretence was wanting against the rich, the King obliged them, by the fear of his displeasure, to lend him large sums, which he knew it would never be in his power to repay.

DEFINITION.

Manor.—A district of ground, held by lords or great personages, who kept in their own hands, as much land as was necessary for the use of their own families, which was thence called demesne lands; and the other part was distributed among their tenants. Manors were formerly called *Baronies* as they still are *Lordships*, and each Lord or Baron was empowered to hold a domestic court, called the Court Baron. This court is an inseparable ingredient in every manor, and if the number of suitors should so fail, as not to leave sufficient to make a jury or homage, that is, two tenants at the least, the manor itself is lost.



DEFEAT OF SALADIN IN THE HOLY LAND.

BEFORE embarking for the Holy Land, Richard vested the administration of the kingdom in the hands of Hugh Bishop of Durham, and of Longchamp Bishop of Ely, who were appointed justiciaries, and guardians of the realm. All the military and turbulent spirits flocked to the King's standard, impatient to distinguish themselves against the infidels in Asia, whither Richard was impelled by repeated messages from the King of France, who was about to embark in the same enterprise. The Emperor Frederick, a prince of great spirit and con-

duct, headed an army, collected in Germany, of one hundred and fifty thousand men: he had penetrated as far as Cilicia when he fell a sacrifice to his imprudence, in bathing in the cold waters of the river Cydnus, during the greatest heat of the summer season. His army, commanded by his son Conrade, reached Palestine, but so diminished by fatigue, famine, sickness, and the sword, that it was totally unable to withstand the power of Saladin. The Kings of France and England, whose combined army amounted to one hundred thousand men, put to sea, but were obliged by stress of weather to take shelter in Messina, where they were detained during the whole winter. This incident laid the foundation of animosities, which proved fatal to their enterprize. Tancred, the usurper of the Sicilian crown, an artful and designing prince, taking advantage of the fiery and ambitious temper of the two Kings, did all in his power to foment their mutual jealousies and distrust; but, to put an end to these disputes, it was proposed that they should by a solemn treaty adjust all differences, which, after some delay, was accomplished. Philip then set sail for the Holy Land; and the English army arrived there just in time to partake in the glory of the siege of Acre, which had been attacked for above two years by the united force of all the Christians in Palestine, and had been defended by the utmost efforts of Saladin and the Saracens.

The arrival of Philip and Richard gave new life to the Christians; and the two Princes, acting in concert, and sharing the honour and danger of every action, inspired hopes of a final victory over the infidels. Richard, animated by the most ardent courage, drew upon himself general attention, and acquired a great and splendid reputation. The Saracen garrison were, by the length of the siege, reduced to the greatest extremity, and surrendered at discretion. Philip, under the plea of declining health, had abandoned the undertaking. Richard pursued his victories, completely defeated Saladin at Ascalon, and advanced within sight of Jerusalem, the object of his enterprize, when he

had the mortification to find that he must relinquish all hopes of immediate success. His army was weakened by disease, want, and fatigue; and every one, except the King of England, expressed a desire of speedily returning home. A truce was therefore concluded with Saladin; in which it was stipulated, that Acre, Joppa, and other sea-port towns of Palestine, should remain in the hands of the Christians; and that every one of that religion should have liberty to perform his pilgrimage to Jerusalem unmolested.

DEFINITION.

Pilgrimage.—A long journey performed as an act of devotion, and in that age considered as a highly meritorious act.

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IMPRISONMENT OF RICHARD.

RICHARD having concluded a treaty with Saladin, set out on his return to England. As he could not proceed by the way of France, on account of the irreconcilable enmity that had taken place between him and the French King, he took shipping for Italy, but was wrecked near Aquileia. From thence he travelled towards Ragusa, and resolved to pursue his journey through Germany, in the disguise of a pilgrim. But his liberality and expenses having betrayed him, notwithstanding his disguise, he was arrested by order of Leopold, Duke of Austria, loaded with shackles, and thrown into prison. Leopold had served under Richard at the siege of Acre; where, having received some disgust, he took this base method of revenging himself. Henry VI., Emperor of Germany, was at that time equally an enemy to Richard, on account of his having married Berengaria, the daughter of the King of Navarre; and therefore demanded that the royal captive should be given up to him, offering the Duke a large sum of money as a reward. When the news of the King's captivity was received in England, it excited general indignation throughout the whole nation. The

greatest and almost the only traitor in the kingdom, was Prince John, Richard's brother, who united with the King of France in his endeavours to make the captivity of the unhappy monarch perpetual: but all their efforts were ineffectual. Richard was taken before the Diet of the empire at Worms, where the Emperor Henry charged him with many crimes and misdemeanors; but to this the King replied with so much spirit and eloquence, that the German Princes loudly exclaimed against the conduct of the Emperor; and the Pope, on the same account, threatened him with excommunication. The Emperor was therefore obliged to conclude a treaty with his captive for his ransom; he agreed to liberate him for one hundred and fifty thousand marks, about three hundred thousand pounds of our present money. This sum was most cheerfully raised by the English: the churches and monasteries melted down their plate to the amount of thirty thousand marks; the bishops, abbots, monks, and parochial clergy, contributed largely; and, the necessary sum being collected, Queen Eleanor and Walter, Archbishop of Rouen, set out with it for Germany, paid one hundred thousand marks to the Emperor and Duke of Austria, at Mentz; delivered hostages for the remainder of the money; and freed Richard from his captivity. He returned to England the 20th of March 1194; and was received by his subjects with unbounded joy, who seemed never weary of beholding the monarch who had suffered so many calamities, who had acquired so much glory, and who had spread the national reputation in such remote regions.



RICHARD PARDONING HIS BROTHER JOHN.

DURING the time that Richard was absent in Palestine the kingdom was in the utmost confusion, owing to the disputes between the Bishops of Durham and Ely, who were left guardians of the realm. The King of France being informed of these dissensions, strove to take advantage of them, by urging

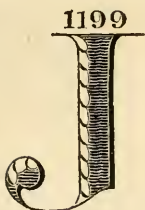
John to throw off his allegiance; promising to put him in possession of all Richard's continental dominions. No sooner did John hear of his brother's unjust detention by the Emperor than he hastened to France, and held a consultation with Philip, the object of which was the perpetual captivity of Richard. John promised to deliver into Philip's hands a great part of Normandy; and, in return, received the investiture of all Richard's transmarine dominions: and it is even said that he did homage to the French King for the crown of England. John, on his return from the Continent, met with little success in his attempts to usurp the throne of England. He could make himself master only of the castles of Windsor and Wallingford. When he came to London and demanded the kingdom as heir to his brother, of whose death he pretended to have certain intelligence, he was rejected by all the Barons, and measures were taken to oppose and reduce him. Defeated in his subsequent attempts, he was compelled to conclude a truce with Richard's adherents: before this had expired, he deemed it proper to retire to France, where he openly acknowledged his alliance with Philip. Richard, who was well informed of his brother's treachery, had been but one day landed in England, when John threw himself at his feet, and craved his pardon: the generous monarch, at the intercession of Queen Eleanor, forgave him, with this remark, "I hope I shall as easily forget his injuries as he will my pardon." John was incapable even of returning to his duty without perpetrating an act of baseness. Before he left Philip's party he invited all the officers to dinner, massacred them during the entertainment; and, with the assistance of the townsmen, fell upon the garrison, put them to the sword, and then delivered up the place to his brother.

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DEATH OF RICHARD.

THE animosities which had broken out between the Kings of England and France during the Crusade, had been inflamed to

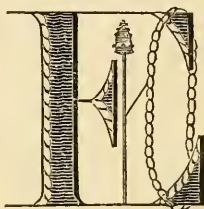
the highest pitch by subsequent occurrences. The base and dishonourable conduct of Philip, during the detention of Richard in Germany, made the latter impatient to avenge himself; Richard promptly commenced a war against the French: but as both Kings found it impossible to engage their Barons heartily in this personal quarrel, their hostilities were attended with nothing remarkable or decisive. In 1195 a truce for five years was concluded; but, on some slight occasion, their deep-rooted enmity was on the point of breaking out anew, when the Pope's Legate interposed; a treaty was again begun, but the death of Richard put an end to the negociation. Vidomer, Viscount of Limoges, a vassal of the King's, had found a treasure, of which he sent a part to his Sovereign as a present. Richard, as his superior Lord, claimed the whole, and besieged the Viscount in the castle of Chalons, in order to make him comply with his demands. As he approached the castle with the intention of surveying it, he was aimed at by one Bertram de Jourdain, an archer, who wounded him in the shoulder with an arrow. The wound was not in itself dangerous; but the unskilful treatment of the surgeon induced a mortification. The King, finding himself near his end, sent for Jourdain, and asked, "Wretch, what have I ever done to you that you should take away my life?"—"What have you done to me!" replied the prisoner, "you killed with your own hands my father and my two brothers; and you intended to have hanged me. I am now in your power, and you may take your revenge by inflicting on me the severest torments; but I shall endure them all with pleasure, thinking that I have rid the world of a tyrant." Richard, struck with this answer, and humbled by the prospect of death, ordered him to be set at liberty, and a sum of money to be given to him; but Marcade, one of his generals, unknown to him, seized the unhappy man, flayed him alive, and then hanged him. Richard expired on the 6th of April 1199, in the tenth year of his reign, and the forty-second of his age.



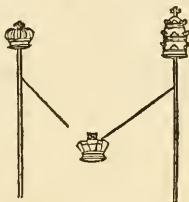
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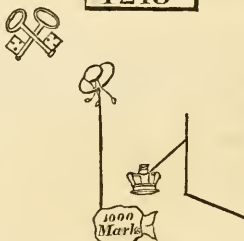
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Magna Charta

*Testibus Supradictis
& multis aliis Data
per manum nostrum in
prato quod vocatur Run
ingmede in ter Wendeleser
& Stanes quinto decimo die
Junii anno re*

1216

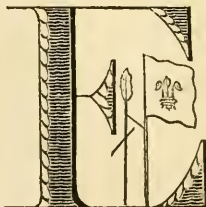


PLATE X.

CHARACTER OF JOHN.

Fig. 1.—ASSASSINATION OF ARTHUR.

Arthur, Duke of Brittany, assassinated by King John, who is represented by a death's head beneath the diadem.

Fig. 2.—ENGLAND SHACKLED BY THE POPE.*Fig. 3.*—THE POPE GIVING THE CROWN OF ENGLAND TO PHILIP OF FRANCE.*Fig. 4.*—JOHN DOING HOMAGE TO THE POPE'S LEGATE.

John laying his crown, and the tribute he was to pay, at the feet of Pandulf, the Pope's Legate, intimating his abject submission to the Papal power.

Fig. 5.—MAGNA CHARTA.*Fig. 6.*—LANDING OF PRINCE LEWIS OF FRANCE.

CHARACTER OF JOHN.

JOHN succeeded his brother, Richard I., without opposition, A.D. 1199. In his person he was above the middle size, well made, and of a pleasing countenance; but in disposition he was treacherous, cruel, ungrateful, cowardly, licentious, and tyrannical. It is difficult to say whether his conduct to his father, his brother, his nephew, or his subjects, was the most culpable. His Continental dominions, when they devolved to him by the death of his brother, were more extensive than have since his time been ruled by any English monarch. He, however, lost by his misconduct the flourishing provinces of France, the ancient patrimony of his family; and subjected his kingdom to a shameful vassalage under the See of Rome. Yet his reign was not altogether destitute of beneficial acts and institutions; for he regulated the City of London, and other places in the kingdom, and was the first who coined sterling money.



ASSASSINATION OF ARTHUR.

ARTHUR, the young Duke of Brittany, was the son of Geoffry, the third son of Henry II. He was now approaching to manhood; and, sensible of the dangerous character of his uncle John, determined to secure his safety and aggrandizement by uniting with Philip of France and the discontented Barons. Arthur, fond of military glory, had made an irruption into Poictou at the head of a small army, and laid siege to Mirabeau, in the hope of obtaining possession of the person of Eleanor, his grandmother, who had always been inimical to his interest; but John, who was roused to unusual exertion by this attempt, suddenly fell on Arthur's camp, dispersed his army, and took him prisoner, together with the Count de la March, Geoffry de Lusignan, and the most considerable of the revolted Barons. The greater part of the prisoners were sent over to England: but Arthur was shut up in the Castle of Falaise. Here the

King had a conference with him; but, finding him possessed of a spirit and bravery that might hereafter prove dangerous, he determined to dispatch him. For this purpose he had him removed to Rouen; and, going by night to that place, commanded Arthur to be brought forth to him. The young Prince, aware of his danger, threw himself on his knees before his uncle, and begged for mercy. The barbarous tyrant made no reply, but stabbed him with his own hand; and, fastening a stone to the dead body, threw it into the Seine. All men were struck with horror at this inhuman deed; and from that moment the King was detested by his subjects, and retained a very precarious authority over either the people or the Barons.



ENGLAND SHACKLED BY THE POPE.

POPE Innocent III., who at that time filled the Papal chair, was just in the prime of life: his unbounded ambition was assisted to reach its objects by a lofty and enterprising genius. The Clergy, who for some time had acted as a community totally independent of the Civil power, had their elections of each other generally confirmed by the Pope, to whom alone they acknowledged subjection. The election of Archbishops had, however, long been a subject of dispute between the suffragan Bishops and the Augustine Monks; and, upon the death of Hubert, Archbishop of Canterbury, the Augustines, in a private manner, elected Reginald, their sub-prior, for the successor. The Bishops exclaimed against this election, as a manifest infringement on their privileges: a violent ecclesiastical contest was likely to ensue. John, imprudently, took part in the controversy, and espoused the side of the Bishops, who, at his request, elected John de Gray, Bishop of Norwich. An appeal was then made to the Pope, who eagerly seized the opportunity of extending his power, and commanded the Monks to choose Cardinal Stephen Langton, an Englishman, then at

the Court of Rome. The power of nominating an Archbishop of Canterbury, a person of authority nearly equal to that of the King, was an acquisition that would effectually give the Court of Rome an unlimited authority over England. John, therefore, resolved not to submit to the imposition; he violently expelled the monks from their convents, and seized upon their revenues; but was unequal to the task of contending, for any length of time, with such a man as Innocent, who threatened to put the kingdom under an interdict. An interdict was, at that time, a most formidable engine of the Pope. John replied to the menace by an oath, that, if the kingdom was put under an interdict, he would banish the whole body of the Clergy, and confiscate their possessions. The Pope, sensible that he might with security proceed to extremities against such a monarch as John, at length issued the terrible sentence. By this measure a stop was immediately put to the performance of divine service, and the administration of all the sacraments except baptism. The church doors were shut; the images of the saints were laid on the ground; the dead were refused Christian burial, and were thrown into ditches and on the highways without any funeral solemnity. John, in retaliation, rigorously persecuted the adherents of Cardinal Langton; but, unsupported by any class of his subjects, his furious opposition was abortive. Meanwhile, the Pope continued his fulminations; and not only denounced sentence of excommunication against the King, but absolved his subjects from their allegiance, declaring every one to be excommunicated who held any commerce with him, at his table, his council, or even in private conversation.

DEFINITIONS.

Suffragan Bishop.—A titular Bishop appointed to assist the Bishop of the diocese; he is also called the Bishop's Vicegerent.

Augustine Monks.—A religious order founded by St. Augustine, and subject to monastic rules.

THE POPE GIVING THE CROWN OF ENGLAND TO PHILIP OF FRANCE.

PHILIP of France, whose ambitious and active spirit had been restrained by the sound policy of Henry, and the martial spirit of Richard, took advantage of the weakness of John to expel the English arms from France, and to re-annex to that crown the many considerable fiefs which had been dismembered from it. Upon this, John had the meanness to solicit the protection of the Pope, who immediately sent orders to Philip to stop the progress of his arms: but the French King disregarded the orders of his Holiness, and laid siege to Château Galliard, the bulwark of Normandy, which, notwithstanding the noble defence of Roger de Laci, and the efforts of the Earl of Pembroke to relieve it, was taken by assault, and the whole province soon after subdued. John was forced to fly into England; and, in order to cover his own disgrace, he accused and punished his Barons, for having, as he said, abandoned his standard. He soon after quarrelled with the Pope; who, having exhausted all the thunders of the Vatican without bringing him to submission, resolved to depose him: for this object he made a formal gift of his kingdom to Philip of France; and proclaimed a crusade all over Europe against King John, exhorting his subjects, and the government and people of every Christian state, to take up arms against him, and support the invasion of Philip.

DEFINITION.

Vatican.—The palace of the Pope. Here are supposed to have been taken, and now deposited, many ecclesiastical documents relative to the Church of England.



JOHN DOING HOMAGE TO THE POPE'S LEGATE.

PHILIP, dazzled by the tempting offer of aggrandizement which the Pope held out to him, saw not the impolicy of allowing such an exorbitant increase of power to the Papal

Sec. He levied a numerous army, and collected a fleet of seventeen hundred vessels, for the expedition against England: but Innocent, who hoped to derive greater advantages from the submission of John than from his alliance with Philip, sent over his legate, Pandulf, to confer with the former Prince. The conference took place at Dover: the Legate represented to the King the greatness of his danger, the little dependence that could be placed upon the fidelity of his Barons; and, contrasting the situation of John with the great power of Philip, intimated that there was but one way to secure himself from the impending danger, which was to put himself under the protection of the Sovereign Pontiff. Abject and timid, John submitted to this arrogant requisition; and bound himself by oath to obey whatever the Pope should command. Pandulf desired him, as the first proof of his obedience, to resign his kingdom to the Church; and this was complied with in the following manner. The King came disarmed into the Legate's presence; threw himself upon his knees before him; and, holding up both his hands between those of the Legate, took the following most extraordinary oath: "I John, by the grace of God, King of England and Lord of Ireland, in order to expiate my sins, from my own free will and the advice of my Barons, *give* to the Church of Rome, to Pope Innocent, and his successors, the kingdom of England, and all other prerogatives of my crown. I will hereafter hold them as the Pope's vassal; I will be faithful to God, to the Church of Rome, to the Pope *my master*, and his successors legitimately elected. I promise to pay him a tribute of one thousand marks, to wit, seven hundred for the kingdom of England, and three hundred for the kingdom of Ireland." He then received the crown, which he had been supposed to have forfeited; while the Legate, to surpass his former insolence, trampled under his feet the tribute which John had consented to pay.

MAGNA CHARTA.

JOHN was no sooner relieved from the dangers that menaced him, than he renewed the same cruel and tyrannical measures which had already made him so odious to his subjects. The Barons were therefore determined to seize the first opportunity that offered of reducing the enormous prerogatives of the Crown. They were greatly assisted in their schemes by the advice of Langton the primate, who, on all occasions, shewed a sincere regard for the real interests of the kingdom. Among the ruins of an old monastery, Langton found a copy of Henry the First's Charter; it was the only one remaining in the kingdom: this he shewed to the Barons, and exhorted them to insist upon the renewal of it, which they solemnly swore to do. In the beginning of January 1215, the Barons repaired to London, accoutred in their military habiliments and equipage: here they presented their petition to the King, alleging that he had promised to grant a confirmation of the laws of Edward the Confessor, at the time he was absolved from excommunication. At first the King resented their presumption; but, finding them resolute, he promised them a definite answer at Easter. At the stipulated time, the King taking no notice of their petitions as he had promised, the Barons assembled at Stamford, where they were joined by two thousand knights, and a great number of foot. They marched to Brackley, about fifteen miles from Oxford, where the Court then resided. On intelligence of their approach, John sent the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Earl of Pembroke, and others of his council, to know the particulars of their demands. The Barons delivered to these commissioners a schedule, stating the liberties which they claimed, founded on the charters of Edward and Henry; and these they required John to recognize and confirm by a solemn and public instrument: but their requisitions were in the highest degree displeasing to the King, who swore he would never accede to them. The Barons had recourse to arms: the King was deserted,

and obliged to comply. A conference was therefore appointed, and all things were adjusted for this important treaty.

The King's Commissioners met the Barons at a place called Runymede, between Staines and Windsor. Here the King signed *Magna Charta*, which continues in force to this day, and is still regarded as the bulwark of British liberty. By this charter the most tyrannical part of the forest laws was abolished, and the rigour of the feudal system was greatly mitigated. It was also provided, that the same services which were remitted in favour of the Barons, should in like manner be remitted in favour of their vassals. One of the clauses established an equality of weights and measures throughout England. Another exempted the merchants from arbitrary imposts; and gave them liberty to enter and depart the kingdom at pleasure. The charter further enacted, that the villain, or bondman, should not be subject to the forfeiture of his implements of tillage. Lastly, by the twenty-ninth article, it was stipulated that no subject should be exiled, or in any shape whatever molested, either in his person or effects, otherwise than by the judgment of his Peers, and according to the law of the land. Thus the rights and privileges of the individual, as well in his person as in his property, came to be established on axioms of jurisprudence, or unalterable institutes of law. The Great Charter, which at first was enacted with so much solemnity, was afterwards confirmed at the beginning of each succeeding reign; and became the foundation of those equitable laws, which progressively have risen, and been mouldered into a system equally framed for the protection of all ranks of people.

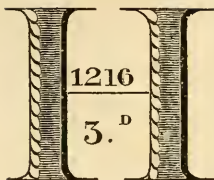
DEFINITION.

Jurisprudence.—The science of law; both civil and common.

LANDING OF PRINCE LEWIS OF FRANCE.

THE consciousness of degradation, in being compelled to submit to his own vassals, sunk deep into the mind of John. He became silent; sullen, and reserved. Shunning the society of his former confidants, he retired into the Isle of Wight, to meditate there an oblique plan of vengeance against his enemies. He sent to the Continent to enlist foreign soldiers; and obtained from the Pope a bull to annul the Charter. On the arrival of his mercenary troops, which composed a great army, he threw off the mask, and revoked all the liberties which he had granted to his subjects. The Barons, not suspecting he would violate so solemn a treaty as that of Runymede, were unprepared for resistance, and fled the kingdom in the greatest consternation. Some sought safety in Scotland, some in Ireland. The King therefore pursued his march without opposition, everywhere spreading terror and devastation: villages and castles were reduced to ashes, and the miserable inhabitants exposed to every degree of insult and cruelty. The Barons, reduced to this extremity, and menaced with the total loss of their liberties, their properties, and their lives, applied to the Court of France for relief; offering to acknowledge Lewis, the eldest son of Philip, for their sovereign. Philip, having accepted their offer, at first dispatched a small force, seven thousand men, to assist the confederates; and soon afterwards a more numerous body, under the personal command of his son Lewis. At this crisis, John's foreign troops, who were Flemings, refused to fight against the heir of their monarchy: on the defection of these, the few nobility who had hitherto adhered to the King abandoned his cause; his castles daily fell into the hands of the enemy; and the only place that remained faithful to him was Dover, which was commanded by Hubert de Burgh. But owing to the impolicy of Lewis, in promoting on all occasions his French followers, and neglecting his English subjects, the revolted Barons did not long continue in harmony with him. A

report also gained ground, founded on the death-bed confession of the Count de Melun, one of the French Prince's courtiers, that the ultimate design of Lewis was to exterminate the English Barons, and bestow their estates on his own followers. The open partiality to foreigners by which the depression of the leading English families had already commenced, and the strong ground for suspicion that the perfidy of Lewis was preparing a cruel catastrophe for them and their connections, induced many of the English nobles to desert his standard, and once more to range themselves under the royal banner. John was determined to fight one great battle for his crown, and with this view was assembling a considerable army: but in passing from Lynn to Lincolnshire, by the sea-shore, the road was overflowed; and he lost in the inundation all his carriages, treasure and baggage. Vexation from the distracted state of his affairs, followed by grief for his losses in this disaster, brought on a fever, of which he died at Newark, October the 17th, A.D. 1216, in the fifty-first year of his age, and the eighteenth of his reign.



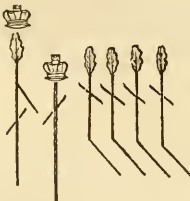

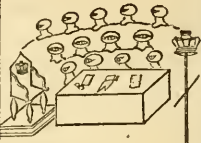

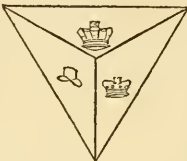
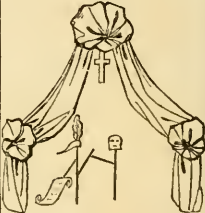
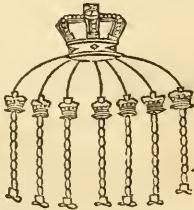
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PLATE XI.

HENRY THE THIRD.

Fig. 1.—THE REGENT PRESENTING YOUNG HENRY THE THIRD
TO THE BARONS.

The Earl of Pembroke, as Regent of the kingdom, presenting the young Monarch to the Barons, who are doing homage. The crown, placed above the Regent, indicates that the Royal authority was vested in him.

Fig. 2.—THE KING TRAMPLING ON MAGNA CHARTA.

Fig. 3.—HENRY, MEETING HIS BARONS IN PARLIAMENT, FINDS
THEM CLAD IN ARMOUR.

Fig. 4.—PRINCE EDWARD DEFEATED, AND TAKEN PRISONER BY
THE EARL OF LEICESTER.

Fig. 5.—THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

An equilateral triangle, divided into three equal parts, represents the King, Lords, and Commons, under the symbols of a crown, a coronet, and a simple gentleman's hat.

Fig. 6.—PRINCE EDWARD STABBED BY AN ASSASSIN IN THE HOLY
LAND.

Fig. 7.—THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

The nobles are represented as united to the Crown by very slender ties; whilst the people are held in complete slavery, and as it were chained to the soil by their imperious masters.

HENRY THE THIRD.

HENRY was of the middle size, and of a robust make. A prince of very mean talents, his conduct was marked by irresolution, inconstancy, and caprice. He was prodigal to excess; levying great sums from his subjects, which he squandered away upon worthless favourites. He appears not to have been naturally a tyrant, although there are instances of oppression to be found in his reign; but they were rather owing to the examples left him by his predecessors, than to innate cruelty. He was remarkable for his regular attendance on public worship; and in a dispute with Lewis IX. concerning the preference due to sermons or masses, Henry maintained the superiority of the latter: saying, he would rather have one hour's conversation with a friend, than hear twenty elaborate discourses in his favour.



THE REGENT PRESENTING YOUNG HENRY THE THIRD TO THE BARONS.

HENRY the Third was but nine years of age when his father died; and it was fortunate for him that the Earl of Pembroke was at that time at the head of the government. The Earl was a man of ability and integrity: he had maintained his loyalty to John during all his distresses: he determined now to support the authority of his son; and for that purpose he had Henry crowned at Gloucester. The young Prince was compelled to swear fealty to the Pope, in the presence of Gualo his Legate; but few of the English nobility were present at the ceremony. Soon afterwards the Earl of Pembroke, in order to enlarge his own authority, and to acquire a regular and legal title to govern, summoned a general council of the Barons at Bristol, in which he was solemnly chosen Protector of the realm. The first popular act of the Regent was, to cause his pupil to grant a new Charter of Liberties, founded upon the former concessions ex-

torted from John. He wrote letters, in the King's name, to all the malcontent Barons, with the object of inducing them to abandon their alliance with Prince Lewis of France. These communications represented, that whatever jealousies the Barons addressed might have entertained against the late King, a young Prince, the lineal descendant of their ancient monarchs, had succeeded to the throne without having imbibed either the resentments or the principles of his predecessors: that the desperate expedient which they had employed, of calling in a foreign potentate, had, happily for them as well as for the nation, failed of entire success; and it was still in their power, by a quick return to their duty, to restore the independence of the kingdom, and secure that liberty for which they so zealously contended: that having now obtained a Charter of their Liberties, it was their interest to shew, by their conduct, that that acquisition was not incompatible with their allegiance: and that the rights of the King and People, so far from being hostile and opposite, might mutually support and assist each other. These considerations, enforced by Pembroke's known character for constancy and fidelity, had a very happy influence on the Barons, most of whom returned to their duty.

DEFINITIONS.

Protector or Regent.—One who is invested with regal power, under certain limitations, during the minority, absence, or incapacity of a Sovereign. Regents were first appointed by Parliament or council; excepting in the case of the Earl of Pembroke, who assumed that title by his own authority. In cases of absence, Regents were appointed by the King, who generally invested the Queen Consort with that dignity. The present time alone has witnessed a Regency owing to the incapacity of the Sovereign; and his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales was appointed to that high office by Act of Parliament in 1812.

Allegiance.—The duty of subjects to their Sovereign.

THE KING TRAMPLING ON MAGNA CHARTA.

As the King grew up, he was found to be very unfit for the government of so turbulent a people as the English were at that time. He disgusted his subjects by his attachment to foreigners, upon whom he bestowed riches in a quantity which exceeded his resources: this brought him into difficulties, and compelled him, in order to extricate himself, to have recourse to arbitrary measures. About the year 1255, the Pope found means to engage the King in a scheme which not only brought much dishonour on him, but involved him for some years in very great expense and trouble. He offered him the crown of Sicily for his second son Edmund: Henry, without consulting his Parliament, gave the Pope unlimited credit, to expend whatever sums he thought necessary for completing the conquest of Sicily. In consequence of this, his Holiness determined to exert his Apostolical authority to the utmost, in extorting money from the English. A tenth on all the ecclesiastical benefices in England was levied for three years; and orders were given to excommunicate the bishops who did not make punctual payment. A grant was made to the King of the goods of intestate clergymen, as well as of the revenues of vacant benefices, and those of non-residents. These transactions, however grievous, were submitted to with little murmuring: but another measure, suggested by the Bishop of Hereford, excited the most violent clamours. This prelate, who was resident at the Court of Rome, drew bills on the Abbots and Bishops of the kingdom to the amount of no less than 150,540 marks, which he granted to Italian merchants for money stated to have been advanced by them for the Sicilian war. This excited the most violent altercations. After the clergy submitted, the Barons still held out, refusing to give the King any supplies: he was, in consequence, so much involved in debt, as to be reduced to the humiliating expedient of going personally to such of his subjects as he thought most attached to him, to beg assistance from them at their own

houses. At length the Barons appeared willing to give him some aid ; and, upon his promising to grant them a plenary redress of grievances, a very liberal supply was obtained, for which he renewed their Charter with more than usual solemnity. Destitute of good faith, the King presently shewed his insensibility to the obligation of an oath. No sooner had he received the supplies of which he stood so much in need, than, forgetful of all his engagements, he violated the Charter which in an assembly of the Prelates and Barons he had sworn to keep : thus trampling on the rights of his people.

DEFINITION.

Intestate,—Dying without making a will for the disposal of property.

—O—

HENRY, MEETING HIS BARONS IN PARLIAMENT,
FINDS THEM CLAD IN ARMOUR.

SIMON DE MOUNTFORT, Earl of Leicester, a man of violent and ambitious temper, enraged at finding no dependence was to be placed on the King's promises, determined to attempt an innovation in the government. He formed a powerful confederacy : and when Henry summoned a Parliament, in the expectation of receiving some supplies for his Sicilian project, he was not a little astonished, on entering the hall, to find the Barons clad in complete armour. The King asked them, what was their intention, and whether they pretended to make him their prisoner ? Roger Bigod, Earl Marshal, answered in the name of the rest, that he was not their prisoner ; but as he had frequently made submission to the Parliament, had acknowledged his past errors, and had still allowed himself to be carried into the same path, he must now yield to more strict regulations, and confer authority on those who were able and willing to redress the public grievances. Henry instantly assured them of his intentions to grant them all possible satisfaction ; and for that purpose summoned another Parliament at Oxford, to digest the

new plan of government. By this assembly, twenty-four Barons were appointed, with supreme authority, to reform the abuses of the State; and Leicester was placed at their head. They ordered four knights to be chosen out of each county, who should examine into the state of their respective constituents, and attend at the ensuing Parliament, to give information of their complaints. They ordained, that three sessions of Parliament should be held every year; that a new high-sheriff should be elected annually; and that no wards nor castles should be entrusted to foreigners; no new forests made; nor the revenues of any counties let to farm.

These constitutions were so just, that some of them remain to this day. But now, the Parliament having obtained the supreme power, were unwilling to lay it down again; they protracted the time of their sitting, under various pretences; and not only abridged the power of the King, but that of the Parliament also, by giving up to twelve persons the whole parliamentary power between each session.

DEFINITIONS.

Knights of the Shire are gentlemen chosen on the King's writ in full county court; *Pleno Comitatu*, by such of the freeholders of every county as can expend forty shillings annually, to represent such county in Parliament. The appellation of Knight was anciently a military title, usually given to every man of rank and fortune, to qualify him to give challenges, to fight in the lists, and to perform feats of arms. To this day the writ runs, that they shall be "Knights girt with a sword," *milites gladio cincti*; but custom now authorizes esquires to be chosen to this service, but they must at the least possess £500 a year.

Constituents.—The freeholders by whom a member of Parliament is chosen, and whom he represents.

Sessions of Parliament.—The time during which the Parliament sits for the dispatch of business.

High Sheriff.—An officer to whom in every county the execution of the law is entrusted. As keeper of the King's peace, the Sheriff is the first man in the county, and superior in rank to any nobleman

therein during his office. He is bound to pursue and take all traitors, murderers, felons, &c., and commit them to jail for safe custody; he is also to defend his country, against any of the King's enemies; and, when necessary, he may command all the people of the county to attend him, which is called the *Posse Comitatus*.

Wards.—Minors whose property is entrusted to the care of the Lord Chancellor, until they become of age.



PRINCE EDWARD DEFEATED, AND TAKEN PRISONER BY THE EARL OF LECESTER.

THE usurpations of the *Mad Parliament*, as that devoted to Leicester was called, were first opposed by the knights of the shire, who represented, that though the King had performed all that was required of him, the Barons had hitherto done nothing on their part that shewed an equal regard to the people; their own interest and power appearing to be the sole aim of their decrees. The knights proceeded to call upon Prince Edward, the King's eldest son, to interpose his authority, and save the sinking State. The Prince was at that time twenty-two years of age; and by his active and resolute conduct had inspired the nation with great hopes. He sent a message to the Barons, requiring them to bring their undertaking to an end, or to expect the most vigorous resistance to their usurpations; but under various pretences, and particularly by deluding the people with a new code of laws of little practical benefit, they managed to continue their power for three years longer. At length the Pope absolved the King and his subjects from the oath which they had taken to obey the twenty-four Barons. Soon after this a Parliament was called, and the King re-established in his authority: but his pusillanimity prevented any judicious proceeding from being taken to restore peace and tranquillity to his subjects. His ill-conducted opposition ended in a degrading treaty with the Barons, by which they were reinstated in all their power, with a commission to nominate the officers of the royal household.

They summoned a Parliament at Oxford, in which it was enacted, that the authority of the twenty-four Barons should continue not only during the life of King Henry, but also during that of Prince Edward.

These scandalous conditions were utterly rejected by Prince Edward; and a civil war ensued. The Prince was at first successful; but through his impetuosity occasioned the loss of a great battle at Lewes, in Sussex, in which his father and uncle were taken prisoners; and he himself was obliged soon after to surrender to Leicester.

DEFINITION.

Absolved.—Freed from the guilt and punishment incurred in violating the sanctity of an oath,



THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

IN the year 1265, the Earl of Leicester, in order to secure to himself the power he had usurped, was induced to have recourse to an aid, till then utterly unknown in England, namely, the body of the people. He called a Parliament, to which, besides introducing, with the Barons of his own party, some ecclesiastics who were not properly tenants of the Crown, he ordered two knights to be returned from every shire, and also deputies from the boroughs, which hitherto had been considered as too inconsiderable to be allowed a share in the legislation. This was the first outline of an English House of Commons, an institution which has ever been esteemed as the bulwark of English liberty. Previous to this, the bulk of the people were considered as little better than slaves.* The institutions of Alfred, forming a system of jurisprudence adapted to the habits and genius of the English people, are the laws which our ancestors struggled so arduously

* See the Diagram representing the Feudal Constitution, Fig. 7.

to maintain, and are, in short, the basis that gave rise to that collection of maxims and customs, now known by the name of the Common Law. William of Normandy subverted the Saxon institutions, and established the feudal system of government; he also ordered that all law proceedings should be carried on in the Norman, instead of the English language. Stephen introduced the Roman *Civil* and *Canon* law into this kingdom, and the doctrine of appeals to the Court of Rome. Liberty first began to dawn under Henry I., who, having ascended the throne to the exclusion of his elder brother, passed a charter abrogating much of the rigour of the feudal laws, with a view of ingratiating himself with his subjects. Under Henry II. the trial by jury was again revived, though its application was much restrained.

From John was extorted the famous Magna Charta. Edward I. gave a *legal* sanction to the assembling of the Commons, and invited the towns and boroughs of the different counties to send deputies to Parliament: he also decreed that no tax should be laid, nor impost levied, without the joint consent of the Lords and Commons, a statute of equal importance with Magna Charta. Under Edward II. the Commons began to annex petitions to the bills by which they granted subsidies: this was the dawn of their legislative authority. In the reign of Edward III., they declared they would not in future acknowledge any law to which they had not expressly consented.* Soon after this, the Commons extorted a privilege, in which consists, at this time, one of the great balances of the Constitution, namely, that of impeaching and punishing the King's Ministers for mal-administration. The great accession of weight which the popular branch of the Constitution received in the reign of Henry III. has been already noticed. Under Henry IV. the Commons refused to grant subsidies, before an answer had been given to

* Edward III. abolished the custom of pleading in the Norman tongue.

their petitions. During the reign of Henry V. the nation was occupied in foreign wars. In the time of Henry VI. began the fatal contests between the houses of York and Lancaster; and from the accession of Henry VII. to the end of the reign of James I. the royal power had gained so great an ascendancy, that the government was nearly despotic. Under Charles I., the Commons became sensible of their strength; arbitrary imprisonment and the exercise of martial law were abolished; the High Commission Court and the Star Chamber were suppressed. In the reign of Charles II., according to Blackstone, we may date the complete restitution of English liberty, for the first time since its total abolition at the Conquest: because, not only were the slavish tenures, with their oppressive appendages, removed from encumbering landed estates, but additional security to the person of the subject from imprisonment was obtained by the *Habeas Corpus* Act; and the true balance between liberty and prerogative was happily established by law. When James II. attempted to enslave the nation, he was dethroned, and the vacant crown transferred to William of Nassau and Mary. Previous to their coronation, however, an oath was required of them to govern according to the Bill of Rights, which the Commons had drawn up in favour of the people.

The basis of the British Constitution is, that the legislative power belongs to Parliament alone; that is to say, the power of enacting laws, and of abrogating, changing, or explaining them. The King, Lords, and Commons, form the constituent parts of government. The King is the fountain of honour: he has the power of conferring titles of nobility; of nominating to vacant bishoprics; of disposing of the several governments of the kingdom; and of all civil, military, and naval employments; he alone can declare war, make peace, receive and appoint ambassadors. The law is administered constantly in his name, and he has the power of pardoning criminals. No money can be lawfully coined but by his command: and he can refuse his assent to

any bill, though it should have passed both Houses of Parliament. Any one of the three branches can prevent a bill from passing into a law; but, when once enacted, nothing but the united power of the three can repeal it. Only the King can convoke, dissolve, or prorogue a Parliament. The King of England is the chief Magistrate of the State; all other Magistrates acting by commission from, and in due subordination to him. In the execution of lawful authority, he is held to be absolute, at least so far, that there is no legal power can either delay or resist him. Nor is he bound by any Act of Parliament, unless named therein by special and particular words. These privileges and powers form what is called the royal prerogative.

DEFINITIONS.

Boroughs.—Towns which are incorporated either by charter or custom, and which have a common seal, one head, and other inferior officers and members, who are able, by their common consent and seal, to grant and execute in law, any corporate act.

Canon Law.—That which is made and ordained in a general council, or provincial synod of the church.

Commons.—Members of the House of Commons, that is, persons elected by the people to represent them in Parliament, and to watch over their rights and privileges. Every county returns two members; and every borough one or two members, according to its ancient custom.

Lords.—The Lords spiritual and temporal of the realm, who compose the Upper House of Parliament; the former, by virtue of their episcopal dignity, the latter by their hereditary descent.

Subsidies.—Money voted by the Commons, to be levied on the people, for the use of the Government.

Arbitrary Imprisonment.—Imprisonment at the will of the Sovereign.

Martial Law.—Punishment inflicted by military authority, without the intervention of the common law.

Habeas Corpus.—This celebrated Act, which secures the subject from arbitrary and illegal confinement, is a writ, which any man committed for a crime (unless it be felony or treason) may sue for, in the Courts of Chancery, Exchequer, King's Bench, or Common Pleas.

to oblige the persons detaining him a prisoner to produce him, and explain to the court the cause of his detention, and the time he has been confined; in order that, if the imprisonment be illegal, the prisoner may be discharged or admitted to bail. This writ, which is to be acted upon in the counties Palatine, in all other privileged places, and in the islands of Guernsey and Jersey, further provides, that no inhabitants of England (unless at their desire, or having committed some capital offence in the place to which they are sent) shall be sent prisoners to Ireland, Scotland, Jersey, or Guernsey, or to any places beyond the seas, within or without his Majesty's dominions, on pain that the person so committing, and his advisers and abettors, shall forfeit to the injured party a sum not less than £500, to be recovered with double costs, shall be disabled from holding any office, and be incapable of the King's pardon. The Habeas Corpus Act has been subject to temporary suspensions by authority of Parliament, in times of riot and rebellion.



PRINCE EDWARD STABBED BY AN ASSASSIN IN THE HOLY LAND.

THE Earl of Leicester not finding the new Parliament, which he had summoned at Oxford, so compliant as he expected, was obliged to liberate Prince Edward, who had languished in prison ever since the fatal battle of Lewes; but this liberation was more specious than real, as he was surrounded only by the creatures of Leicester, who watched all his actions. An opportunity however soon presented itself for eluding their vigilance, of which Edward availed himself: and it was no sooner known that he had recovered his liberty, than the royalists joined him from all quarters, and soon raised a considerable army. By pursuing the Prince to the borders of Wales, Leicester got into inextricable difficulties. Succours which were advancing under his son having been intercepted, he was defeated and slain in the battle of Eversham; which proved so decisive in favour of the royal party, that almost all the castles garrisoned by the

Barons hastened to make their submission, and opened their gates to the King.

In 1271, Prince Edward, having settled the affairs of the kingdom, undertook an expedition to the Holy Land, where he signalized himself by many acts of valour. The Infidels, dreading his power, hired an assassin to attempt his life; who, pretending to communicate some secrets of importance, gave him a letter to read; and at the same time aimed a blow at his body, which the Prince warded off, and leaping upon the assassin, wrested the dagger from him and killed him. Edward received a wound in the arm, which threatened serious consequences, as it had been inflicted with a poisoned weapon: happily, however, the skilfulness of his surgeon effected a cure; though some authors say he owed his life to the affection of his wife, who sucked the poison from the wound, at the imminent risk of her own safety.

During the absence of the Prince in Palestine, Henry III., overcome by the cares of government, and worn out by the infirmities of age, expired at St. Edmondsbury, on the 16th of November 1272, in the sixty-fourth year of his age, and the fifty-sixth of his reign.



THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

THE subject of this article is confessedly a digression, intended to illustrate the difference between the Feudal System, as it had prevailed from the Norman Conquest, and the British Constitution, as it had considerably advanced towards its present free character in the reign of Henry III.

The feudal form of government was rather a confederacy of independent warriors, than a society controlled by civil subjection to a common law; and derived its principal force from numerous inferior and voluntary associations, which individuals formed under a particular head or chieftain, and which it

became the highest point of honour to maintain with inviolable fidelity. The glory of the chief consisted in the number, the bravery, and the zealous attachment of his retainers: of whom it was required that they should accompany their chief in all wars and dangers; that they should fight or perish at his side; and should esteem his renown and favour a sufficient recompence for all their toil. The King himself was only a great chieftain, chosen from among the rest on account of his superior valour or nobility, and deriving his power from the voluntary association or attachment of the other chieftains.

When a number of chiefs, united in an expedition, had subdued large territories, they assigned to their leader, or suffered him to assume, the noblest division of land and revenue, for supporting his dignity as a prince; and distributed among themselves, with his concurrence, or received by his investiture, minor divisions of territory, under the title of fiefs, to be held of the paramount chieftain by military services. The first order of nobles made a new partition of estates and rents among their retainers: but the express condition of all these grants was, that they might be resumed at pleasure, and that the possessors should always be in readiness to take the field in defence of the whole confederacy. These fiefs were, however, in process of time, made hereditary; the authority of the sovereign gradually decayed, as that of the nobles increased: who, confident of the attachment of their vassals, severally fortified their territories, and secured by law what they had originally acquired by usurpation.



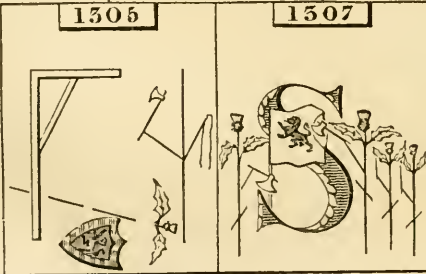
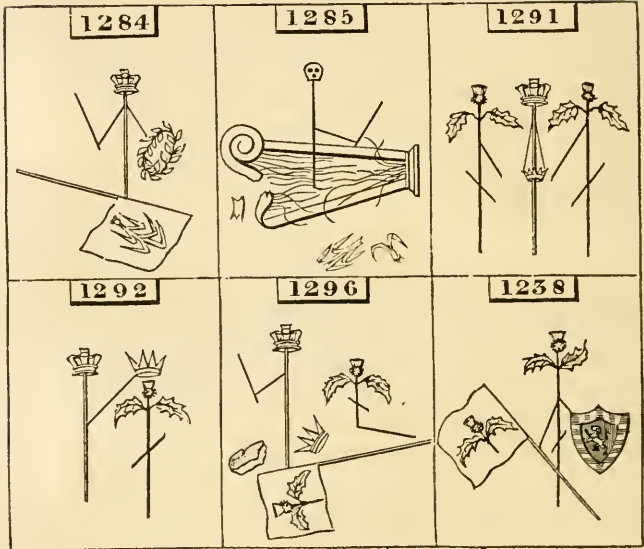
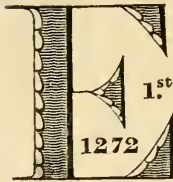


PLATE XII.

EDWARD THE FIRST.

Fig. 1.—CONQUEST OF WALES.

Edward, trampling upon the Welch banner, holds in one hand a crown of laurel, the emblem of conquest; and in the other his sword.

Fig. 2.—MASSACRE OF THE WELCH BARDS.

An assassin trampling upon an unstrung harp, near which is a broken leek, indicates the massacre of the Bards.

Fig. 3.—EDWARD CHOSEN ARBITER BETWEEN BALIOL AND BRUCE.

Baliol and Bruce, Pretenders to the Scottish crown, soliciting the arbitration of Edward, who has seized it for himself.

Fig. 4.—EDWARD DISPOSING OF THE SCOTTISH CROWN.

Edward placing the crown of Scotland on the head of Baliol.

Fig. 5.—SUBMISSION OF BALIOL TO EDWARD.

Baliol lays his crown and the Scottish standard at the feet of Edward, behind whom is the stone which was considered as the palladium of Scotland.

Fig. 6.—WALLACE RAISING THE SCOTTISH STANDARD.

Wallace raising the standard of Scotland, is represented with a shield, in commemoration of his noble defence of his native country.

Fig. 7.—THE DEATH OF WALLACE.

Fig. 8.—ROBERT BRUCE AND HIS ASSOCIATES DESTROYING THE BRITISH STANDARD.

EDWARD THE FIRST.

EDWARD is generally considered as a model for a warlike and politic king, and is by some authors styled the English Justinian. He was possessed of industry, penetration, courage, vigilance, and enterprize; he was frugal with respect to unnecessary expenses, yet, on proper occasions, knew how to open the public treasures; he punished criminals with severity, but was gracious and affable to his servants and courtiers. Being of a majestic figure, and expert in all military exercises, he was no less qualified to captivate the populace by his exterior accomplishments, than to gain the approbation of men of sense by his more solid virtues. But the chief advantage which the people of England reaped, and still continue to reap, from the reign of this great prince, was the amendment, extension, and establishment of the laws: the authority of which Edward maintained with great vigour, and transmitted them to posterity, with a constitution much improved. He settled the jurisdictions of the several courts; first established the office of Justice of the Peace; repressed robberies and disorders; encouraged trade; and, in short, introduced a new order of things, by the vigour and wisdom of his administration.

DEFINITIONS.

Justinian.—A Roman Emperor, who compiled a celebrated code of Laws.

Justice of the Peace.—A Magistrate appointed by the King's commission to attend to the preservation of the peace in the county or district in which he resides.



CONQUEST OF WALES.

IN 1276, Edward undertook an expedition against Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, who had refused to do homage for his crown; he therefore invaded that country with an army greatly superior to any force the Welch could bring to oppose

him. Llewellyn had no resource but in the inaccessible fortresses of his mountains, whither he retreated with his army, and was closely followed by Edward; who, unwilling to put to trial the valour of a proud and independent nation, trusted to the slow but sure effects of famine; and Llewellyn had the mortification of being obliged to submit, without striking a single blow in defence of his country. It was not long, however, before the Welch revolted, in consequence of the insolence and oppression of their conquerors. Edward was not displeased at having an opportunity of making his conquest final and absolute: he therefore quickly levied a numerous body of forces, and once more entered the Principality. Llewellyn at first gained some slight advantages; but being surprised by Mortimer, he was defeated and slain, and two thousand of his followers were put to the sword. All the Welch nobility submitted, and the English laws were introduced. The Queen of England happening some time after to lay-in at Caernarvon, of a son, the King created him Prince of Wales; which title has ever since been borne by the eldest son of the Kings of England.



MASSACRE OF THE WELCH BARDS.

DAVID, who succeeded to his brother's rights, determined to make one effort more to wrest his country from the hands of the conqueror; but, unable to collect an army sufficient to face the English, he was driven from one retreat to another; and, to conceal himself, had recourse to various disguises, till at last he was betrayed into the hands of the enemy. Edward sent him in chains to Shrewsbury, and brought him to a formal trial before all the Peers of England, who ordered this sovereign prince to be hanged, drawn, and quartered as a traitor, for having defended by force of arms the liberties of his native country and his own hereditary authority. Edward, sensible

that nothing kept alive the ideas of military valour and of ancient glory amongst the Welch, so much as the traditional poetry of their bards, in which the great and noble actions of their ancestors were celebrated, with a barbarous and cruel policy ordered all the bards to be put to death: which inhuman command was immediately executed, and has left a lasting stain on his memory.

DEFINITION.

Bards.—Wandering minstrels and poets, who chaunted to their harps the heroic achievements of their ancestors; thereby animating their hearers to emulate the valour of their predecessors.



EDWARD CHOSEN ARBITER BETWEEN BALIOL
AND BRUCE.

MARGARET of Norway, the presumptive heiress of the Scottish crown, dying whilst an infant, the vacant throne was claimed by the decendants of the daughters of David, Earl of Huntingdon, brother to King William. John Baliol was grandson to Margaret, David's eldest daughter; and Bruce was the immediate son of the second daughter. John Hastings, son of the third daughter, was contented to set up pretensions to a third part of the kingdom. With respect to the rights of Baliol and Bruce, the nation was divided: but, in order to avert the horrors of civil war, the candidates referred their cause to the decision of Edward King of England. Taking advantage of this, Edward revived an obscure claim to a feudal superiority over the Scotch, and required their acknowledgment of his *own* right. The people of Scotland were astonished to find in the English monarch a new competitor for their kingdom, which was indeed claimed by an increasing number of rivals, till they at length amounted to fourteen. Florence, Earl of Holland, founded his title on being the great-grandson of Ada, eldest sister of the deceased King William. Robert de Pynkeny

deduced a similar right, from being a descendant of William's second sister. John Cummin, Earl of Badenoch, relied on his pedigree from Donald Bane, who two centuries back had usurped the Scottish crown. Six other candidates started, on the absurd grounds of a descent from natural children of former sovereigns. Last of all, the King of Norway by an embassy demanded the crown, as father and next heir to the late Queen. The majority of the applicants, it is natural to conjecture, were encouraged by Edward to present themselves, to make the cause appear more intricate, and enable him to bestow the crown upon the most obsequious candidate. Robert Bruce was the first who acknowledged Edward's superiority over Scotland: his example was soon followed by the others, though with evident reluctance; and, shortly afterward, all the Prelates and Barons took the oath of fealty.

DEFINITION.

Civil War.—Warfare between people of the same nation.



EDWARD DISPOSING OF THE SCOTTISH CROWN.

EDWARD, in order to give greater authority to his intended decision of the claims made to the Scottish throne, proposed this question to all the celebrated lawyers in Europe: "In the succession of kingdoms, fiefs, and inheritances, is the claim of a person descended from the elder sister, but farther removed by one degree, preferable to that of another descended from the younger sister, but one degree nearer the common stock?" The question was uniformly answered in the affirmative. He therefore pronounced sentence in favour of Baliol, who was accordingly crowned: but the new King soon found that he was invested with only the shadow of royalty. Edward, upon the most frivolous pretences, obliged him to come to London, and appear at the bar of his Parliament as a private person. It is evident that he sought to enrage Baliol, and to provoke him

to rebel, that he might at once seize upon his dominions as a punishment for his treason.



SUBMISSION OF BALIOL TO EDWARD.

BALIOL, disgusted with the arbitrary conduct of Edward, entered into an alliance with Philip of France; and having refused, when cited, to appear at an English Parliament held at Newcastle, Edward marched into Scotland with an army of thirty thousand foot and four thousand horse, determined to chastise his rebellious vassal. The town of Berwick was taken by assault, Sir William Douglas the governor made prisoner, and seven thousand of the garrison put to the sword. Dunbar next fell into Edward's hands: the castle of Roxborough was yielded up by James, steward of Scotland; and even Edinburgh and Stirling, after a slight resistance, opened their gates to him. The feeble and timid Baliol, alarmed by these successes, hastened to make his submission to Edward, expressed the deepest concern for his disloyalty to his liege lord, and made a solemn and irrevocable resignation of his crown into the hands of the English monarch. Edward also got possession of what was considered as the palladium of the Scottish monarchy; a stone, on which were engraved two lines, in Latin, to the following effect:

“ Or Fates deceive, and Heaven decrees in vain,

“ Or where they find this stone, the Scots shall reign.”

It was preserved with great care at Scone, and held in the highest veneration by the people, their Kings being always seated on it at their inauguration. This stone is now inclosed in the seat of Edward the Confessor's chair, and is used at the coronation of our Kings.

DEFINITION.

Palladium.—A symbol of protection. In ancient history it is said to have been a statue of Minerva, which fell down from Heaven,

near the tent of Illus, as he was building the citadel of Illium, and it was an universal opinion that the safety of Troy depended on its preservation. In a general sense, it signifies whatever is considered as the bulwark or safeguard of a nation.

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WALLACE RAISING THE SCOTTISH STANDARD.

THE governors whom Edward appointed over Scotland, Ormesby the justiciary, and Cressingham the treasurer, treated the Scots with so much indignity and injustice, that that nation was exasperated to the highest degree against the English Government. William Wallace, a gentleman of small fortune, but descended from an ancient and noble family in the west of Scotland, determined to attempt the deliverance of his native country from the dominion of foreigners. He had been provoked by the insolence of an English officer to put him to death; and, finding himself exposed on that account to the severity of the Government, he fled into the woods, and offered himself as leader to all the malcontents in the kingdom. Being endowed with gigantic strength of body, heroic courage, vigour of mind, patriotism, wisdom, magnanimity, and exemplary patience, he soon acquired among his followers that authority to which he was so justly entitled by his virtues. In May 1297 he began to infest the English quarters. Many detached parties of Edward's force were surprised and routed; and when the English happened to repel his attack, they were unable to follow him, as he always secured a retreat in the morasses and mountains of the country. Having, by many successful enterprizes, brought the valour of his men to correspond with his own, he resolved to strike a decisive blow against the English viceregency at Scone. Ormesby, with the force under him, apprized of Wallace's intention, hastily fled; the courage of the Scots revived, and they prepared to shake off their fetters at once, by a united effort. But Earl Warrenne, Edward's viceroy, collecting an army of forty thousand

men in the north of England, attacked them before their forces were concentrated, and defeated them with considerable slaughter at Irvine. He then advanced towards Stirling, and found Wallace encamped near Cambuskenneth. He ordered his army to attack the Scottish camp; but, partly owing to the judicious ground which Wallace had taken up, and partly owing to the English being inconsiderately led over a narrow bridge to the attack, the Scots gained a complete victory over the English. The castles of Roxborough and Berwick soon after fell into the hands of Wallace. He then penetrated as far as Durham; and returned back laden with spoil. On account of these brilliant successes, being universally revered as the deliverer of his country, he was made Regent of the kingdom, under the captive Baliol.

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THE DEATH OF WALLACE.

KING Edward was in France when he received intelligence of the successes of Wallace, and the discomfiture of his troops. Having concluded a truce with the French, he returned to England, determined to recover Scotland, the previous conquest of which he had considered as the chief glory and advantage of his reign. With this view, he marched with an army of one hundred thousand combatants to the northern frontier. The elevation of Wallace to the high dignity of Regent, and, above all, his reputation and glory, had excited the envy and jealousy of the nobles; in consequence of which he resigned his authority, being anxious only for the public good. The chief power then devolved on the Stewart of Scotland, and Cummin of Badenoch, men of high birth, under whom the chieftains were more willing to fight.

These two commanders collected all their forces, and determined to await the attack of the English at Falkirk. Wallace commanded a third body of men, who, having been accustomed

to victory under his standard, refused to follow any other leader into the field. The Scottish army placed their pikemen along the front, which they endeavoured to secure by palisadoes, tied together with ropes, as they justly feared the great superiority of the English cavalry. On the 22d of July 1298, the invaders arrived before the Scottish position. Edward divided his army into three bodies; and, well pleased with the prospect of finishing the war by one decisive stroke, commenced the attack. As the English archers at this time began to surpass those of all other nations, they drove the Scottish bowmen off the field; then pouring in their arrows among the pikemen, who were confined within their entrenchments, they threw them into confusion; this greatly facilitated the success of the English pikemen and cavalry, and the Scots were defeated with prodigious slaughter. Some authors say that there fell on that memorable day fifty or sixty thousand men: this account is probably exaggerated; yet it is certain that the Scots never sustained a greater loss, and the subjugation of their country appeared almost inevitable,

After the battle, Wallace retreated behind the Carron, whence he took every opportunity of annoying the enemy, determined to maintain his independence to the last. Edward was employed two years in completing the conquest of Scotland; but not deeming it perfectly secure whilst Wallace was alive, he employed every art to discover the place of his retreat, and to secure his person. At last this intrepid warrior was betrayed by his pretended friend, Sir John Monteith, into the hands of the King; who ordered him to be carried in chains to London, to be tried as a rebel and traitor, although he had never made submission nor sworn allegiance to the English monarchy. The Scottish hero was condemned to be hanged, drawn, and quartered, for having, with undaunted courage and perseverance, defended the liberties of his country against a public and oppressive enemy.

ROBERT BRUCE AND HIS ASSOCIATES DESTROYING THE BRITISH STANDARD.

ROBERT Bruce, grandson of that Robert who had been one of the competitors for the Scottish throne, animated by the noble and just sentiments of Wallace, with whom, according to the Scottish historians, he had an interview after the battle of Falkirk, resolved, after the death of that hero, to make a bold attempt to rescue his country from slavery. He first opened his mind to John Cummin, a powerful nobleman, whom he supposed to be his friend, but who betrayed his plans to Edward. Bruce was however warned of his danger, and fled to Dumfries in Annandale, the chief seat of his family interest, where he happily found a great number of the Scottish nobility assembled, and, among the rest, John Cummin.

The noblemen were not a little astonished at seeing Bruce among them. He discovered to them the object of his journey; he declared that he was come to live or die with them in defence of his country; and exhorted them to redeem the Scottish name from all the indignities which it had so long suffered from the tyranny of their imperious masters. The spirit of his discourse, the boldness of his sentiments, and the novelty of the declaration, assisted by his youth and noble deportment, made a deep impression on the minds of his auditors; and all, except Cummin, declared their unanimous resolution to retrieve the honour of the Scottish name, or perish in the cause. The presence of Bruce once more roused the martial genius of the Scots; they flew to arms, and expelled the English from the kingdom. But Edward, not discouraged by this unexpected reverse, sent Aymer de Valence, Earl of Pembroke, with a considerable force into Scotland. The small army under Bruce was encamped at Methven, near Perth. The English general, having fixed his head-quarters at Perth, sent a challenge to Bruce; in consequence of which a day was fixed, by mutual agreement, for a battle between the two armies:

but on the day before that stipulated, the English forces surprised their adversaries by an attack, which threw the Scottish army into such disorder as ended in a total defeat. Bruce fought with most heroic courage; but was obliged to take shelter, with a few followers, in the Western Isles. Edward meanwhile was advancing with a great army, to enter Scotland, with the design of making the insurgents feel the effects of his vengeance. At Carlisle, however, he was attacked with a dysentery, and died on the 7th of July 1307, within sight of the Scottish border, enjoining his son, with his last breath, to prosecute the war, and never to desist until he had finally reduced the kingdom of Scotland.

PLATE XIII.

EDWARD THE SECOND.

Fig. 1.—MARRIAGE OF EDWARD WITH ISABELLA OF FRANCE.

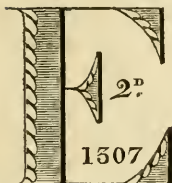
Fig. 2.—DEATH OF GAVESTON.

Fig. 3.—BATTLE OF BANNOCKBURN.

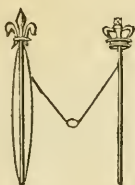
Robert Bruce exalting the Scottish standard, and depressing that of the English.

Fig. 4.—DEATH OF THE TWO SPENSERS.

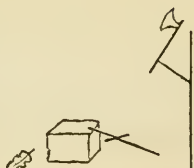
Fig. 5.—MURDER OF EDWARD THE SECOND.



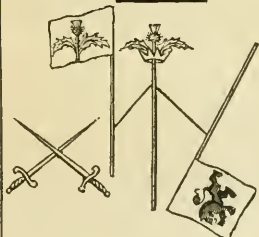
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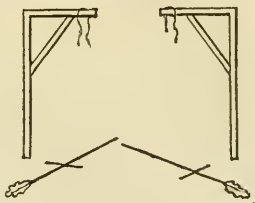
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1314



1326



1327



EDWARD THE SECOND.

EDWARD II., the son and successor of Edward I., was in the twenty-third year of his age when he ascended the throne. Nature had given him an agreeable figure. He had a mild and gentle disposition, without vigour of understanding to give to good intentions stability and effect; hence he was very unfit for governing a fierce and turbulent people, who required to be restrained within the bounds of duty by a strong and powerful hand. The indolence and little penetration of Edward induced him to make choice of ministers and favourites, who were not always the best qualified for the important trust committed to them. The seditious nobles, under pretence of attacking his ministers, insulted him, and invaded his authority; whilst the misjudging populace, mistaking the cause of their grievances, threw all the blame of the disorders which distinguished this reign upon the unhappy monarch.



MARRIAGE OF EDWARD WITH ISABELLA OF FRANCE.

Soon after the accession of Edward to the throne, he was obliged to go over to France, in order to do homage for the duchy of Guienne; and to espouse the Princess Isabella, daughter of Philip King of France, to whom he had long been affianced, though the completion of the marriage had hitherto been delayed by unexpected accidents. This princess was of an imperious and intriguing spirit; and finding that her husband's capacity required him to be governed, she thought herself, in every respect, best entitled to perform the office. On that account she contracted an implacable hatred against Gaveston, the King's favourite, of whose ascendancy over her husband she was extremely jealous.

DEATH OF GAVESTON.

A GASCON knight of some distinction, who had honourably served the late King Edward I., obtained, as a reward, an establishment for his son in the family of the Prince of Wales. The young man, Piers Gaveston, was equally noted for the beauty and elegance of his figure, and for his skill in all warlike and graceful exercises, as well as for the brilliancy of his wit; but he was vainglorious, profuse, and rapacious. At all tournaments, he took delight in foiling the English nobility by his superior address; and in conversation he always made them the objects of his wit and ridicule. Edward loved him with the most enthusiastic fondness; and during the time that he went over to France, to espouse the Princess Isabella, he left him guardian of the realm, with more ample powers than had usually been conferred on such occasions. This injudicious partiality excited the opposition of the Barons; and soon after the Queen had arrived, his influence over the King excited her displeasure also. The Barons therefore formed a conspiracy against him, at the head of which were the Queen and the Earl of Lancaster, cousin-german to the King, and the most powerful nobleman in England. In consequence of this, Edward was obliged to banish his favourite; but he was soon after recalled, and taken into greater favour than before. Gaveston, forgetful of his past misfortunes, resumed the same ostentatious and insolent behaviour which had formerly been so disastrous to him, and became more than ever an object of detestation among the nobility. He was once more banished, and recalled: but the Barons, renewing their conspiracy, became irresistible, being joined by Earl Warrenne, who had hitherto always supported the Royal party. The Earl of Lancaster raised an army, and pursued the King and his minion. Edward left Gaveston at Scarborough, as in a place of safety, whilst he endeavoured to collect an army in his defence.

In the mean time the castle of Scarborough was besieged by the confederate nobles. Gaveston surrendered; and shortly after, without any regard either to the laws or to the military capitulation, the head of this obnoxious favourite was struck off by the hands of the executioner.

DEFINITIONS.

Tournament.—A military sport or exercise, which ancient cavaliers used to perform to shew their bravery and address; it is derived from the French word “tourner,” to turn round; because much agility was requisite, both in the horse and his rider. Tournaments are noticed as early as the reign of Stephen, but did not become general till the reign of Richard the Second.

Conspiracy.—Concerted treason; a private agreement between several persons to commit some crime.



BATTLE OF BANNOCKBURN.

EDWARD, instead of pursuing the vigorous measures of his father, and persevering in the war with Scotland, marched but a little way into the country: for, being entirely averse from business, he penetrated only to Cumnock, on the frontier of Airshire, and then returned to England, committing the guardianship of Scotland to Piers de Gaveston, Earl of Pembroke. A fortnight afterwards this appointment was superceded, and the important office conferred upon John de Bretagne, Earl of Richmond. As soon as the English main army had departed, Robert Bruce issued from his fastnesses in the mountains, and invaded Galloway. After having wasted that county, he was compelled by the Guardian to retreat. He then overran the north parts of Scotland; and directing his attacks on those Scottish chiefs who were in the English interest, drove them from their hills, and made himself master of the Highlands. He even made inroads upon the English territory; and taught his followers to despise the military genius of a people whom

they had long regarded with terror. Edward, at last roused from his lethargy by these insults, assembled a large army, determined by one decisive action to finish the conquest of Scotland. He not only called out the military strength of England and Wales, but drew a force from Ireland, levied from the tribes subject to his government; invited to his assistance Eth O'Connor, Chief of Connaught, and twenty-six other Irish Chiefs, as auxiliaries; summoned over the most warlike of his vassals from Gascony; and enlisted a large body of foreign mercenaries. With this numerous army, consisting, according to some authors, of one hundred thousand men, he advanced into Scotland. The army of Bruce did not exceed thirty thousand combatants, but they were all men who had distinguished themselves by many acts of valour, and were rendered desperate by their situation.

The castle of Stirling, which was almost the only place remaining in the hands of the English, had long been besieged by Bruce; and the Governor, Sir Philip de Mowbray, had promised to surrender it if he were not relieved by a certain day. Sensible therefore that this was the spot on which he must expect the English, Bruce took a position at Bannockburn, which had a hill on the right and a morass on the left, where he patiently awaited the coming up of the enemy. Fearful of their superior cavalry, he had ordered deep pits to be dug along the banks of a rivulet in front of his army, into which were fixed sharp stakes, that were carefully covered over with turf.

The English arrived in the evening, and a furious contest ensued between an English party of eight hundred horse, which attempted to relieve the castle of Stirling, and a body of spearmen. The English party retired in disorder.

When King Edward's vanguard appeared, Robert Bruce was in front of the Scottish line. Henry de Bohun, an English knight, rode forward to encounter him. Robert Bruce slew his antagonist with one blow of his battle-axe, in

sight of the two armies. The English vanguard fled with precipitation.

The next morning both armies prepared for battle : the Scots, animated by the valour of their King, were anxious to signalize themselves ; and the English were impatient to revenge the death of Bohun. The left wing of Edward's cavalry was commanded by the Duke of Gloucester, who, impelled by the ardour of youth, rushed forward to the attack, and fell among the covered pits prepared by Bruce ; the cavalry were disordered, and Gloucester slain. Sir James Douglas, who commanded the centre of the Scots, left the English no time to rally, but pursued them vigorously, and drove them off the field with considerable loss. Meanwhile the King of Scotland, perceiving that his troops were grievously annoyed by the English archers, ordered Sir Robert Keith, the mareschal, with a few horsemen, to attack the archers in flank. The archers could make little resistance in a close encounter ; and their flight spread terror through the whole army. The main body of infantry, who were greatly alarmed at this disastrous beginning, were quite dismayed on observing an army on the heights, which seemed to be marching to surround them. This was a number of waggons and sumpter boys, whom Robert had collected, and supplied with military standards. The stratagem succeeded : the English, panic-struck, threw down their arms and fled. They were pursued with great slaughter as far as Berwick. The Scots made a considerable booty, and took many prisoners, among whom were several of the nobility, and four hundred gentlemen. Edward himself fled to Dunbar, and narrowly escaped being taken. From Dunbar he passed by sea to Berwick.

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DEATH OF THE TWO SPENSERS.

THE factious nobility no sooner saw the King return with disgrace from his Scottish expedition, than they insulted his

fallen fortunes, and renewed their cabals. Lancaster, though placed at the head of the council, was suspected of holding a secret correspondence with the enemy; for, being entrusted with the command of the English armies, he contrived that every enterprize should fail. Edward sought relief against public faction, in the indulgence of private attachment. After the death of Gaveston he chose a new favourite, named Hugh le Despenser, or Spenser. This young man was of a noble English family, and possessed of every exterior accomplishment, but was utterly destitute of prudence and moderation. His father was a nobleman of distinguished merit, venerable from his years, and respected through all his past life for wisdom, valour, and integrity. The King, who set no limits to his bounty towards his favourites, had imprudently dispossessed some lords of their estates, and bestowed them on Spenser: this was sufficient to kindle a civil war; the Earls of Lancaster and Hereford flew to arms, and, after pillaging and destroying the lands of the younger Spenser, they marched to London, and procured by menaces and violence an act of attainder and perpetual banishment against both the father and the son, who were at that time absent, employed in different commissions by the King. At last Edward took the field at the head of thirty thousand men, and pressed the Earl of Lancaster so closely that he had not time to collect his forces together; but, flying from one place to another, he was at last seized in his way to Scotland, and was immediately condemned by a court-martial, and executed at Pomfret with circumstances of the greatest indignity. Spenser now triumphed for a time; but he was soon opposed by a more formidable enemy. Queen Isabella had retired to France, and her Court became an asylum for all the malcontents in England. Having artfully gotten into her hands the young Prince, the heir of the monarchy, she resolved on the utter ruin of the King as well as his favourite; and, when Edward required her to return, she pub-

licly replied, that she never would return till Spenser was banished the royal presence. By this declaration she acquired great popularity. As soon as she thought matters were ripe for her purpose, she set sail from Dort, with three thousand men; and on the 24th September 1326, landed in Suffolk without opposition. She no sooner appeared than there occurred a general revolt in her favour: the garrison of Bristol, which was commanded by the elder Spenser, mutinied, and delivered him up to his enemies, by whom he was immediately hanged: his head was sent to Winchester, and his body cut in pieces and thrown to the dogs. The younger Spenser was taken in an obscure convent in Wales, and, without any form of trial, hanged on a gibbet fifty feet high: his head was sent to London, where it was received by the citizens with brutal triumph, and fixed on the bridge.

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MURDER OF EDWARD THE SECOND.

THE unfortunate King, finding the spirit of disloyalty had infected the whole nation, sought refuge in Wales; but he was quickly discovered, and delivered up to his adversaries. The people heaped upon him reproaches. By the party into whose power he fell he was conducted to the capital, and confined in the Tower, receiving from their agents the grossest insults. A charge was soon exhibited against him, accusing him of indolence, incapacity for government, the love of pleasure, and of being swayed by evil counsellors; his deposition was quickly voted by Parliament, and a pension assigned for his support. His son, a youth of fourteen, was nominated to succeed him; and the Queen appointed Regent. The deposed monarch was first consigned to the custody of the Earl of Leicester; but this nobleman was thought to show him too much respect: he was therefore taken out of his hands and given over to the Lords Berkeley, Gournay, and Mautravers.

The former still treated him with some humanity : but when it came to the turn of the two latter, every species of indignity was acted against him that malice and cruelty could suggest, as if they designed to accelerate his death by the bitterness of his sufferings. But as long as he survived, his persecutors were afraid of a revolution in his favour ; and Mortimer gave secret orders to two of his three keepers to dispatch him. The King was at Berkeley Castle ; but Lord Berkeley was prevented from attending him by sickness. Gournay and Mautravers, taking advantage of this, went thither and seized his person : by an infernal contrivance, they burnt his bowels without disfiguring the body, hoping by this means to escape detection : but the shrieks of the agonized monarch were heard even at a distance from the castle ; a suspicion of the murder was raised, and the whole was soon after divulged by one of the accomplices. Thus fell Edward II., in the forty-third year of his age and the twentieth of his reign.



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|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| <p>1327</p> | <p>1330</p> | <p>1339</p> |
| <p>1346</p> | <p>1346</p> | <p>1347</p> |
| <p>1549</p> | <p>1349</p> | <p>1356</p> |

PLATE XIV.

EDWARD THE THIRD.

Fig. 1.—ENGLAND INVADED BY THE SCOTS.

Fig. 2.—EXECUTION OF MORTIMER, EARL OF MARCH.

Fig. 3.—INVASION OF FRANCE.

Fig. 4.—BATTLE OF CRECY.

The cross swords denote the battle; the plume of feathers is a trophy won by Edward the Black Prince; and the cannon intimates that artillery was first used by the English in this engagement.

Fig. 5.—DAVID, KING OF SCOTLAND, TAKEN PRISONER BY QUEEN PHILIPPA.

Fig. 6.—THE SURRENDER OF CALAIS.

Fig. 7.—INSTITUTION OF THE ORDER OF THE GARTER.

Fig. 8.—DREADFUL PESTILENCE.

Death reclining on the Eastern hemisphere, with one hand resting on Asia; the other on Europe, points out how far the malady extended.

Fig. 9.—BATTLE OF POICTIERS.

The King of France and his son taken prisoners by the Prince of Wales, who is distinguished by the plume of feathers.

EDWARD THE THIRD.

THIS monarch was only fourteen years of age when he ascended the throne. During his minority the government was vested in a council of regency, appointed by the Parliament, consisting of twelve persons: the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, the Bishop of Winchester, Worcester, and Hereford; the Earls of Norfolk, Kent, and Surry; and the Barons Wake, Ingham, Piercy, and Ross. The Earl of Lancaster was appointed guardian and protector of the King's person.

Edward was tall and majestic, and excelled all his contemporaries in feats of arms and personal address. He was distinguished for courtesy of manners, affability, and eloquence. His ruling passion was the love of fame, or rather the love of conquest; and the glory of a conqueror is so dazzling to the vulgar, that the injustice of Edward in the Scottish and French wars was lost in the blaze of victory. It was in this reign that the seeds of that bitter animosity was sown, which has for so many centuries rankled in the hearts of Englishmen and Frenchmen. The domestic government of Edward was vigorous and prudent; and to him we are indebted for many excellent laws and regulations.



ENGLAND INVADED BY THE SCOTS.

ROBERT BRUCE, the valiant King of Scotland, though declining in years, still retained that martial spirit which had raised his nation from the lowest ebb of fortune. He considered the minority of Edward a favourable opportunity for invading England, and accordingly collected an army of twenty-five thousand men on the frontier, the command of which he gave to the Earl of Murray and Lord Douglas. The English Regency in vain endeavoured to make peace. The young King, burning with a passion for military fame, was anxious for an opportunity of displaying his valour: at the head of a numerous

body of forces he marched in quest of the enemy, who had already broken in upon the frontier, and laid every thing waste around them. Edward's chief difficulty was to overtake an enemy so rapid in their marches, and so little encumbered in their motions. The flame and smoke of burning villages sufficiently pointed out the line of their progress; but when the King had discovered their encampment, and moved up to it, they successively abandoned the ground, and, by a secret march, went off to a new position, sometimes not easily traced. After the army had been long harassed in this fruitless chase, certain intelligence was brought that the Scots had fixed their camp on the southern banks of the Were. Impatient for revenge and glory, Edward here sent them a defiance, and challenged them to meet him on an equal field: but Murray replied, "That he never took the council of an enemy in any of his operations." The King therefore kept his station opposite the Scots, in the hope that necessity would oblige them to change their quarters. Whilst he lay in this position, an incident happened which had nearly proved fatal to the English. Douglas, having gotten the watchword, secretly entered the English camp in the night time, and, supported by a body of two hundred determined soldiers, penetrated to the royal tent, in the hopes of killing or carrying off the King: but his attendants awaking at that critical moment, a stout resistance was made, and the King, after a brave defence, escaped in the dark. Douglas, having lost most of his men, retreated; and soon after the Scottish army removed, without noise, in the dead of the night, and arrived without any further loss in their own country. King Edward, who had expected a decisive battle, on finding the enemy had fled, burst into tears, so acutely did he feel the disappointment he had met with in his first enterprize; but the symptoms of bravery and spirit which he had discovered highly delighted his people, who considered them as prognostics of an illustrious reign.

EXECUTION OF MORTIMER, EARL OF MARCH.

ROGER MORTIMER, a potent Baron in the Welch marches, had, during the reign of Edward II., been condemned for high treason; and, though his life had been spared, he was detained in the Tower, whence he made his escape into France. Being extremely violent in his animosity against the Spencers, he was easily admitted to pay his court to Queen Isabella, consort of Edward II., who had retired to France in disgust. The graces of his person, and address, soon procured him an ascendancy over her; and she scrupled not to sacrifice to him all the sentiments of honour and fidelity due to her husband. When she brought the expedition from Dort to the coast of Suffolk, he returned with her to this country. After the overthrow of the Spencers, this unworthy favourite of Isabella was not satisfied to dethrone Edward II., but caused him to be murdered, as already related. On that monarch's deposition, he contrived to assume the whole sovereign authority. Edward, the late King's son, a youth of fourteen, was chosen his successor; and Isabella was appointed Regent during the Prince's minority, with a privy council of twelve persons. Mortimer affected to exclude himself from this council, but directed their proceedings by a secret influence. The greater part of the royal revenues were by the Parliament and Council settled on the Queen Regent. Under this form of government the young King was so surrounded by creatures of the favourite, that no access could be procured to the Royal presence. Suspicious of the Princes of the blood, Mortimer determined to intimidate them; and having by his emissaries induced the Earl of Kent to believe that his brother King Edward was alive, that Prince entered into a design of restoring him; upon which he was seized by Mortimer, accused before the Parliament, condemned, and executed. Many prelates and nobles were also prosecuted upon the same charge; and the favourite was enriched by the forfeiture of their estates. At length,

young Edward, indignant at the restraint imposed upon himself, and disgusted with the arrogance of Mortimer, formed the design of terminating a tyranny odious to the whole nation; he engaged Lords Mountacute, Clifford, and other Barons, to enter into his views. The guilty Isabella and her paramour had for some time made the castle of Nottingham their residence; and, for greater security, the gates were locked every night, and the keys carried to the Queen. The royal party rendered this caution unavailing by gaining over Sir William Eland, the governor of the fortress, who, on a night agreed on, opened a subterraneous passage, known only to one or two persons: by this the noblemen in the King's interest entered, and suddenly seized Mortimer, who was in an apartment adjoining the Queen's. A Parliament was immediately summoned, by which he was condemned without trial, and hanged on a gibbet at the Elms, near London. The Queen was imprisoned in the castle of Risings, where she lived for twenty-five years, abandoned to contempt and perpetual regret, though her son continued to pay her an annual visit of respect and duty.

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INVASION OF FRANCE.

UPON the death of Mortimer, Edward, who was then eighteen years of age, assumed the reigns of government. His first enterprize was to raise Edward Baliol to the Scottish throne; but in this attempt he did not entirely succeed. In the year 1328, he had married Philippa of Hainault; who, two years afterwards, was delivered of a son, commonly known by the name of the Black Prince.

Edward in his youth had entertained an idea that he had a right to the crown of France, being the grandson of Louis Hutin, on the female side. By the Salique law, which regulated the succession of inheritances in France, females were considered as incapable of succeeding to the crown of that

monarchy: and, for the space of nine hundred years, no females, nor any who founded their title on a female descent, had ever mounted that throne. Charles the Fair, at his death, left one daughter; but, as the Queen was pregnant, the next male heir, Philip of Valois, was appointed Regent, with a declared right of succession, if the issue should prove female. The Queen was delivered of a daughter; the regency ended; and Philip of Valois was unanimously placed on the throne of France.

Edward, in 1337, did homage to Philip for Guienne; and in all probability he would have renounced his pretensions entirely, had not a quarrel intervened between the French King and Robert of Artois, a Prince of the blood, who took refuge in the English court, and was received with great kindness by Edward. Robert, to revenge himself on Philip, roused the ambition of Edward, and urged him to prosecute his claim to the crown of France. Preparations were soon set on foot for this important enterprize: the Count of Hainault, the Duke of Brabant, the Archbishop of Cologne, the Duke of Gueldres, the Marquis of Juliers, the Count of Namur, and the Lords of Fauquemont and Baquen, embraced the cause of Edward. James D'Arteville, a brewer of Ghent, who brought over the Flenings to the interest of the English King, gave him the greatest assistance, and prevailed with him to quarter the arms of France with his own. In 1339 Edward began his operations, and encamped in the plains of Vironfosse with an army of fifty thousand men. Philip approached him with an army nearly double that number. They faced each other for a few days; mutual defiances were sent: and at last Edward retired into Flanders, and disbanded his army, without having obtained any advantage.

BATTLE OF CRECY.

SOME years passed away before Edward again invaded France, during which time he was employed in quelling domestic disturbances, and in regulating the internal policy of the kingdom, which had been greatly deranged by the extensive preparations made during the first campaign. The affairs of Brittany, too, had also engaged much of his attention; and though, as King of England, he was restrained by a truce with Philip, yet, as an ally of a competitor for Brittany, he had made some efforts to gain ground in the South of France. These were unsuccessful: but, upon the expiration of the truce, he suddenly altered his plans, and landed at La Hogue, in Normandy. There he bestowed the honour of knighthood on his son, the Prince of Wales, and several of the young nobility; created the Earl of Arundel High-constable of the army, and the Earls of Warwick and Hainault, Mareschals. The army consisted of four thousand men at arms, ten thousand archers, ten thousand Welch infantry, and six thousand Irish. This invasion was totally unexpected by Philip, and threw him into great perplexity: however, he issued orders for levying forces in all quarters; and sent a body of troops to the defence of Caen, which was, notwithstanding, taken by the English and pillaged. Rouen shared the same fate; and the victorious army proceeded along the banks of the Seine, burning the villages even within sight of Paris. Philip, at the head of a vast army, was impatient to take revenge on the English for the ravages they had hitherto committed with impunity. The two armies met near the village of Crecy. Edward had chosen his ground with great advantage, and disposed his army in excellent order: it was drawn up in three lines; the first was led on by the Prince of Wales; the Earls of Arundel and Northampton were at the head of the second line; and the third was commanded by the King in person. He rode from rank to rank, animating his men, and bidding them remember the honour of their country

and to follow the example of himself and the Prince of Wales, not doubting but that their united courage would ensure them the victory over their enemies. Philip had also drawn up his army in three lines: the first was commanded by Anthony Doria and Charles Grimaldi; the second by the Duke of Alençon, brother to the King; and the King himself was at the head of the third. Besides the French King, there were no fewer than three crowned heads engaged on the side of the enemy: the blind King of Bohemia, his son the King of the Romans, and the King of Majorca. The French army amounted to more than one hundred and twenty thousand men, above three times the number of the English. The battle began at three in the afternoon, by the bowmen. The Genoese archers in the service of France were quickly thrown into disorder, and fell back upon the heavy-armed horse of the Count of Alençon. It was in this engagement that artillery was first used by the English: some pieces which Edward had placed in front of his lines fired amidst the hostile crowd, in which nothing was to be seen but confusion, terror, and dismay. The young Prince of Wales, to take advantage of their situation, led on his men to the charge: the French horse, rallying, attempted to surround him: the action became hot and dangerous, and was for some time obstinately contested. The Earl of Warwick, apprehensive of the result from the superior numbers of the French, sent a messenger to the King for succour: his first question was, "Is the Prince slain or wounded?" and being answered in the negative, "Tell my son," said he, "I reserve the honour of the day for him; I am confident he will shew himself worthy of the honour of knighthood, and be able, without my assistance, to repel the enemy." This message, being reported to the Prince and his attendants, inspired them with fresh courage: they renewed the attack; the Duke of Alençon was slain, and the entire line of cavalry which he had commanded thrown into confusion.

The route now became general: the French King in vain attempted to stop the fugitives; he was compelled to quit the field; and the pursuit was continued till night put an end to the carnage.

On the day of battle, and on the ensuing, there fell, by a moderate computation, one thousand two hundred French knights, one thousand four hundred gentlemen, four thousand men at arms, besides about thirty thousand of inferior rank. The Kings, also, of Bohemia and Majorca were slain: the crest of the former was three ostrich feathers, with the motto "ICH DIEN" (*I serve*), which the Prince of Wales and his successors adopted in memorial of this great victory. On the side of the English, there fell only one esquire, three knights, and very few of inferior rank.



DAVID KING OF SCOTLAND TAKEN PRISONER BY QUEEN PHILIPPA.

SOON after the battle of Crecy, Edward laid siege to Calais, which was obstinately defended for twelve months. In the meantime, David Bruce, King of Scotland, was strongly urged by his ally, Philip of France, also to begin hostilities, and to invade the southern counties of England. The project being extremely agreeable to the Scottish nobles, David was soon at the head of fifty thousand men; he invaded Northumberland, and carried his ravages as far as Durham. But Queen Philippa, assembling a body of little more than twelve thousand men, whom she entrusted to the command of Lord Piercy, met the enemy at Neville's Cross; and riding through the ranks of her army, she exhorted every man to do his duty, and to repel the barbarous invaders; nor was it till they were on the point of engaging that she was prevailed on to quit the field. In this engagement the Scots were completely discomfited, and chased off the ground. Fifteen thousand of their men were slain;

and David himself, with many of his nobility, was taken prisoner. Philippa, having secured her royal captive in the Tower, crossed the sea at Dover; and was received by the English, in their camp before Calais, with all the triumphs due to her rank, her merit, and her eminent success.

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THE SURRENDER OF CALAIS.

CALAIS, a sea-port town in the north of France, was so advantageously situated, that the possession of it was an object of great importance to Edward, as it would at all times afford him an easy entrance into that country. It was at this time commanded by John de Vienne, a valiant knight of Burgundy, and was well supplied with every thing necessary for defence. Edward, knowing this, did not attempt to take it by storm, but determined to reduce it by famine. Philip, after an ineffectual attempt to relieve it, retired, and left the brave inhabitants to their fate. The siege having lasted nearly twelve months, the garrison were reduced to the last extremity by famine and fatigue; and the governor, feeling the necessity of surrendering, desired a parley. Sir Walter Manny was sent by Edward, whom the governor thus addressed. "Brave Knight! I have been entrusted by my Sovereign with the command of this town: it is almost a year since you besieged me; and I, as well as those under me, have endeavoured to do my duty: but you are acquainted with our present condition; we have no hopes of relief; we are perishing with hunger. I am willing to surrender; and desire, as the sole condition, to ensure the lives and liberties of those brave men who have so long shared with me every danger and fatigue." Manny replied, that he knew the King to be so enraged at the length of the siege, that he was determined to take exemplary vengeance on them; to which De Vienne answered, "This is not the treatment to which brave men are entitled: the inhabitants of Calais have

done for their Sovereign that which merits the esteem of every prince: but I inform you, that if we must perish, we shall not perish unrevenged; we are not so reduced but that we can sell our lives at a high price to the victors; it is the interest of all to prevent these desperate extremities."

Manny was struck with the justness of these sentiments, and represented to the King the danger of reprisals, if he should exercise the intended severities on the citizens of Calais. Edward at length consented to spare the lives of the inhabitants, upon condition that they should deliver up six of the most considerable citizens, to be disposed of as he should think proper; that these should bring him the keys of the city, coming into the English camp bareheaded, and with ropes about their necks. This intelligence struck the inhabitants with new consternation, and filled them with despair: at length Eustace de St. Pierre offered himself as the first victim, and his example was quickly followed by five others. Habited like malefactors, the six heroic burgesses entered the camp, and laid the keys of the city at the feet of Edward, who ordered them to be led to execution. But at this moment the Queen threw herself on her knees, and pleaded so powerfully in behalf of these brave men, that at last she prevailed, and obtained their pardon. She then took them to her tent, ordered refreshments to be brought to them, and, after making them a present of money and clothes, dismissed them in safety.

The King, on taking possession of Calais, ordered all the inhabitants to quit the town. To fill the void thus created, he peopled it anew with an English colony; at the same time he made the place a staple for wool, leather, tin, and lead. It was probably owing to this politic measure that the dominion of that important fortress was preserved so long to his successors.

INSTITUTION OF THE ORDER OF THE GARTER.

IN an age so renowned for chivalry as that of Edward III., even a trifling incident became of importance. Several orders of knighthood, both religious and military, had been established in different parts of Europe. Edward instituted the order of the Garter, in compliment (as it is said) to the Countess of Salisbury, who, one night at a ball, accidentally dropped her garter; which the King picked up, and presented to her, saying, "*Honi soit qui mal y pense,*" which words are the motto of the order. This class of knights consists of twenty-five persons besides the sovereign; and as the number has never been enlarged, the order of the Garter still continues as honourable an institution as when it was first created.

DEFINITION.

Chivalry.—A term used to express the peculiar characteristics, privileges, and duties of that order of men, who flourished during the vigour of the feudal system of government.

The indispensable requisites of Knights or Knights Errant, were valour and dexterity in arms.



DREADFUL PESTILENCE.

WHILST Edward and Philip, by their mutual dissensions, were diminishing the number of their subjects by the sword, a more dreadful scourge menaced them from heaven. A pestilence, which had first discovered itself in the north of Asia, now passed into Europe, where it spread from one extremity to the other, and sensibly depopulated every territory through which it passed. In London alone, it is said that upwards of fifty thousand people perished. According to Antoninus, archbishop of Florence, the distemper carried off sixty thousand people in that city; and it is generally computed that one-third of the inhabitants of every country which it visited fell victims to its desolating power.

BATTLE OF POICTIERS.

JOHN succeeded Philip on the throne of France, and, like his predecessor of the same name in England, had to contend at once with a factious nobility at home, and a powerful, vigilant, and successful enemy abroad: his resources, therefore, were very unequal to the exigences of his situation. The English, animated by the recollection of their brilliant successes at Crecy, and devotedly attached to the Prince of Wales, under whom a great proportion of the army had successfully served, burned with the desire of again distinguishing themselves under his banner. On the expiration of the truce which had been concluded between the two nations, Edward in person entered France with an army, by the way of Calais, and committed another expedition to the Prince of Wales, which was to penetrate on the side of Guienne. In the first campaign, the King plundered and desolated the open country as far as St. Omer, where the French army under John was posted. John retired before Edward, who was unable to bring him to an engagement. The English monarch, after his antagonist had repeatedly challenged him to fight a pitched battle, and as often disappointed him, returned to Calais: thence he passed over to England, to repel an invasion of the Scots. Meanwhile the Prince of Wales had plundered and burnt all the towns and villages of Languedoc; had passed the Garronne; and after extending his incursions to Narbonne, had returned with a vast booty and numerous prisoners to Guienne, where he took up his winter-quarters. In the next campaign the Prince penetrated into the heart of France. After ravaging the Agenois, Querci, and the Limousin, he entered the province of Berri, with the intention of proceeding into Normandy: but finding the bridges on the Loire broken down, and all the passes guarded, he was under the necessity of commencing his retreat; in the midst of this, he was overtaken by the French army near Poitiers. The forces which John had collected

amounted to above sixty thousand men, while those under the Prince of Wales did not exceed twelve thousand. Cardinal de Perigord, anxious to spare the effusion of human blood, endeavoured to bring about an accommodation: but John, imagining that he had now got into his hands a sufficient pledge for the restitution of Calais, required concessions from the English Prince utterly incompatible with his honour to make. A battle was the momentous alternative: but as the day had been already spent in negociation, it was postponed until the next morning. During the night, the Prince of Wales entrenched the post he had before so judiciously chosen; and prepared an ambuscade of three hundred men at arms, and as many archers, to assail, by a circuit, the flank or rear of the enemy. In the morning, the mass of both armies appeared drawn up in three divisions. The French army advanced to the attack: but there was no reaching the English position but through a narrow lane, covered on each side by hedges. A body of men at arms were sent forward by John, to open this passage: while advancing, they were annoyed, and greatly reduced, by lines of archers masked behind the hedges: their van was received on the plain by the Prince of Wales, and instantly broken; their rear, still in the lane, recoiled on their own army, and threw it into confusion. At this critical moment, the ambuscade of English archers attacked, in flank, part of the French line commanded by the Dauphin. This Prince, with his young brothers, immediately had recourse to flight; and his whole division followed him. The Duke of Orleans also retreated with the front line; and the third, or reserve, directed by John in person, was the only force that continued to dispute the field. This was more numerous than the whole English army. The Prince of Wales fell with impetuosity on some German cavalry in front of the French position. In this fiercest stage of the battle, three German generals were killed, together with the Constable of France; the cavalry which had

covered John gave way, and left him exposed to the whole fury of the enemy. It had now been easy to have slain the King of France; but every English gentleman was ambitious of taking him alive. To the offers of quarter he cried out, "Where is my cousin the Prince of Wales?" Being told that the Prince was at a distance, at length he surrendered to Dennis de Morbec, a knight of Arras. His son, only fourteen years of age, who had received a wound while fighting in his defence, was taken with him. The Prince of Wales was reposing himself after the toils of battle, when he received intelligence of the capture of the King of France. He immediately came forth to meet the fallen monarch, to whom he manifested every indication of sympathy and regard: while he paid him the tribute of praise due to his valour, he ascribed his own success to an over-ruling Providence, which controuls all the efforts of human force, and disappoints the calculations of worldly prudence. The behaviour of John shewed him to be not unworthy of this courteous treatment; but his present misfortune never made him forget for a moment that he was a King. Prince Edward ordered a repast to be prepared in his tent for the royal captive; during the entertainment, he stood at the King's back, and served as one of his retinue, constantly refusing to take a place at the table; declaring that, being a subject, he was too well acquainted with the distance between his own rank and that of royal majesty, to assume such freedom. The English and Gascon knights in his army emulated his courtesy and generosity in their behaviour to the noblemen and gentlemen among the captives. This memorable victory was gained on the 19th September 1356.

The Prince of Wales conducted his prisoner to Bourdeaux; and in order that he might transport him in security to England, concluded a truce for two years with the Dauphin of France. On the 24th of May, in the following year, he landed at Southwark, with his distinguished captive, and was met by a

great concourse of people of all ranks. John was clad in royal apparel, and mounted on a white steed distinguished by its size and beauty. The conqueror rode by his side in meaner attire, on a small black horse. In this manner he passed through the streets of London, and presented the King of France to his father, who advanced to meet the royal prisoner, and received him with the same courtesy as if he had been a neighbouring potentate come to pay him a friendly visit.

The splendid conquests gained in France by Edward and his son failed to produce any permanent advantage to England, although the immediate consequences were very distressing to the rival country. During the captivity of John, the government of France devolved on Charles the Dauphin : who had at once to withstand the shocks of a turbulent and cruel domestic faction ; and to provide against the impending attack of a victorious enemy, for which the short truce was employed in formidable preparations. In the second year after the battle of Poitiers, Paris was in insurrection against the Dauphin : the troops which had been in the service of John, and which the deficiency of the public treasury had left unpaid, broke loose over the provinces as banditti, and, joined by bodies of peasants desperate in the common misery, desolated the open country, plundering and burning the villages ; while, by intercepting the usual conveyance of provisions to the fortified towns, they reduced those also to dreadful extremity. The King of Navarre, a claimant of the French crown, headed the malcontents. Meanwhile the English monarch negotiated a treaty with his royal captive ; in which John covenanted to restore all the provinces which had been possessed by Henry II. of England, and to release them for ever from homage or fealty to him and his successors. The Dauphin and the assembled States of that kingdom refused to acknowledge this treaty, which would have totally dismembered the French monarchy.

On the expiration of the truce, therefore, Edward prepared for a new invasion of France. He embarked from this country with a numerous force; added to which, the certain prospect of plunder, from the defenceless condition of the assailed territory, drew to his standard all the hardy adventurers of Europe. At Calais he assembled an army of near one hundred thousand men. The Dauphin, unable to meet him in the field, allowed the adventurers to expend their fury on the open country. After ravaging Picardy, Edward entered the province of Champagne; and having a strong desire to be crowned King of France at Rheims, he laid siege to that city; but at the end of seven weeks, the severity of winter compelled him to raise the siege. After some time, he appeared before the gates of Paris, and endeavoured to provoke the Dauphin to risk a battle: but that Prince could not be diverted from his original plan; and Paris was protected from assault by its numerous garrison. Unable to subsist his troops in that quarter, the King removed, and spread his troops into the provinces of Maine, Beausse, and the Chartraine.

The negotiations for peace were never interrupted while this ruinous warfare was proceeding. At length the advice of the Duke of Lancaster prevailed on the King to relax from insisting on the full execution of the treaty which he had made with his prisoner in London. On the 28th of May 1360, the French and English Commissioners concluded a peace at Bretigni, in the Chartraine, which contained the following stipulations, among others less important. "That King John should be restored to his liberty, and should pay as his ransom three millions of crowns of gold, about £2,500,000 of our present money; to be discharged at different payments. That Edward should for ever renounce all claim to the crown of France, and to the provinces of Maine, Touraine, and Anjou, possessed by his ancestors; and should receive in exchange the provinces of Poictou, Xantonge, l'Aginois, Perigort, the Limousin, Querci,

Rovergue, l'Angoumois, and other districts in that quarter, together with Calais, Guisnes, Montreuil, and the county of Ponthieu, on the other side of France: That the full sovereignty of all these provinces, as well as that of Guienne, should be vested in the crown of England."

John and Edward met at Calais; solemnly ratified this treaty; and parted with many professions of mutual amity. Seldom has a convention involving great territorial cessions and acquisitions been so faithfully executed. Nevertheless, some obstacles were created by the stubborn reluctance which many towns and vassals in the vicinity of Guienne expressed against submitting to the English dominion. John, sincerely desirous to adjust these differences, returned to England for that purpose; although his council strenuously endeavoured to dissuade him from doing so. During his captivity he had been lodged in the Savoy; and the same palace was assigned for his residence during this voluntary visit. Soon afterwards, however, he was surprised by sickness, and died in this country. He was succeeded by the Dauphin, known in history as Charles the *Wise*, on account of the refined policy by which he surmounted the difficulties of his situation, both as Regent and as King.

Meanwhile, the Prince of Wales, whom his father had invested with the principality of Aquitain, was diverted from the proper object of strengthening the English dominions in France, and of conciliating such of his new subjects as had unwillingly submitted under the cessions of the treaty. With the consent of Edward, he undertook an expedition into Spain, to reinstate Peter, King of Castile, surnamed the *Cruel*, who had been dethroned by an invading force from France, under Du Guesclin, seconded by the disaffection of his own subjects. Henry, Count of Transtamere, the new King of Castile, had collected an army of one hundred thousand men; which was treble the amount of that brought by Prince Edward to dis-

possess him. A battle took place on the 3d of April 1367, at Najara; and Henry was chased off the field, with the loss of above twenty thousand men. There fell on the side of the English only four knights and forty private soldiers. Peter of Castile, whom this victory restored to the throne, made Prince Edward a return full of ingratitude and perfidy: he withheld the stipulated pay for the English force. The augmentation which the Prince had made to his military fame was counterbalanced by many disadvantages: finding his soldiers daily perish by sickness, and his own health impaired by the climate, he withdrew to Guienne without receiving any equivalent.

The expedition to Castile, while it gave time for the French monarchy to recruit its affairs, involved Prince Edward so deeply in debt, that he found it necessary, after his return to his French dominions, to impose a new tax on the inhabitants. This imposition, which was a livre a hearth throughout the provinces possessed by the English, gave offence to the native nobility, was felt as a grievance by the lower classes of the population, and excited a general spirit of defection. These circumstances, together with the languishing state of Prince Edward's health, emboldened Charles of France, who had silently made preparations for invading the principality of Aquitain, to assume a tone intended to produce a rupture. He sent a summons to the Prince of Wales to appear at his court at Paris, and justify his conduct towards his vassals. The Prince replied, that he would come to Paris; but it should be at the head of sixty thousand men. Charles immediately executed his meditated invasion. He first fell upon Ponthieu, which to the English had been the inlet to the heart of France. The citizens of Abbeville, St. Valory, Rue, and Crotoy, opened their gates to him. The whole territory speedily submitted. Meanwhile the Dukes of Berri and Anjou invaded the southern provinces with similar success. One of Edward's most celebrated officers, Chandos, constable of Guienne, was slain: his

successor, the Captal de Buche, was taken prisoner: and the alarming decline of the Prince of Wales's health obliged him to relinquish the chief command in the field, and return to his native country.

In the midst of these reverses, King Edward, by advice of his parliament, resumed the empty title of King of France. But his attempts to recover even the provinces lost, were by sea and land alike unsuccessful; and he was at length compelled to conclude a truce with the enemy, after all his ancient possessions in France had been wrested from him, except Bourdeaux and Bayonne, and all his conquests, except Calais.

The declension of Edward's military glory, and the loss of his foreign dominions, were followed with a diminution of popularity and influence at home, manifested in some sharp remonstrances addressed to him by Parliament.

The memory of this monarch and his son will, however, always be revered. The Black Prince was carried off by a consumption, in the forty-sixth year of his age, and left a character illustrious for every eminent virtue. His generosity, humanity, and true nobility of mind, were conspicuously displayed in his conduct towards John of France: his valour and military virtue shine forth in the battles of Crecy and Poitiers.

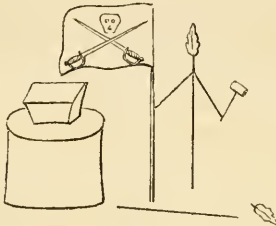
King Edward, who had during the last years of his life given himself up to indolence and pleasure, survived his son only one year, and expired at Sheen on the 21st of June 1377, in the 65th year of his age, and the 51st of his reign. Before his death, he publicly declared his grandson Richard, the son of the Black Prince, his heir and successor on the throne.

DEFINITION.

Ambuscade.—A concealed station, where men lay in wait, to surprise an enemy.

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1377

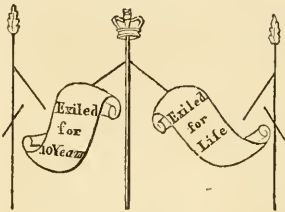
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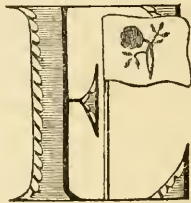
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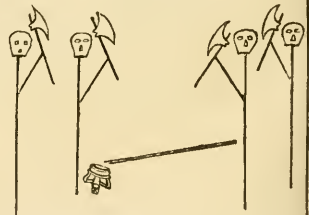


PLATE XV.

RICHARD THE SECOND.

Fig. 1.—INSURRECTION OF WAT TYLER.

Wat Tyler is holding in one hand the standard of insurrection, to which are depicted two swords and a death's head, emblematical of murder and bloodshed. In the other hand he holds the hammer with which he struck out the brains of the tax-gatherer. The anvil indicates that Tyler was a smith.

Fig. 2.—QUEEN ANNE'S INTERCESSION FOR BURLEY.

Anne, Queen of Richard II., pleading before the Duke of Gloucester for the life of Sir Simon Burley.

Fig. 3.—BANISHMENT OF NORFOLK AND HEREFORD.

The King presenting to the Dukes of Norfolk and Hereford the order for their exile.

Fig. 4.—DUKE OF LANCASTER'S INVASION.

England invaded by Henry of Lancaster. The standard of Lancaster is designated by the red rose.

Fig. 5.—DEPOSITION OF RICHARD.

Lancaster placing the red rose on the Crown.

Fig. 6.—DEATH OF RICHARD THE SECOND.

RICHARD THE SECOND.

RICHARD, the son of Edward the Black Prince, succeeded his grandfather on the throne when only eleven years of age. His education was much neglected; and to that may be ascribed the principal errors of his government, and the consequent misfortunes which distinguished his reign. His three ambitious uncles encouraged him in luxury and dissipation; which made him idle, profuse, and profligate: he gave himself up to the dominion of favourites, and entirely neglected the management of public affairs. His person was handsome, his judgment weak, and his temper violent.

Soon after his accession, a Parliament was summoned: there was no express appointment of a regency; but the administration was conducted by nine counsellors and other great officers, in the name of the King; though the Duke of Lancaster, one of Richard's uncles, was in fact Regent. Edward had left his grandson involved in many dangerous wars: the pretensions of the Duke of Lancaster to the crown of Castile engaged England in a war with the Spaniards; whilst the Scots were so closely allied with France, that a rupture with one country infallibly brought on a breach with the other. The war with France languished; one expedition succeeded another, without producing any enterprize of lustre or renown; whilst the treasury, as is usual in a minority, was completely exhausted.



INSURRECTION OF WAT TYLER.

To recruit the treasury, an unusual tax of three groats a head had been laid upon every person in the kingdom above fifteen years of age: this was farmed out to tax-gatherers in each county, who levied the money with extreme rigour. As the rich paid no more than the poor, violent discontents ensued among the common people: these were greatly inflamed by one John Ball, a seditious preacher; who went about the country,

teaching that all mankind were derived from one common stock, and that all of them had equal rights to liberty and the goods of Nature, of which they had been deprived by the ambition of a few insolent rulers.

The first commotion was excited by a blacksmith in Essex, known in history by the name of Wat Tyler. This man was at work in his shop when the tax-gatherers came in, and demanded payment for his daughter. Tyler refused to pay, alleging she was under the age assigned by the statute. The brutal collector, by proceeding to acts of insolence and outrage, so incensed the father of the young woman, that with a blow of his hammer he laid him dead on the spot. The bystanders applauded the action, and exclaimed, that it was full time for the people to take vengeance on their enemies, and vindicate their native liberty. They immediately flew to arms; the whole county joined in the sedition, and the flame soon spread itself through Kent, Hertford, Surrey, Sussex, Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and Lincoln. The insurgents amounted to 100,000 men, and were headed by Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, Hob Carter, and Tom Miller: fictitious names which they assumed, because they were fond of denoting their mean origin, in contempt of the titles of the nobility, on whom they committed the most outrageous acts of violence. They broke into the city, burned the Duke of Lancaster's palace, and cut off the heads of all the gentlemen they laid hold of. A great body of them quartered themselves at Mile-End. The King, who had taken refuge in the Tower, finding it weakly garrisoned, and ill supplied with provisions, at length went out to them, and desired to know their demands. They required a general pardon, the abolition of slavery, freedom of commerce in the market towns, and a fixed rent on lands instead of villanage. These requests were complied with; charters to that purpose were granted them; and this body immediately dispersed and returned home. In the meantime, another body of the rebels

had broken into the Tower; had murdered Sir Simon Sudbury, the primate and chancellor; Sir Robert Hales, the treasurer, and some other persons of distinction; and continued their ravages in the city. The King, with a few guards, passing through Smithfield, met with Wat Tyler at the head of his rioters. This ringleader ordered his companions to retire till he should give them a signal, when they were to murder all the party except the King, whom they were to make prisoner.

Being invited to a conference by Richard, who professed himself willing to hear and redress their grievances, Tyler advanced alone to meet the King, in the midst of his retinue. During this interview, he often raised his sword in a threatening manner: which insolence so enraged Walworth, the Lord Mayor, that he struck him with his mace to the ground; and one of the King's knights, riding up, dispatched him with his sword. The mutineers, seeing their leader fall, bent their bows to avenge his death. At this perilous moment, Richard, who was then only sixteen years of age, rode up alone to the infuriate multitude, exclaiming, "What, my people, will you kill your King? Be not concerned for the loss of your leader: I myself will now be your general. Follow me into the fields, and you shall have whatever you desire." The populace, overawed by his presence, desisted from their intended violence; and young Richard led them into the fields: there he was joined by Sir Robert Knolles, and a body of well-armed veterans. These soldiers he strictly forbade from falling upon the rioters, but peaceably dismissed them with the same charters which had been granted to their companions. Soon afterwards, the nobility and gentry, hearing of the King's danger, flocked to London with their adherents and retainers; and Richard took the field at the head of 40,000 men: the rebels were compelled to submit; the charters of enfranchisement and pardon were revoked by Parliament; and several of the ringleaders punished for the late disorders.

DEFINITION.

Villanage.—A state of dependence little better than absolute slavery. Villains were the property of their lords; whose service they could not quit without permission, and if they ran away might be claimed, and recovered like beasts or chattels. Villains were employed in the lowest and most degrading offices, and could acquire no property either in land or goods.



QUEEN ANNE'S INTERCESSION FOR BURLEY.

THE courage, address, and presence of mind, which the King had discovered in quelling the insurrection of Wat Tyler, had raised great hopes in the people that he would equal the reputation of his father and grandfather: but as he advanced in years, his want of capacity, at least of sound judgment, appeared in every enterprize he attempted. He first lost the favour of the people by revoking the charters he had granted them; and disgusted the nobility by his partiality to his favourites. His first favourite was Robert de Vere, Earl of Oxford, a young man of pleasing exterior, but of the most dissolute manners. This nobleman he first created Marquis of Dublin (a title never known before), and soon afterwards Duke of Ireland: transferring to him the entire sovereignty of that island for life. Vere soon became sole dispenser of the King's favours: hence a conspiracy was formed against him, at the head of which were the Earls of Nottingham, Arundel, Northumberland, Salisbury, and Warwick: he was impeached in Parliament, and though nothing of moment was even alleged against him, he was condemned and deprived of his office. They next proceeded to attack the royal authority itself. Under pretence that the King, though twenty-one years of age, was not able to govern the kingdom, they appointed a Committee of fourteen persons, to whom the sovereignty was to be transferred for a year; and none but the creatures of the Duke of Gloucester, whose measure this was, were admitted into the

Committee. The King, finding himself thus totally deprived of authority, first endeavoured to gain over the Parliament to his interests; but this measure failing, he applied to the Judges, who declared, that the Committee which had deprived the King of his authority was unlawful, and that they who had procured or advised it were punishable with death. This sentence was soon opposed by a declaration from the Lords. The Duke of Gloucester took up arms, and appeared at Haringay Park, near Highgate, at the head of a body of men sufficient to intimidate the King and all his adherents. A few days afterwards, the confederated nobles appeared armed in the King's presence, and accused by name the Archbishop of York, the Duke of Ireland, the Earl of Suffolk, Sir Robert Tresilian, one of the Judges, and Sir Nicholas Bembre. They then compelled the King to summon a Parliament, which was entirely at their devotion: and they entered an appeal before this assembly against five of his counsellors, charging them with high treason, merely because they had attempted to defeat the late commission. On this accusation, Sir Nicholas Bembre, Sir Robert Tresilian, Lord Beauchamp, Sir James Berners, and John Salisbury, were condemned and executed. Another victim of the triumphant party was Sir Simon Burley, a gentleman much beloved for his personal merit, and distinguished by many honourable actions; he had been appointed governor to Richard by the late King, and the Black Prince. Being supposed to have influenced the proceedings of the King, Gloucester marked him out for vengeance; and refused to spare him, though the Queen Consort (sister of the Emperor Wenceslaus, King of Bohemia) remained three hours on her knees before that inexorable tyrant, interceding for Burley's life. This execution, more than all the others, made a deep impression on the mind of Richard.

DEFINITION.

Enfranchisement.—Freedom.

BANISHMENT OF NORFOLK AND HEREFORD.

IN the year 1389, at an extraordinary council of the nobility assembled at Easter, the King, to the astonishment of all present, desired to know his age; and being informed that he was turned of twenty-two, "Then," said he, "it is time that I should reign alone: I have long been under the government, of tutors, and I will now shew my right to power, by their removal." He then ordered Thomas Arundel, the chancellor, to give up the seals, which he bestowed on Wickham Bishop of Winchester. He next removed the Duke of Gloucester, the Earl of Warwick, and other lords of the opposite faction, from the council; and changed all the great officers of the household, as well as the Judges.

In the year 1397, the restless and ambitious Gloucester, perceiving that Richard was not of a warlike disposition, frequently spoke with contempt of his person and government, and deliberated concerning the lawfulness of throwing off his allegiance. The King, informed of this conduct by his spies, determined to rid himself of Gloucester and his faction at once. He therefore had that nobleman suddenly arrested, and sent over to Calais, where, detached from his numerous adherents, he might be detained in custody without danger of a rescue. The Earls of Arundel and Warwick were seized at the same time. The malcontents, deprived of their leaders, were overawed; while the proceedings of the King were countenanced and supported by the Dukes of Lancaster and York. A new Parliament was immediately summoned: both Houses annulled for ever the commission which had usurped upon the royal authority, and abrogated the attainders which had been passed against the King's Ministers. Several of Gloucester's party were then publicly impeached; and being found guilty, were either executed or banished. A warrant was issued to bring over the Duke of Gloucester from Calais for trial: the governor answered, that he had died suddenly of an apoplexy. In

the subsequent reign, it was proved that he had been suffocated with pillows.

Soon afterwards, a dissension arose between the noblemen who had joined in the prosecution. The Duke of Hereford, son of the Duke of Lancaster, in full Parliament accused the Duke of Norfolk of having spoken seditious words against the King, in private conversation. Norfolk gave Hereford the lie, and offered to prove his innocence by single combat. The challenge was accepted, and the lists were appointed at Coventry. The whole nation was held in suspense with regard to the event of this important duel; but when the two champions appeared in the field accoutred for the combat, the King, interposing, banished the Duke of Hereford for ten years, and the Duke of Norfolk for life. The former behaved himself with so much submission, that the King, before his departure, promised to shorten the term of his exile four years: he also granted him letters-patent, ensuring to him the enjoyment of any inheritance which should fall to him during his absence. These proceedings took place in the year 1398.



DUKE OF LANCASTER'S INVASION.

No sooner had Hereford left the kingdom, than a revived jealousy of the power and riches of the Lancastrian family manifested itself in the King's actions. Being informed that Hereford was negotiating a marriage with the daughter of the Duke of Berri, uncle to the French King, Richard sent a commissioner to the French Court to prevent the alliance. The death of the Duke of Lancaster happened soon after; on which the King seized his estates, and severely punished the attorney of his successor, who was still in banishment, for faithfully executing the trust reposed in him by his master.

Henry, the new Duke of Lancaster, by his conduct and abilities, had acquired the esteem of the public; and having

served against the infidels in Lithuania, to his other praises was added a reputation for piety and valour. He was connected by blood, alliance, or friendship, with most of the principal nobility; and as the injury done him by the King might in its consequences affect them all, he easily brought them to take part in his resentment. Nor was he less a favourite with the army.

On information that the King was absent in Ireland, Lancaster embarked at Nantz with a retinue of about sixty persons (among whom were the Archbishop of Canterbury and his nephew the Earl of Arundel), and landed at Ravenspur in Yorkshire. He was immediately joined by the Earls of Westmoreland and Northumberland, two of the most powerful Barons in England. In order to quiet the apprehensions of the people, he took a solemn oath, that he had no other purposes in this invasion than to recover the duchy of Lancaster, which had been unjustly detained from him. By this apparent moderation, every one was induced to succour him; his army daily increased, and he was soon at the head of sixty thousand combatants. The Duke of York, who had been left guardian of the kingdom, assembled forty thousand men; but, destitute of energy and judgment, he was imposed upon by a message from the invader, declaring he only came as a suppliant, to recover his patrimony, the duchy of Lancaster.

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DEPOSITION OF RICHARD.

RICHARD was in Ireland (whither he had gone to avenge the death of Roger de la Marche, who had been slain in a skirmish with the natives) when he received intelligence of the invasion of Lancaster, and the rebellion of his people. He lost no time in returning to England, and landed at Milford Haven with an army of twenty thousand men; but they were seized with the spirit of disaffection or fear, and gradually deserted from him, until about six thousand of them continued to follow his standard. From this remnant of force, so inadequate

to his protection, he secretly withdrew to the Isle of Anglesea, designing to embark either for Ireland or France, and await a favourable change in his affairs. Henry sent the Earl of Northumberland to Richard, with strong professions of loyalty and submission; and that nobleman, by treachery and false promises, made himself master of the King's person, and carried him to his enemy at Flint Castle. Richard was conducted to London by the Duke of Lancaster, who was received by the citizens with acclamations of joy. He soon after issued writs of election, in the King's name, for a new parliament; and appointed it to meet immediately at Westminster. A charge, consisting of thirty-three articles, was drawn up against the King; and although it was liable to objections in almost every article, only one man, namely, the Bishop of Carlisle, had courage enough to plead in behalf of his unhappy master: for which he was immediately arrested by order of the Duke of Lancaster, and sent prisoner to the Abbey of St. Albans. The King was formally deposed by the votes of both houses; and the throne being now vacant, Lancaster, who was present in the assembly, stepped forward and claimed it. His speech, purposely obscured by a mixture of jargon, insinuated that he was descended from Henry III. by "right line of the blode." To understand what was too absurd to be openly asserted, we must advert to a story that had obtained circulation among some of the vulgar, averring, that Edmond Earl of Lancaster, son of Henry III., was really the brother of Edward I., but, on account of some deformity in his person, had been superseded in the succession; his younger brother having been imposed on the nation as the firstborn.

No objection was made by Parliament to this challenge as of right; and the unanimous suffrages of Lords and Commons placed the crown on Henry of Lancaster's head.

DEFINITION.

Deposition.—The act of degrading a King from his dignity.

DEATH OF RICHARD THE SECOND.

Soon after the deposition of Richard, it was unanimously voted by the House of Peers that he should be imprisoned in Pomfret Castle, and be deprived of all commerce with any of his friends and partisans. Historians are not agreed as to the manner in which he was murdered. Some relate that Sir Piers Exton, and others of his guards, unexpectedly rushed into his apartments; and that Richard, knowing their design, wrested a pole-axe from one of the murderers, with which he killed four of them; but was at length overpowered and slain. Other writers state, that he was starved in prison; and that after he was denied all nourishment, he prolonged his life fourteen days by feeding on the flocks of his bed. The latter account is more consistent with a further story, that his body was exposed in public, to shew that there were no marks of violence upon his person. He fell in the 34th year of his age, and the 23d of his reign. He left no posterity.

PLATE XVI.

HENRY THE FOURTH.

Fig. 1.—INSURRECTION NEAR WINDSOR.

The first insurrection against Henry IV. is indicated by a standard with the appropriate emblems, and distinguished by the date.

Fig. 2.—MARTYRDOM OF WILLIAM SAUTRE.

The stake and fire shew the manner of his death; the cross indicates that he suffered in the cause of religion.

Fig. 3.—EARL OF NORTHUMBERLAND'S REBELLION.

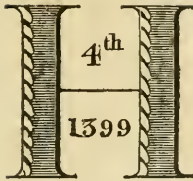
The divided state of the kingdom in the year 1403 is represented by the English banner torn asunder.

Fig. 4.—THE BATTLE OF SHREWSBURY.

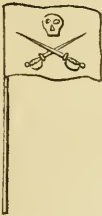
On the right is the royal standard of Lancaster, distinguished by the Red Rose with the crown above it: On the left is the standard of rebellion.

Fig. 5.—COMMITMENT OF THE PRINCE OF WALES.

The vertical line on the right is Judge Gascoigne; he holds the scales of justice in equilibrium, as an emblem of his impartial decisions. The intermediate symbol is the Prince; and that with the keys represents the jailor.



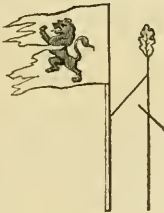
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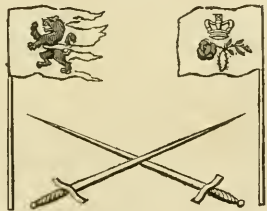
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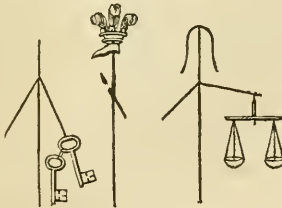
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1405



HENRY THE FOURTH.

HENRY THE FOURTH possessed many great and distinguishing qualities, that eminently fitted him for the high station to which he attained. In the measures by which he maintained his power, he evinced prudence, vigilance, and foresight. With military courage he combined the decision of a statesman. His command of temper was remarkable: his insight into the characters and designs of men enabled him to elude and counteract the stratagems and rebellions which were successively designed against his life and authority. Previous to his usurpation, he was a marked favourite of the people: but when men came to reflect, in cool blood, on the crimes which had led him to the throne, they could not but regard with distrust the man who, in dereliction of the most solemn protestations of loyalty and fidelity, first dethroned, and then murdered his sovereign; and who continued to hold the true heir of the crown in custody at Windsor. Henry, a prey to remorse, and suspecting the fidelity of his people, governed them more by terror than benignity, and was obeyed rather through fear than from a sense of duty and allegiance. In his very first Parliament, he was forced to observe the dangers of that station which he had assumed, and the obstacles to be encountered in governing an unruly aristocracy, whose passions and resentments were inflamed to the highest degree by the late convulsions in the State. The Peers, on their meeting in Parliament, displayed the most violent animosities against each other: forty gauntlets, as pledges of defiance, were thrown on the floor of the house by noblemen of conflicting interests; and the opprobrious terms of *liar* and *traitor* resounded through the assembly. The King was able to prevent the menaced duels; but he could not allay the hostile spirit which subsisted between the parties. As he surmounted one difficulty, new sources of inquietude and danger embittered his envied greatness. The great popularity

which he had enjoyed before his elevation to the throne was entirely lost many years before the end of his reign.

DEFINITION.

Gauntlet.—Iron gloves, part of the armour then in use. When any person designed to challenge another, he threw his gauntlet on the floor, which being picked up by the adverse party, was an indication that the challenge was accepted. Gauntlets were not introduced till towards the thirteenth century.



INSURRECTION NEAR WINDSOR.

HENRY had been but a short time seated on the throne, when the dissatisfaction of a strong party of nobles was manifested in a precipitate recourse to open rebellion.

The Earls of Rutland, Kent, Huntingdon, and Lord Spenser, having been degraded by the usurper from the respective titles of Albemarle, Surrey, Exeter, and Gloucester, conferred upon them by Richard, entered into a conspiracy, together with the Earl of Salisbury and Lord Lumley, to excite an insurrection, and seize the King's person at Windsor. On the eve of this movement, Rutland betrayed their plans to Henry, who suddenly withdrew to London; and the conspirators, on coming to Windsor with five hundred horse, found they had missed the blow on which the success of their enterprize depended. Henry the next day appeared at Kingston upon Thames, at the head of twenty thousand men; and his enemies, unable to oppose this force, dispersed, with the design of raising their adherents in those counties which were the seat of their interest; but they were closely pursued by the King's party, and arrested before they could collect any levies. The Earls of Kent and Salisbury were beheaded at Cirencester by the citizens; Spenser and Lumley shared the same fate at Bristol; and the Earl of Huntingdon, Sir Thomas Blount, and Sir Benedict Sely, who were also taken prisoners, suffered death, with many

others of the conspirators, by the order of Henry. When the quarters of these unhappy men were brought to London, they were received by the populace with the most indecent marks of joy and exultation.

But a spectacle shocking to every one who retained any humane impulse or honourable principle, was in reserve. The Earl of Rutland appeared, bearing on a pole the head of his brother-in-law, Lord Spenser, which he presented in triumph to Henry, as a tribute of his loyalty. This base man, who was afterwards Duke of York, and first prince of the blood, had been instrumental in the death of his uncle the Duke of Gloucester; had then deserted Richard, by whom he was trusted; had conspired against the life of Henry, to whom he had sworn allegiance; had betrayed his associates, whom he had seduced into this enterprize; and now displayed in the face of the world these badges of his multiplied dishonour!

DEFINITION.

Insurrection.—A rising of the mass of the people, in opposition to the ruling powers, without any concerted or specifically active measure being determined upon.



MARTYRDOM OF WILLIAM SAUTRE.

NEAR the close of the reign of Edward the Third, John Wickliffe, a secular priest educated at Oxford, had begun to spread the doctrine of reformation; and by his discourses, sermons, and writings, made many disciples among men of all ranks and stations. His followers received the name of Wickliffites or Lollards. The doctrines of Wickliffe were derived from the Scriptures, and from researches into Ecclesiastical antiquity. He denied the doctrine of the real presence, the supremacy of the Church of Rome, the merit of monastic vows; and maintained, that the Scriptures were the sole rule of faith; that the Church was dependent on the State, and

should be reformed by it. The propagation of these principles greatly alarmed the Clergy; and a bull was issued by Pope Gregory the Eleventh, for taking Wickliffe into custody, and examining into the scope of his opinions. Accordingly he was cited before Courtney, Bishop of London: but the powerful protection of the Duke of Lancaster (father of Henry the Fourth), and of the mareschal, Lord Percy, had screened him from the first exercise of ecclesiastical jurisdiction. Then, the indisposition of the University of Oxford to receive a new bull and the growing favour of the populace towards the reformer, together with his cautious explanations before subsequent Synods, amounting to a recantation on some points, induced the prelates to dismiss him from trial without censure. Wickliffe died of a palsy in 1335. His opinions, however, continued to gain ground; and Henry himself, whilst a subject, was believed to have strongly imbibed the prejudices of the Lollards against the Established Church: but possessing the throne by a precarious title, he determined by every expedient to pay court to the clergy. Hitherto there had been no penal laws enacted against heresy: but when the learning and genius of Wickliffe had once broken down the barriers of prejudice, the ecclesiastics called aloud for the punishment of his disciples; and the King, to acquire the favour of the Church, was induced to sacrifice his principles to his interest. He engaged the Parliament to enact a law, that when any heretic either refused to abjure his opinions, or relapsed, he should be delivered over to the secular arm by the bishop or his commissaries, and be committed to the flames by the civil magistrate. This horrible weapon of persecution was immediately employed. William Sautré, rector of St. Osithes in London, had been condemned by the Convocation of Canterbury; his sentence was ratified by the House of Peers; the King issued his writ for the execution: and the unhappy man atoned for his opinions by the penalty of fire! This is

the first instance in England of such a victim to ecclesiastical tyranny.

DEFINITIONS.

Secular Priests.—Those who do not belong to any particular community of monks, and who are not subject to monastic restrictions.

The Reformation.—Reforming the abuses that had crept into the Catholic Church, and restoring, as much as possible, its original simplicity and purity.

Real Presence.—One of the doctrines of the Romish Church, which declares, that in the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper, the elements of bread and wine are miraculously changed into the body and blood of Christ.

Supremacy.—The superiority of the Church of Rome over all others in Christendom.

Bull.—A letter published by the Pope, containing his decrees, or command, to which was affixed a leaden seal, in imitation of an ornament worn by the young nobility, called Bullas, which afterwards was hung to the diplomas of Emperors and Popes, whence they derived the name of Bulls. In addressing Princes, golden seals were generally affixed instead of lead.

Synods.—An assembly of ecclesiastics called for consultation on matters relative to the Church.

Penal Laws.—Laws denouncing punishment upon certain offences.

Heresy.—Ecclesiastical doctrines generally believed to be true.



EARL OF NORTHUMBERLAND'S REBELLION.

OWEN GLENDOUR, a descendant of the Welch Princes, had, on account of his attachment to Richard, become obnoxious to the present rulers. Lord Grey, who possessed considerable estates in the marches of Wales, and who was closely connected with the King, took advantage of these circumstances to seize upon his neighbour's estates. Glendour, provoked at this injustice and indignity, recovered possession by the sword. Henry assisted Grey: the Welch supported Glendour: and a tedious

war was kindled. Glendour attacked, promiscuously, all the English property; and in one of his excursions took prisoners the Earl of Marche and Sir Edmund Mortimer his uncle. Henry, who hated and dreaded all the family of Marche, allowed the Earl to remain in captivity; and even refused the Earl of Northumberland (to whose assistance he himself owed the crown) permission to treat of his ransom.

Meantime the Scots, to the number of twelve thousand men, under the command of Archibald Earl of Douglas, invaded the northern counties of England, and committed great devastations: on their return, they were met at Homeldon by the Percies, who completely defeated them, and took Douglas prisoner, with many more of the Scottish nobility. When Henry received intelligence of this victory, he sent orders to Northumberland not to ransom his prisoners; intending by their means to make an advantageous peace with Scotland. This prohibition gave fresh disgust to the Percies; who thought that the King had not sufficiently rewarded them for setting him upon the throne; although, on his accession, he had bestowed the office of Constable on Northumberland for life, and conferred many other gifts upon the leading members of this family. They determined therefore to dethrone him; and for that purpose entered into a correspondence with Glendour; liberated the Earl of Douglas, and entered into an alliance with him; summoned their own partisans immediately to arms; and soon collected a numerous army. Just as they were ready to march, the Earl of Northumberland was seized with a sudden illness at Berwick; and his son, surnamed Hotspur from his impetuous valour, taking command of the troops, marched towards Shrewsbury, in order to join his forces to those of Glendour.

The King had fortunately a small army on foot, with which he had intended to act against the Scots. Aware of the great importance of celerity in civil wars, he instantly hurried down to the disturbed counties, to give battle to the rebels; and

reached the army of young Percy before Owen Glendour had formed a junction with him.

DEFINITION.

Rebellion.—Actual opposition to lawful government, after having been planned and digested in secret.



THE BATTLE OF SHREWSBURY.

THE evening before the battle, Percy sent a manifesto to the royal quarters, in which he renounced his allegiance; offered defiance to the arms of Henry; and, in the name of his father and uncle as well as his own, enumerated all the acts of the King which could be construed into infractions of the Constitution, or regarded as national grievances.

The armies were nearly equal; and the commanders, on both sides, of the highest talents and bravery. Henry exposed his person in the thickest of the fight; and his valiant son kept pace with his footsteps; nor could he be persuaded to leave the field when wounded in the face with an arrow. Percy supported the lustre of his fame; and the valiant Douglas performed achievements almost incredible. Henry, either to elude attacks upon his person, or to encourage his own men in the persuasion that he was every where, had disguised several captains in the royal habiliments; and Douglas, who sought the distinction of fighting with the King, had made the office of personating him fatal to many; but the death of Henry Percy, by an unknown hand, put an end to the contest, and the royalists were victorious. In this engagement there fell, on the side of the King, the Earl of Stafford, Sir Hugh Shirley, Sir Nicholas Gausel, Sir Hugh Mortimer, Sir John Massey, and Sir John Calverley. Of the entire number slain, comprizing two thousand three hundred gentlemen and about six thousand private men, two-thirds were of Percy's army. The Earls of Worcester and

Douglas were taken: the former was beheaded at Shrewsbury, and the latter was treated with merited courtesy.

The Earl of Northumberland had, on his recovery, levied an army to join his son: but hearing of the defeat at Shrewsbury, he dismissed his forces, and went, with a small retinue, to the King at York, to whom he pretended that his sole design in arming was to mediate between the parties. Henry accepted his apology, and granted him a pardon. But the restless Earl soon entered into a fresh conspiracy with the Earl of Nottingham and the Archbishop of York. Before he could join them, the two latter, induced to disband their forces by the Earl of Westmoreland, were arrested, and severally executed. This was the first instance of a dignified churchman being put to death by the civil power. Northumberland, together with Lord Bardolf, fled into Scotland; and both returning shortly afterwards to invade the north of England, were slain in the battle of Bramham. In the train of fortunate events for Henry, lastly succeeded the death of Owen Glendour.

The King was now freed from all his domestic enemies; having, notwithstanding his exceptionable title to the throne, acquired, by valour and address, a greater ascendancy over his haughty Barons than the right to govern, unaccompanied by eminent talents, had ever been able to confer.



COMMITMENT OF THE PRINCE OF WALES.

THE suspicious disposition of the King, augmented by numerous conspiracies, led him to entertain unreasonable distrust with regard to the fidelity of his eldest son. During the latter years of his life, jealous of the prince's rising celebrity, he had excluded him from all share in public business: it excited his particular displeasure to see him at the head of an army, fearing that his martial talents, though useful to the Government and nation, might acquire him such renown as would prove dangerous to the regal authority. Thus restrained from its

proper exercise, the active spirit of young Henry broke out into every kind of extravagance and dissipation. By mixing with plebeians, he seemed to forget the dignity of his birth; and by his disorderly life, to court the loss of popularity. In the midst of these excesses, the nobleness of his nature frequently gleamed through the cloud which hung over his character. He had become the associate of a circle of profligates, who made a practice of committing the most illegal acts of violence. One of his dissolute comrades was arraigned before the chief-justice for some misdemeanor; and the prince was not ashamed to appear at the bar with the criminal, in order to give him countenance and protection. Unable by his presence to overawe the tribunal, or to shield his favourite from condemnation, he was so exasperated that he struck the judge upon the bench. This worthy magistrate, whose name was Sir William Gascoigne, mindful of the majesty of the laws, and the supreme dignity which he represented, immediately committed the prince to prison. Young Henry, conscious of the insult which he had offered to the crown and to public justice, readily submitted, and quietly suffered himself to be conducted to jail by the officers.

When this transaction was reported to the King, he exclaimed, in a transport of joy: "Happy is the King who has a magistrate endowed with courage to execute the laws on such an offender; and still more happy in having a son willing to submit to such chastisement!"

Henry IV. expired at Winchester, in the forty-sixth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign. He had been twice married: first to Mary of Bohun, daughter and co-heiress of the Earl of Hereford, by whom he had four sons: Henry, his successor on the throne; Thomas, Duke of Clarence; John, Duke of Bedford; and Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester; also two daughters, Blanche and Philippa. His second wife was Jane, daughter of the King of Navarre, and widow of the Duke of Brittany: by her he left no posterity.

PLATE XVII.

HENRY THE FIFTH.

Fig. 1.—LORD COBHAM.

The date "1413" over the rebellious standard, is that of an insurrection of the Lollards, which Lord Cobham was alleged by his enemies to have excited; the date 1417 refers to his execution, the manner of which is denoted by the gibbet and fire. The cross in his right hand indicates that he suffered in the cause of religion.

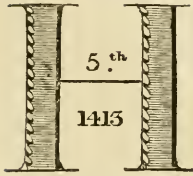
Fig. 2.—INVASION OF FRANCE.*Fig. 3.*—BATTLE OF AGINCOURT.

The battle is indicated by the cross swords in the centre; the result of it, by the French standard reversed. The English standard is waving over it in triumph.

Fig. 4.—THE TREATY OF TROYE.

The union of the crowns of England and France, which, by the terms of the treaty of Troye, was designed to take place in the line of Henry V., is indicated by the joined hands, surrounded by a circle of oak leaves and fleur-de-lis.

Fig. 5.—HENRY ESPOUSING CATHARINE OF FRANCE.*Fig. 6.*—DEATH OF HENRY THE FIFTH.



| | |
|---|---|
| <p>1413</p> A flag with a skull and two crossed swords. Below the flag is a large, stylized flame or bush. To the right is a corner bracket with a diagonal line. | <p>1415</p> A vertical stem with a flag featuring a rampant lion. |
| <p>1415</p> A flag with a rampant lion. Below it are two crossed swords and a fleur-de-lis. | <p>1420</p> A wreath of leaves and flowers surrounding a clasped hand. |
| <p>1420</p> A fleur-de-lis, a crown, a scepter, and a rampant lion. | <p>1422</p> A rampant lion, a fleur-de-lis, a staff, a drum, and a stool. |

HENRY THE FIFTH.

HENRY V. was rather above the middle size, well made, and remarkably handsome. He excelled in all warlike exercises. His hardy constitution, or heroic spirit, rendered him more patient of labour, cold, hunger, and fatigue, than any individual of his army. His abilities were eminent both in the cabinet and in the field. He had the talent of attaching his friends by native courtesy, and of gaining his enemies by address and clemency. When he had abjured the transient contamination of low and dissolute connexions, his manners became correct and elegant. He was chaste, temperate, modest, and devout; just in administering the laws, and exact in military discipline. The persecution which he suffered the Clergy to inflict upon the Lollards is to be ascribed rather to the alarm of a statesman at the prospect of a fundamental change in ecclesiastical institutions, or to the misguided faith of a bigot, than to a willing renunciation of the virtue of clemency, the best attribute of kings. His magnanimity is attested by the friendship which he cultivated with the Earl of Marche, and by numerous other amiable examples of reconciliation and confidence. Immediately on his accession to the throne, he entered upon a reformed course of life; and, calling together his former companions, exhorted them to imitate his example; but strictly prohibited them from appearing again in his presence, until they had given proofs of entire amendment; after which he dismissed them with liberal presents. The wise ministers of his father, who had checked his riotous behaviour, met from the new sovereign only confidence and kindness. The chief-justice, Gascoigne, who trembled to approach the Royal presence, received the highest praise from the noble-minded Henry, who exhorted the illustrious Judge to persevere in a rigorous and impartial execution of the laws. He was anxious not only to repair his own misconduct, but also to make amends for the iniquities of his father: he expressed the

greatest sorrow for the fate of the unhappy Richard, made just acknowledgments to his memory, and performed his funeral obsequies with great pomp and splendour. He even cherished all those who had distinguished themselves by steady loyalty and attachment to their unhappy sovereign. He received the young Earl of Marche, whose undoubted title constituted him a virtual competitor for the crown, with distinguished kindness; and that young nobleman became one of his firmest adherents. The King, as though ambitious to bury in oblivion all party distinctions, restored the family of Percy to its estates and honours. He opened to virtue an unrestrained field for exertion; all men became unanimous in their attachment to him; and the defects of his title were overlooked amidst the personal esteem which he universally attracted.



LORD COBHAM.

SIR JOHN OLDCASTLE, Baron of Cobham, was the most considerable of the Wickliffites, or Lollards; and, as such, was become extremely obnoxious to the Clergy, who, to strike dismay into the new sect, determined upon making an example of their chief. Henry highly esteemed this nobleman on account of his valour and military talents, which had greatly contributed to the establishment of the Lancastrian dynasty: before he would sanction any persecution against him, he endeavoured by arguments, in a personal conference, to induce Lord Cobham to recant his opinions, that he might reconcile him to the Catholic faith: but, finding his principles not to be shaken, Henry withdrew all the interference of personal regard, and allowed the ecclesiastical court to proceed against him with the utmost rigour. Cobham was quickly indicted by Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury, and condemned to the flames for his erroneous opinions: but he contrived to escape from his prison, the Tower, before the day appointed for his

execution. With respect to his subsequent conduct, such opposite relations have been handed down to us, that it is difficult to discriminate between them, or to assign the respective degrees in which they deserve credit. One party venerate him as the *Good Lord Cobham*, and as the first martyr among the English nobility. Another class of writers represent him as the secret mover of an insurrection of the Lollards; and from them the following narrative is derived, which is suspected to be overcoloured by the Catholic historians of the time. Stimulated by zeal, and incensed by persecution, this nobleman, after his flight, was induced to attempt the most criminal enterprizes. He dispatched emissaries to all quarters, appointing a general rendezvous of the Lollard party, in order to seize the King at Eltham, and to put their persecutors to the sword. Henry, apprized of the plot, removed to Westminster. Lord Cobham, not disconcerted, made a corresponding change in the rendezvous for the insurgents; instructing them to meet in St. Giles's Fields, a tract which was at that time an open heath. The King, whose intelligence anticipated their intended movements, on the evening before shut the gates of the city, posting guards at all the avenues, to prevent any reinforcement to the Lollards from that part; he then entered the field in the night-time, seized such of the conspirators as appeared, and afterwards intercepted the several parties who were hastening to the place appointed. Many were slain, and the rest taken. Some of the prisoners were executed, but the greater number were pardoned. Cobham eluded pursuit; and was not taken till four years afterwards, when he was hanged as a traitor, and his body burned on the gibbet, in execution of the sentence pronounced against him as a heretic.

INVASION OF FRANCE.

It was the dying injunction of the late King to his son, not to allow the English to remain long in peace, but to employ them in foreign expeditions; in order that the nobility, by sharing his dangers, might become attached to his person; while all the restless spirits would find occupation. This advice was well suited to the natural disposition of Henry; and he eagerly prepared to take advantage of the internal state of France, which had been brought almost to the brink of ruin by the contending factions of the Armagnacs and Burgundians.

Charles VI. of France, being incapable of governing his dominions, on account of a periodical frenzy to which he was subject, the administration of affairs was disputed between his brother, Lewis, Duke of Orleans, and his cousin-german, John, Duke of Burgundy. The people were divided between the two contending parties. At length, by the interposition of common friends, the rival Princes agreed to bury all past animosities in oblivion, and to enter into a partnership of views as to national measures. The most solemn protestations of sincere amity were made, and the holy sacrament was received by them in conjunction: they swore before the altar to the sincerity of their friendship; and all the sacred pledges which bind man to man were interchanged. But this solemn prelude was only a mantle for the blackest treachery on the part of the Duke of Burgundy, who caused his rival to be assassinated in the streets of Paris! This atrocious infraction of every principle of compact entailed a civil war between the partisans of the Duke of Orleans, who were called Armagnacs, and their opponents the Burgundians. The city of Paris was a perpetual scene of violence and bloodshed; and the whole kingdom exhibited the effects of distrust, revenge, and anarchy; assassinations, open robberies, and illegal public executions. The King and Royal family were often detained captives in the

hands of the populace; and their most faithful ministers were imprisoned with them, or butchered in their presence.

The advantage which this wreck of government in France offered to the arms of England was perceived at the Court of Henry; and it was determined to embrace the favourable opportunity. To agitate discussions between the two countries, the King sent over ambassadors to Paris, with offers of perpetual peace and amity; but demanding in marriage Catharine, the French King's daughter, with two millions of crowns as her portion; claiming, also, one million six hundred thousand crowns as the arrears of King John's ransom; and requiring the immediate possession, in full sovereignty, of Normandy, and all the other provinces which had been ravished from England by the arms of Philip Augustus. These terms Henry well knew were too exorbitant to be complied with; he therefore hastened his preparations for war, and assembled a large army, and a numerous fleet at Southampton, whence he proposed to embark on his expedition.

But while he was meditating foreign conquests, he unexpectedly found himself in danger from a conspiracy at home. The Earl of Cambridge, second son to the late Duke of York, who had espoused the sister of the Earl of Marche, had, in secret meetings with Lord Scrope of Masham, and Sir Thomas Grey, began to confer about the means of recovering to the Earl of Marche his right to the crown. The conspirators, as soon as detected, acknowledged their guilt, and received sentence of death; which was soon after executed. The Earl of Marche, simply accused of having given his approbation to the conspiracy, received a general pardon from the King.

On the 14th of August, 1415, Henry put to sea, and landed at Harfleur, at the head of six thousand men at arms, and twenty-four thousand foot, mostly archers. He immediately invested that place; which, after an obstinate defence, sur-

rendered to him in September : but the fatigues of the siege, and the unusual heat of the season, had so diminished his army, that he began to think of returning to England. His transports had been dismissed, because they could not anchor in an open road upon the enemy's coast ; and he was therefore under the necessity of marching by land to Calais, before he could reach a place of safety. The French had by this time assembled a force in Normandy, under the command of the Constable, D'Albret, consisting of fourteen thousand men at arms, and forty thousand foot. As this army was ready to intercept him, Henry offered to sacrifice his conquest of Harfleur for a safe conduct to Calais. Rejecting this proposal, the enemy stationed themselves to dispute with him the ford of Blanquetague : but the English leader was so fortunate as to seize, by surprise, a passage weakly guarded near St. Quintin, and passed his army over in safety.



BATTLE OF AGINCOURT.

HENRY, having successfully crossed the Somme, continued his march towards Calais, exposed to imminent danger from the enemy ; for while their flying parties harassed his flanks, their main body crossed the Somme, lower down, so as to intercept his retreat. After passing the little river of Ternois, at Blangi, Henry was surprised to observe, from the heights, the whole French army drawn up on the plains of Agincourt, and so posted that it was impossible for him to proceed without coming to an engagement. Nothing could appear more unequal than the impending battle. The number of English combatants did not exceed twelve thousand, and even those were much enfeebled by sickness and fatigue : the enemy were four times as numerous, led on by the Dauphin and all the princes of the blood, and had to depend on supplies of provisions. Henry's

situation was precisely similar to that of Edward at Cressy, and that of the Black Prince at Poitiers; and the memory of those great victories inspired the English with the hope of extricating themselves in as triumphant a manner. Henry drew up his army on a narrow ground between two woods, and expected the attack of the enemy. On the part of the French, the want of circumspect generalship, the impetuous valour of the nobility, and the vain confidence in superior numbers which flushed the troops, precipitated them into an immediate action, instead of waiting till the want of provisions had compelled the advance of the intercepted army. The French archers on horseback, and their men at arms, in crowded ranks, attacked the English archers, who, standing in safety behind a line of palisades, discharged an irresistible shower of arrows on the assailants. The clayey soil, moistened by rain, was an additional obstacle to the French cavalry. The wounded men and horses disturbed their ranks: the narrow ground prevented them from recovering order: their whole army was a scene of confusion and dismay. Henry seizing the moment of victory, ordered the English archers to advance upon the enemy. With their battle-axes they hewed in pieces the French, incapable of flying or of making resistance. Seconding this impression, the men at arms pushed on, and covered the field with the killed, wounded, and dismounted of the enemy. After all appearance of opposition had ceased, the English had leisure to make prisoners; advancing, with uninterrupted success, into the open plain: but there they saw the remains of the French rear-guard, which still maintained the aspect of a line of battle. At the same moment they heard an alarm from behind: some gentlemen of Picardy, at the head of six hundred peasants, had fallen upon the English baggage, and were doing execution on the unarmed camp followers, who fled before them. Henry, seeing the enemy on all sides, began to entertain apprehensions of his

prisoners, and issued orders to put them to death; but soon discovering the true circumstances, he stopped the slaughter, and was still able to save a great number.

No battle was ever more fatal to France, from the number of princes and nobility slain or taken captive. It is computed that ten thousand French combatants fell, of whom eight thousand were gentlemen. Henry was master of fourteen thousand prisoners. The only person of note, slain on the side of the English, was the Duke of York, who fell fighting by the King's side. The whole loss of the English, according to accounts transmitted to us, did not exceed forty men. Henry continued his march to Calais, and from thence passed over to England, carrying his prisoners with him. He there concluded a truce with the enemy; and it was not till after two years that the English again appeared in France.



THE TREATY OF TROYE.

THE disturbances in France, which had first encouraged the invasion of the English, still continuing, Henry, upon the expiration of the truce, conducted thither a new expedition. On the 1st of August, 1419, he landed in Normandy, at the head of twenty-five thousand men. He speedily reduced Falaise, Evreux, and Caen; he then formed the siege of Rouen, which city submitted after a long and obstinate defence; he also made himself master of Pontoise and Gisors; and the French court, alarmed for its safety, removed from Paris to Troye. Henry, during the successful progress of his arms, continued to negotiate. As the conditions of peace, he expressly offered—to espouse the princess Catharine; and to accept all the provinces ceded to Edward III., with the addition of Normandy in full sovereignty. These terms were submitted to by the French Queen and the Duke of Burgundy: but whilst arrangements

were making for finally adjusting the treaty, a convention was entered into between the Dauphin and the Duke of Burgundy, by which they agreed to share the royal authority during the lifetime of King Charles, and to unite their arms in order to expel foreign enemies. This at first seemed to threaten the total overthrow of Henry's schemes. The two princes agreed to an interview, in order to concert measures for attacking the English; but the assassination of the late Duke of Orleans, perpetrated by the Duke of Burgundy, and his open avowal of it, had impressed the minds of men with so much distrust, that each party was suspicious of the intentions of the other. The place of meeting was the bridge at Montcreau, the avenues of which were strictly guarded; all the persons permitted to enter were the two princes, each with ten adherents: but all these precautions were vain; the friends of the Dauphin had no sooner passed the barrier than they drew their swords, and attacked and slew the Duke of Burgundy, whose friends either shared his fate or were made prisoners. This unexpected event changed the aspect of affairs. The city of Paris, passionately devoted to the family of Burgundy, broke out into the highest fury against the Dauphin. The court of King Charles, from interest, entered into the same views; and the Queen persisted in her unnatural animosity against her son. But, above all, Philip Count of Charolois, now Duke of Burgundy, thought himself bound by every tie to avenge the death of his father; and in this general transport of rage, every consideration of national interest was lost sight of by all parties. A league was concluded between Henry and the Duke of Burgundy, at Troye. The principal articles of this famous treaty were: That Henry should marry the Princess Catharine of France: That he should be acknowledged heir of that monarchy, and be entrusted with the present administration of the government: That that kingdom should pass to his heirs general: That France and England should be for ever united under one king: That all the people

of France should swear, both to acknowledge the future succession of Henry in France, and to pay him present obedience as Regent.



HENRY ESPOUSING CATHARINE OF FRANCE.

IN a few days after the conclusion of the Treaty of Troye, Henry espoused the Princess Catharine: by this alliance he gained the support of the Queen, and the Duke of Burgundy, with the tranquil administration of the centre of the French territory, comprizing those provinces which had neither been conquered by the English, nor thrown by the vicissitudes of a civil war into the hands of the Dauphin. He carried his father-in-law, Charles VI., with him to Paris, and obtained a ratification of the alliance from the parliament and three estates. He then immediately turned his arms against the adherents of the Dauphin; who, as soon as he heard of the Treaty of Troye, had assumed the style and authority of Regent, appealing to God and his sword for the maintenance of his right. Henry subdued Sens after a slight resistance; and with the same facility he reduced Montereau. The defence of Melun was more obstinate; and after four months' siege it capitulated only through famine. Circumstances now diverted him from the prosecution of the war in person.



DEATH OF HENRY THE FIFTH.

THE necessity of providing supplies, both of men and money, obliged Henry to go over to England: he therefore left his uncle, the Duke of Exeter, governor of Paris during his absence. The detention of the young King of Scotland in the English court had hitherto proved advantageous to Henry; and by keeping the Regent of Scotland in awe, had preserved, during the whole of the French war, the northern frontier in tranquillity. But when intelligence arrived in Scotland of

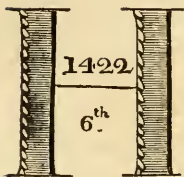
Henry's intended succession to the crown of France, that nation became alarmed, foreseeing their own inevitable fall, if the subjection of their ally left them to combat alone a victorious enemy, who was already so greatly their superior in power and riches. The Regent therefore, though he declined an open rupture with England, yet permitted a body of 7,000 Scots, under the command of the Earl of Buchan, to be transported into France for the service of the Dauphin, by whom they were employed to oppose the progress of the Duke of Clarence in Anjou.

The two armies met at Baugé: the English were defeated, the Duke himself slain, and the Earls of Somerset, Dorset, and Huntingdon were taken prisoners. This was the first action that interrupted the tide of success against the English. But the arrival of Henry from England, with a new army of 24,000 archers and 4,000 horsemen, soon repaired this loss. He was received at Paris with every demonstration of joy. He immediately obliged the Dauphin to raise the siege of Chartres; and that Prince, after the fall of Meaux, was chased beyond the Loire, and forced to abandon the northern provinces: he was even pursued into the south, by the united arms of the English and Burgundians, and threatened with total expulsion.

The birth of a son, who was called by his father's name, seemed to crown all the prosperity of Henry; and this auspicious event was celebrated by rejoicings no less pompous and sincere at Paris than at London. But the glory and prosperity of Henry was suddenly arrested by the hand of death. He was seized with a fistula, a disorder which the medical men of that age had not skill to cure. Sensible that his end was approaching, he sent for his brother, the Duke of Bedford, to whom he committed the regency of France; that of England he gave to his younger brother, the Duke of Gloucester; and

the care of his son's person to the Earl of Warwick; and intreated them to continue towards his infant son the same fidelity and attachment which they had always manifested towards himself during his lifetime.

Henry expired in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the tenth of his reign. Catharine his widow married, soon after his death, a Welch gentleman, Sir Owen Tudor, said to be descended from the antient princes of that country. The family of Tudor, first raised to distinction by this alliance, afterwards ascended the throne of England.



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| <p>1425</p> <p>A coat of arms featuring a crown on a tall stem to the left, a diamond-shaped shield in the center, and a spear with a flame-like tip to the right. A chain of pearls is draped across the bottom.</p> | <p>1429</p> <p>A coat of arms featuring a fleur-de-lis on a stem to the left, a bird (possibly a swan) on a stem in the center, and three smaller fleur-de-lis on stems to the right.</p> | <p>1431</p> <p>A coat of arms featuring a shield with a crown on top, a crown on a stem to the left, and a boat on a stem to the right. A chain of pearls is draped across the shield.</p> |
| <p>1447</p> <p>A coat of arms featuring a crown on a stem to the left, a book to the right, and a cross on a stem at the bottom.</p> | <p>1450</p> <p>A coat of arms featuring a shield with a crown on top, a crown on a stem to the left, and a shield with a lion on a stem to the right.</p> | <p>1450</p> <p>A coat of arms featuring a crown on a stem to the left, a cross on a stem in the center, and a boat on a stem to the right.</p> |
| <p>1450</p> <p>A coat of arms featuring a shield with a crown on top, a cross on a stem to the left, and a spear with a flame-like tip to the right.</p> | <p>1450</p> <p>A coat of arms featuring a crown on a stem to the left, a rose on a stem in the center, and a spear with a flame-like tip to the right.</p> | <p>1461</p> <p>A coat of arms featuring a crown on a stem to the left, a cross on a stem in the center, and a rose on a stem to the right.</p> |

PLATE XVIII.

HENRY THE SIXTH.

Fig. 1.—MARRIAGE OF JAMES OF SCOTLAND WITH THE DUKE OF SOMERSET'S DAUGHTER.

James is represented trampling on a chain, the emblem of captivity. One hand points to the letter E, intimating that he would be faithful to England, according to the marriage treaty; and the other is united with that of Joanna, daughter of the Duke of Somerset.

Fig. 2.—JOAN OF ARC INTRODUCED TO THE DAUPHIN.

Joan is distinguished by a helmet, in allusion to her military exploits.

Fig. 3.—THE DEATH OF JOAN OF ARC.*Fig. 4.*—DEATH OF THE DUKE OF GLOUCESTER.

The book is a symbolical memorial of his having established the first public library in England.

Fig. 5.—THE ENGLISH EXPELLED FRANCE.

The standard of England is represented as fallen in France: indicating the total decline of the English power in that kingdom.

Fig. 6.—MURDER OF THE DUKE OF SUFFOLK.*Fig. 7.*—INSURRECTION OF JACK CADE.*Fig. 8.*—THE DUKE OF YORK CLAIMING THE CROWN.

The assertion of the Duke's title is expressed by his placing the white rose over the crown, as representative of the house of York.

Fig. 9.—EDWARD THE FOURTH ASSUMES THE CROWN.

HENRY THE SIXTH.

HENRY the Sixth, while yet an infant in the cradle, was proclaimed King both of France and England; and had he been conscious of the then fortunate state of public affairs, might reasonably have entertained the most splendid prospects. The Parliament, whose authority seems to have been more confirmed under the Lancastrian princes than at any former period, appointed the Duke of Bedford Protector of England; but on account of his absence in France, over which kingdom he had the authority of Regent, they conferred on the Duke of Gloucester the administration of the domestic government. The education of the young King was committed to the Bishop of Winchester, the legitimated son of John of Gaunt Duke of Lancaster. A long minority encouraged the Lords and Commons to extend their influence: and as the King, when he grew up, was found destitute of the great abilities which had distinguished the character and secured the power of his immediate predecessors, discontent, faction, and rebellion, arose in the bosom of the State. The title of Henry to the crown was disputed: and his long reign was little else than a continued scene of treachery, cruelty, rapine, and bloodshed; although he was himself distinguished for piety, compassion, and inoffensive manners.

MARRIAGE OF JAMES OF SCOTLAND WITH THE
DUKE OF SOMERSET'S DAUGHTER.

BEDFORD, the Protector, was the most accomplished prince of his time; and his experience, prudence, valour, and generosity, eminently qualified him for the high station to which he had attained. The whole power of England was at his command; he was at the head of armies accustomed to victory, and was seconded by the most renowned generals of the age. In addition to Guienne, the ancient inheritance of England, he

was master of the capital of France, and of almost all the northern provinces, which were well able to furnish him with supplies both of men and money. Charles of France, though only in his twentieth year, and involved in circumstances of difficulty and adversity, was a prince not to be lightly estimated by an enemy. His amiable manners had endeared him to his subjects and followers; and a sound understanding qualified him to employ with advantage such resources as remained to him. Though his virtues lay for some time in obscurity, yet the Duke of Bedford knew that his title alone would make him formidable, and that every foreign assistance would be necessary before an English Regent could hope to complete the conquest of France. Bedford therefore formed alliances with the Dukes of Burgundy, Brittany, and Richemont; and, to secure the neutrality of the Scots, who were ever ready to unite with the French against England, Bedford persuaded the English Council to release James the young King of Scotland, and to connect him with England by marrying him to the daughter of the Earl of Somerset, cousin to the young King, Henry VI. James had long been a prisoner in England; for being wrecked on the British coast, whilst in his way to France, whither he was going for his education, Henry IV. unjustly detained him; and he had ever since remained in captivity. Both the King and the Scottish Regent embraced the overtures of the English Court. James accepted Joanna in marriage, and engaged by treaty not to assist France in the war with England. He was then restored to the throne of his ancestors, under a stipulation to pay £40,000 for his ransom. During his lifetime there was no reason to complain of any breach of the neutrality of Scotland.



JOAN OF ARC INTRODUCED TO THE DAUPHIN.

THE constant successes of the English, under the conduct of the Duke of Bedford, had reduced that part of France under

Charles to a state the most deplorable. The flower of his army had been lost; the bravest of his nobles had fallen in various combats with the enemy; his towns and fortresses had surrendered for want of supplies; and he had no resources for recruiting his army, being destitute of money to keep his own table regularly supplied with even the plainest viands.

The city of Orleans, being situated between the provinces commanded by Henry and those that still remained to Charles, the possession of it became an object of importance. The Earl of Salisbury, a man of distinguished abilities, was appointed to command an army destined to act against that city. The French used every effort to save it, and supplied it with a garrison of choice troops. Salisbury was killed by a cannonball at the very beginning of the siege: the command then devolved upon the Earl of Suffolk; who, being reinforced with great numbers of English and Burgundians, carried on the siege with great vigour. Various skirmishes took place between the contending parties, under the walls, and the city continued from day to day to be more closely invested. Charles, in despair, gave it up for lost, and began to think of retiring, with the remainder of his forces, into Languedoc and Dauphiny; but from this he was deterred by the spirited counsels of his Queen, Mary of Anjou, and his favourite, Agnes Sorrel. At this critical juncture, too, appeared the Maid of Orleans; who, by her religious enthusiasm and military valour, raised the depressed spirits of his soldiers, induced them once more to rally round their Prince, and fight for their liberty and their country. Joan of Arc was servant at a small inn in the village of Domremi, near Vaucouleurs: she was at this time twenty-seven years of age; and having been accustomed to a life of hardship and drudgery, had acquired strength to endure the fatigues of war. The siege of Orleans was the subject of every conversation; and the distressed situation of the young King, who had been expelled his throne by the sedition of his native

subjects and by the arms of strangers, naturally excited the pity and compassion of all those whose bosoms glowed with patriotic ardour. Joan, animated by the general sentiment, longed to become the avenger of her country's wrongs; and this wild desire occupying her mind day and night, she at last fancied herself inspired, and destined by Heaven to expel the foreign invaders, and restore her sovereign to the throne of his ancestors. She applied to Baudricourt, the governor of Vaucouleurs, who treated her at first with contempt: but her importunate solicitations at length prevailed; and he conducted her to the French court, which was at that time held at Chinon. It is pretended that Joan knew the King immediately on being admitted into his presence, although she had never seen him before, and though he had purposely laid aside the ensigns of royalty. She promised him, in the name of the Most High, to raise the siege of Orleans, and to conduct him to Rheims to be anointed and crowned. On the King's expressing some doubts of her mission, it is said she revealed to him, before sworn confidants, a secret that was known only to himself, and which must have been communicated to her by Divine inspiration. She demanded, as the instrument of her future victories, a particular sword, which she described, and which had long lain neglected in the church of Saint Catharine of Fierbois. An account of these transactions, with all their miraculous accompaniments, was circulated among the crowd, who were fully persuaded that Heaven had now declared in favour of France! The maid was armed cap-a-pié, mounted on horseback, and shewn in that martial habiliment to the people. A large convoy for the supply of Orleans had been prepared at Blois, with an army of 10,000 men, under the command of St. Sevère, to escort it. Joan, who carried a consecrated standard, was sent to attend this convoy, which safely reached the bank of the river before Orleans: whence it

was conveyed to the city in boats, Joan covering the embarkation with her troops, while the besiegers quietly looked on. The English had previously affected to deride her mission, and to despise her menaces of vengeance unless they should vacate France; yet now Suffolk, their commander, did not venture to attack her. Joan was received with triumph by her countrymen, and considered as their guardian angel. She carried a second convoy between the redoubts of the English without interruption, and effectually relieved the town. The siege of Orleans was raised; and the greatest part of the besieging forces, overtaken in their retreat, were killed or taken prisoners. One part of the maid's promise being amply fulfilled, Charles put himself at the head of 12,000 men, and, in conformity with the vehement exhortations of his warlike prophetess, set out for Rheims, the road to which was commanded by strong garrisons in the hands of the enemy. Troye and Chalons opened their gates to him. A deputation met him with the keys of Rheims; in which city, according to the prediction of Joan, who stood at his side in complete armour, displaying her consecrated banner, the ceremony of his coronation was performed.



THE DEATH OF JOAN OF ARC.

JOAN, after the coronation of Charles, was desirous of returning to her former station, but was prevailed on by the Count of Dunois to throw herself into the town of Compeigne. In a sally which she made the next day, after twice driving the enemy from their entrenchments, she was at length so hard pressed by superior numbers that she ordered a retreat: valiantly fighting her way back, she was taken prisoner; being deserted by her friends, who shut the gates against her. The common opinion was, that the French officers, from envy of

her renown, willingly exposed her to this calamity. She was taken by the Burgundians, whose commander, John of Luxembourg, sold his captive to the Duke of Bedford.

The Regent for England, either from revenge or barbarous policy, had her arraigned for witchcraft. In vain she displayed the most heroic intrepidity, modesty, and simplicity; her judges were determined to find her guilty, and she was accordingly condemned for sorcery, impiety, idolatry, and magic. This patriotic heroine fell a martyr to the ignorance and superstition of the age: she was condemned to the flames, and suffered in the market-place of Rouen. By this iniquitous act, Bedford tarnished the lustre of his fame, and blasted those laurels which he had previously acquired.

DEFINITION.

Witchcraft.—Supernatural power, alleged to have been obtained by unlawful agency with evil spirits. The belief in witchcraft was at this time very general, but the diffusion of knowledge has now almost exploded this superstitious folly.



DEATH OF THE DUKE OF GLOUCESTER.

JAQUELINE, Countess of Hainault and Holland, having from political motives married John Duke of Brabant, cousin-german to the Duke of Burgundy, soon conceived an insurmountable aversion for a prince who was not only her junior in years, but a man of very weak intellect. She therefore applied to the Pope for the dissolution of her marriage; and fearing the opposition of her relations, escaped into England in 1424, and threw herself on the protection of the Duke of Gloucester; who, fascinated by the charms of her person, and attracted by her rich inheritance, entered into a contract to marry her, without waiting for a papal dispensation; and immediately attempted to take possession of her dominions. This greatly

offended the Duke of Burgundy, who resolved to support his kinsman. Bedford saw all the bad consequences of this imprudent quarrel, and endeavoured, but without success, to effect an accommodation.

At length a Bull was issued by the Pope, confirming the marriage of Jaqueline with the Duke of Brabant, and annulling the contract with Gloucester, who in despair married another lady of inferior rank. On the death of her husband, Jaqueline was obliged to declare Philip of Burgundy her heir, before she could regain her power. Though this affair was at length terminated to the satisfaction of Philip, yet it gave rise to an extreme jealousy of his English allies, and induced him shortly after to abandon them. About the same time the Duke of Brittany also withdrew his alliance; and the affairs of the English in France continuing to decline, a truce for twenty-two months was agreed upon in 1443.

The Cardinal Bishop of Winchester, preceptor to the young King, was a prelate of great capacity and experience, but of an intriguing and dangerous character; heading a faction constantly opposed to the Duke of Gloucester, the administrator of government in England. His pupil being now in his twenty-third year, it was judged proper that he should marry. The Duke of Gloucester proposed a daughter of the Count of Armagnae, but had not sufficient influence to obtain the sanction of the necessary authorities: his opponent, the Cardinal, who selected another princess, triumphed in the council; and a marriage was negotiated for Henry with Margaret of Anjou. She brought her husband no accession either of riches or power; but she was a woman of great personal and mental accomplishments, of a masculine and courageous spirit, and of an understanding as solid as it was brilliant. The Earl of Suffolk, who had conducted the treaty for the marriage, as a reward for his services, was created first a marquis, and then a duke. The new Queen attached herself to the Cardinal's

party; and the Dukes of Somerset, Suffolk, and Buckingham, emboldened by her powerful patronage, resolved on the final ruin of Gloucester. This generous prince, who was greatly beloved by the people, and whose open temper was little suited to court intrigues, had endured many mortifications from the opposite party, without violating the public peace. His duchess, the daughter of Reginald Lord Cobham, had been accused of witchcraft, condemned to do public penance, and to suffer perpetual imprisonment. The injury inflicted by this malicious proceeding did but increase the love of the people for Gloucester; which determined the Cardinal of Winchester to destroy a man whose popularity might become dangerous. A parliament was therefore summoned at St. Edmondsbury. As soon as Gloucester appeared there, he was accused of treason and thrown into prison. He was soon after found dead in his bed; and though it was pretended that his death was natural, no doubt was entertained of his having fallen a victim to the vengeance of his enemies. This prince is said to have received a better education than was usual in those times, to have been a great patron of learned men, and to have founded one of the first public libraries in England.

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THE ENGLISH EXPELLED FRANCE.

By a secret article in the treaty for the marriage of Margaret, Suffolk had promised that the province of Maine should be ceded to Charles of Anjou, the Queen's uncle. This engagement had not been divulged till the death of Gloucester: but the court of France now strenuously insisted on its performance; and orders were accordingly dispatched under Henry's hand, commanding the governor of Mons to surrender that city to Charles of Anjou. No place being appointed to receive the garrison after they had vacated the territory belonging to Maine, for subsistence they overran Brittany,

which they plundered. The Duke of Brittany complained to Charles as his liege lord : and Charles remonstrated with the Duke of Somerset, the English governor of Brittany ; who replied, that the injury had been done without his knowledge, and that he had no authority over the marauders. Charles, sensible of his present superiority, made preparations for renewing the war as soon as the present truce should be expired. England during this time was agitated with contending factions : the people were dissatisfied with the government at home, and had become tired of conquests which, however brilliant, seemed to add nothing to the real strength and welfare of the kingdom. Charles recommenced hostilities in 1449 ; and Somerset, being unsupported by the government at home, was obliged to surrender the castle of Rouen. He purchased a retreat to Harfleur by paying 56,000 crowns, and by the cession of all the places in Upper Normandy. The entire conquest of this province was completed by Charles in one year. The same rapid success attended the French arms in Guienne ; which was now finally incorporated with the French monarchy, after having been united to England ever since the time of Henry II. Thus terminated those fatal wars, originating solely in ambition, which had cost both countries so much blood and treasure ; and which brought upon the English, who were the aggressors, the loss of the whole of their previous possessions in France ; while no trace remained of the mighty victories which they had gained on the plains of Cressy, Poitiers, and Agincourt, but empty fame !



MURDER OF THE DUKE OF SUFFOLK.

HENRY'S prime minister, the Duke of Suffolk, was generally detested by the people, for his arbitrary measures, but above all, for having borne an active part in procuring the Duke of Gloucester's assassination. He had long been an object of

envy to the ancient nobility, on many accounts: although only the great grandson of a merchant, he was elevated above the first families by his power in the State; and after he became the declared favourite of the Queen, the addition thus given to his influence was not equal to the augmented opposition which his overbearing use of it provoked. At length he was impeached by the House of Commons. Among other grounds of charge, the articles sent up to the Peers accused him of sacrificing the interests of his country, in ceding the province of Maine to Charles of Anjou, unauthorized by Parliament: they further attributed the loss of Normandy to treachery on his part. The Commons likewise adopted all the popular clamours against the Duke, and magnified every irregular exercise of power into an act of tyranny.

Suffolk, sensible of the public odium under which he laboured, endeavoured to intimidate his enemies, by boldly presenting himself to the charge, and by insisting upon his innocence and merits. He urged, that after having served the Crown in thirty-four campaigns; after having lived abroad seventeen years without once returning to his own native country; after losing a father and three brothers in the war with France; after being himself a captive there, and purchasing his liberty by a great ransom; it was very improbable that he should now betray his Prince, by whom he had been rewarded with the highest honours and greatest benefits that it was in the power of majesty to bestow. This alluded to a most improbable article of his impeachment; which was, that he had persuaded the French King to invade England, in order that he might depose Henry, and place his own son, John de la Pole, on the throne. The Commons, as if sensible that the charge of treason against Suffolk would not bear a scrutiny, soon afterwards sent up new articles, relating only to misdemeanors: they alleged that he had procured exorbitant grants from the Crown, had embezzled the public money, had

conferred offices on improper persons, and had perverted justice by instituting unjust suits, and obtained pardons for notorious offenders. Suffolk threw himself on the King's mercy; and Henry, desirous of saving his minister, banished him for five years; but his enemies, considering his exile without a trial as an attempt to evade justice, intercepted him on his passage to France: he was seized near Dover, his head struck off on the side of a long-boat, and his body thrown into the sea.



INSURRECTION OF JACK CADE.

AFTER the murder of Suffolk, the Duke of Somerset succeeded to the chief power in the ministry, and to the favour of the Queen. He became equally as obnoxious to the people as Suffolk had been. Various commotions arose, which were soon suppressed; but one in Kent was attended with serious consequences. John Cade, a native of Ireland, and a man of low condition, had been obliged to fly his country, to avoid the punishment due to his crimes. Sir John Mortimer, the last male of the family of Marche, and to whom of right the crown belonged, had been put to death at the beginning of this reign. Cade took the name of John Mortimer, intending, as is supposed, to pass himself for a son of that popular nobleman. The common people of Kent therefore, attracted by the name, flocked to Cade's standard, who excited their zeal by publishing complaints against the Government. The Court, not aware of the extent of the danger, sent only a small force against the insurgents, under the command of Sir Humphrey Stafford, who was defeated and slain at Sevenoaks. Cade next encamped upon Blackheath; and sending a plausible list of grievances to the Court, demanded that Lord Say the treasurer, and Cromer the sheriff of Kent, should be punished for their malversations; promising at the same time to lay down his arms. The King fled to Kenilworth Castle; and Cade entered

London; where, to gratify the personal antipathies of his followers, he put Say and Cromer to death without a legal trial: after this, he could no longer restrain the licentiousness of his adherents. Their violence alarmed the citizens, who shut their gates against them; and being seconded by a detachment of soldiers from Lord Seales, governour of the Tower, they repulsed the rebels with great slaughter. A price was set on the head of Cade, who was afterwards killed by one Iden, a gentleman of Sussex, and many of Cade's followers were punished for their rebellion.



THE DUKE OF YORK CLAIMING THE CROWN.

RICHARD, Duke of York, was descended by the female side, from Lionel Duke of Clarence, second son of Edward III. The reigning King was descended from John of Gaunt Duke of Lancaster, third son of Edward III. It is evident, therefore, that the claim of the Duke was preferable to that of the King. Richard was brave, skilful, prudent, and humane: he had been governor of the English provinces in France, but had been recalled by the intrigues and superior interest of the Duke of Somerset; and was afterwards sent to suppress a rebellion in Ireland, in which he had not only succeeded, but secured the attachment of the whole Irish nation to his person and family. He was first prince of the blood, and allied to most of the great families in England. His fortune was immense; he had succeeded to the rich hereditary estates of York, Cambridge, and Mortimer, together with those of Clarence and Ulster, besides the patrimonial possessions of the family of Marche. He had married the daughter of Ralph Nevil Earl of Westmoreland; and thus had extended his interest to many noble houses allied to the family of Nevil by intermarriage. This had connected him with the celebrated Earl of Warwick, generally known by the name of the *King-maker*, as well as

with the Earl of Salisbury; and the personal qualities of those noblemen gave them very great influence over the people. It is said of the former, that he maintained at his table daily, in the various manors and castles he possessed, no fewer than thirty thousand people. His numerous retainers were devoted to his will; and he was the greatest, as well as the last, of those powerful Barons who formerly overawed the crown, and rendered the people incapable of receiving any regular system of civil government. Courtney Earl of Devonshire, and Mowbray Duke of Norfolk, had also attached themselves to the party of York. The people still considered the Queen as a French woman, and a latent enemy of the kingdom; and their disgust was still farther increased, when they beheld her father and other relations strenuously aiding the success of the French. The murder of the Duke of Gloucester, in which she was supposed to have been concerned, still farther irritated them, and made them ready to join any party, who should aim at deposing the reigning family. The rights of Henry and Richard were the subjects of daily conversation. The adherents of the House of Lancaster maintained, that though the advancement of Henry IV. to the crown might be considered as irregular, yet it was founded upon general consent, and so became a national act; that the Lancastrian succession had acquired solidity by the length of time which it had been established; that the principles of liberty were violated by reviving the pretensions of the House of York; whilst the allegiance of the nation was bound to that of Lancaster, no less by political than moral duty, having frequently taken the oath of fealty to the Lancastrian princes. The Duke of York himself had repeatedly done homage to the King as his lawful sovereign; by which he had made a solemn, though indirect, renunciation of his claims.

On the part of the Duke of York it was replied, that the good of the people required the maintenance of order in the

succession of princes, by which numerous inconveniences would be avoided that must otherwise ensue; that the legitimate order of succession had been invaded in the case of Henry IV., and it was never too late to remedy a pernicious precedent; that it would be a great encouragement to usurpers if the immediate possession of power, or their continuance in authority for a few years, could convert them into legal princes; and that the people would be reduced to a very miserable situation, if all restraints on violence and ambition were removed, and full liberty given to every innovator to make inroads on the throne. The deposition of Richard II., and advancement of Henry IV., were not legal acts, but the effects of mere levity in the people, in which the House of York had acquiesced from necessity; that the reigning prince was notoriously disqualified for government by imbecility, being under the blind tutelage of corrupt ministers, and an imperious Queen; whilst, on the other hand, the true heir of the crown was a native of England, a prince of approved judgment and experience, who would not fail to correct all the existing abuses, and reinstate law and public right on its ancient foundations.

The Duke of York was a man of moderate and cautious temper; and rather disposed to trust to time for his advancement to royalty, than to have recourse to violence: but the King being seized by a distemper, which prevented him from maintaining even the appearance of royalty, the York party prevailed in the cabinet; and the Duke was appointed Lieutenant of the kingdom, with power to open and hold a session of Parliament. That assembly constituted him Protector during pleasure: meanwhile, Somerset was sent to the Tower. Richard, instead of stepping into the throne as his own right, accepted and exercised the government as a trust; which moderation, or want of resolution, enabled Henry, who soon after recovered from his indisposition, to resume his authority. Acting under the guidance of the enemies of Richard, he

annulled the act of Protectorship, released Somerset from the Tower, and made him again minister. The Duke of York, sensible of the dangerous situation in which he stood, levied an army, and met his opponents at St. Alban's. At this æra commenced those sanguinary contests which for so many years involved England in all the horrors of civil war.



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|---|--|
| <p>1 22. May 1455</p> | <p>2 23^d Sep^r 1459</p> |
| <p>3 10th July 1460</p> | <p>4 24th Dec^r 1460</p> |
| <p>5 1461</p> | <p>6 1461</p> |

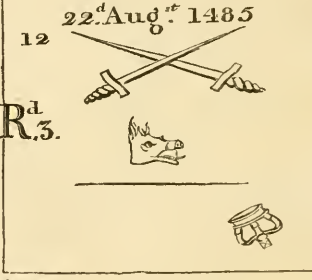
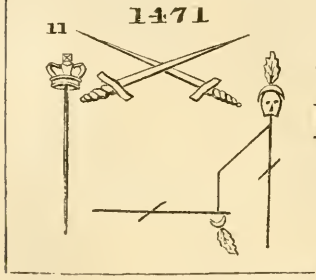
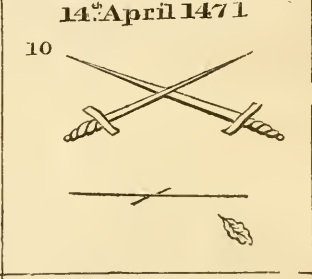
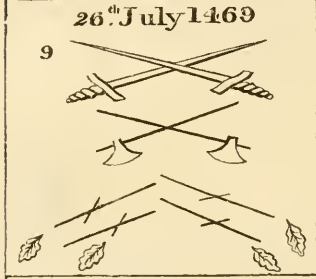
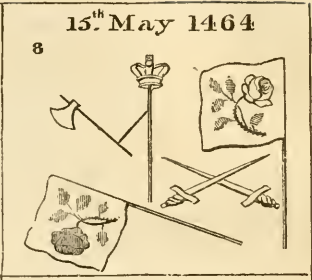
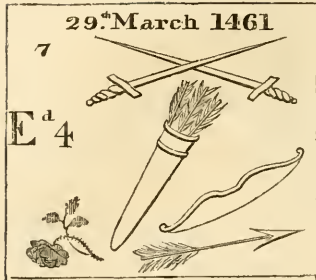


PLATE XIX.

Fig. 1.—FIRST BATTLE OF ST. ALBAN'S.

On the right hand is the standard of York triumphant: on the left is King Henry, a prisoner; the crown and red rose are reversed at his feet.

Fig. 2.—BATTLE OF BLOREHEATH.

The decline of the cause of the Yorkists, through the spirit of desertion which followed the skirmish, is shewn by the relative position of the flags.

Fig. 3.—BATTLE OF NORTHAMPTON.

The reverse experienced by the Lancastrian arms is shewn by the relative position of the flags.

Fig. 4.—BATTLE OF WAKEFIELD.

The death of the Duke of York, which took place in the action, is represented by the full blown rose broken from its stem; whilst the expanding bud is an emblem of his son Edward.

Fig. 5.—BATTLE OF MORTIMER'S CROSS.*Fig. 6.*—SECOND BATTLE OF ST. ALBAN'S.*Fig. 7.*—BATTLE OF TOUTON.

The victory having been obtained by the archers, the quiver, bow, and arrows are introduced as memorials of the battle.

Fig. 8.—BATTLE OF HEXHAM.

Edward is represented holding an axe over the Lancastrian standard, which is prostrate at his feet; intimating his determination utterly to destroy that party.

Fig. 9.—BATTLE OF BARNET; AND DEATH OF WARWICK.*Fig. 10.*—BATTLE OF TEWKESBURY.—MURDER OF PRINCE EDWARD.

EMBRACING TWELVE BATTLES.

THE entire design relates to the Civil Wars during the contention between the Houses of York and Lancaster. The symbol on the top of the page represents England rent by the contending factions. The Lancastrian Rose is placed at the top, Henry VI. being at this time in possession of the throne; but it is turned to the left, because the family were usurpers. The White Rose, the emblem of the House of York, is turned to the right. The Death's-head and Cross Swords allude to the fatal effects resulting from ill-directed ambition.

The symbol at the bottom is an epitome of the whole. The emblem of the House of York has gained the ascendancy. The sum "12" denotes the number of pitched battles fought between the rival princes; "30," the series of years during which the disputes lasted: and "100,000," the aggregate number of men who are computed to have fallen in the different engagements. The twelve connected diagrams are descriptive of as many battles. The figures are explained, and the battles described, under the history of the Sovereigns in whose reigns the events respectively occurred, *viz.*

Fig. 1. First Battle of St. Alban's.

2. Battle of Bloreheath.
3. Battle of Northampton.
4. Battle of Wakefield.
5. Battle of Mortimer's Cross.
6. Second Battle of St. Alban's.
7. Battle of Tooton.
8. Battle of Hexham.
9. Battle of Banbury.
10. Battle of Barnet.
11. Battle of Tewkesbury.
12. Battle of Bosworth.

} These battles were fought during the reign of Henry VI.

} These battles were fought in the reign of Edward IV.

{ This in the reign of Richard III.

FIRST BATTLE OF ST. ALBAN'S.

IN the battle fought at St. Alban's in 1455, the Lancastrians lost about 5,000 men; among whom were the Duke of Somerset, the Earl of Northumberland, and many other persons of distinction. The King fell into the hands of the Duke of York: he was treated with respect and tenderness, and seemed pleased with his situation, although obliged to transfer the whole authority of the crown to his rival. In the following year, Margaret his queen, a woman of a bold and masculine spirit, excited him once more to assert his sovereignty. She produced him before the House of Peers, where he declared his intentions of resuming the government, and of putting an end to Richard's authority. The Duke of York was obliged to retire from court. A negociation for reconciling the great leaders on each side was set on foot, under the auspices of Bouchier Archbishop of Canterbury: but though an amicable compact was ostensibly entered into, and celebrated by a procession to St. Paul's, in which the chiefs and adherents of the two houses marched hand in hand, yet each party consumed the interval of peace in watching for an opportunity to subvert the other.



BATTLE OF BLOREHEATH.

THE Earl of Salisbury, on his march to join the Duke of York, was overtaken at Bloreheath, on the borders of Staffordshire, by Lord Audley, with a force greatly superior: but feigning a retreat, he turned upon the royalists, when the van only of their army had passed a brook to pursue him, and totally defeated them. After this victory, Salisbury advanced to the general rendezvous of the Yorkists at Ludlow. When the royal army approached, and a general action was every hour expected, a body of veterans, under the command of Sir Andrew Trollop, deserted to the King; and this so intimidated

the Duke's party, that they separated the next morning, without striking another blow. The Duke of York fled to Ireland; and the Earl of Warwick, who had brought over with him from France a considerable force, escaped to Calais.

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BATTLE OF NORTHAMPTON.

THE partisans of York everywhere kept themselves in readiness to rise on the first summons from their leaders. After gaining some successes at sea, the Earl of Warwick landed in Kent, and was immediately joined by several persons of distinction. He then, amidst the acclamations of the people, marched to London; which opened its gates to receive him. His troops daily becoming more numerous, he hastened to oppose the royal army. A battle was fought at Northampton, in which the King sustained a defeat, in consequence of the treachery of Lord Gray of Ruthvin, the commander of Henry's van, who during the heat of the action deserted to the enemy. The slaughter of this day fell chiefly on the nobility and gentry; the common people being spared, by the order of Warwick. Henry was once more taken prisoner; but as the innocence and simplicity of his manners bore the appearance of sanctity, and had procured him the regard of the people, the leaders of the York party were careful to treat him with the greatest respect and courtesy.

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BATTLE OF WAKEFIELD.

AFTER the defeat at Northampton, Margaret fled with her infant son to Scotland. On her way thither she had solicited the assistance of the powerful Barons of the north. Indignant that the southern Barons should pretend to dispose of the crown, and touched with pity at her misfortunes, the nobility of that quarter, who considered themselves as the most warlike

in the kingdom, flocked to her standard; and Margaret soon saw herself at the head of an army 20,000 strong. The Duke of York, informed of her appearance in the north, hastened with a body of 5,000 men, to suppress, as he imagined, the beginning of an insurrection. On his arrival at Wakefield, finding himself greatly outnumbered by the enemy, he threw himself into Sandal Castle: but considering that he should be forever disgraced, if, by taking shelter behind walls, he should resign the victory to a woman, he descended into the plain; and a battle ensued, in which the Lancastrians were victorious. The Duke of York fell in the engagement: his head was afterwards cut off by orders from Margaret, and fixed on the gates of York with a paper crown, in derision of his claims to royalty. His son, the Earl of Rutland, a youth of seventeen, was murdered in cold blood by Lord Clifford, in revenge for the death of his father, who fell in the battle of St. Alban's.

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BATTLE OF MORTIMER'S CROSS.

AFTER the death of the Duke of York, his son Edward became the leader of that party, and defeated the Earl of Pembroke at the battle of Mortimer's Cross in Herefordshire. Pembroke escaped by flight; but his father, Sir Owen Tudor, was taken prisoner, and immediately beheaded by Edward's order. This barbarous practice, originally resorted to by the Lancastrians, was afterwards continued by both parties, under the plea of retaliation.

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SECOND BATTLE OF ST. ALBAN'S.

QUEEN MARGARET compensated for the defeat at Mortimer's Cross, by a victory which she obtained over the Earl of Warwick at St. Alban's. This was owing to the treachery of Lovelace, the commander of a considerable body of Yorkists,

who, while the armies were warmly engaged, withdrew from the combat. The King again fell into the hands of his own party; and Lord Bonville, to whose care he had been entrusted by the Yorkists, remained with him, upon assurances of pardon given him by Henry: but Margaret, regardless of her husband's promise, ordered that nobleman to be immediately beheaded.



EDWARD THE FOURTH ASSUMES THE CROWN.

QUEEN MARGARET derived no great advantage from the victory at St. Alban's: for she found it necessary to retreat with her army to the north. Meanwhile, Edward, the new Duke of York, entered the capital; and confiding in the attachment strongly manifested towards him by the people, he insisted openly on his claim, and at once assumed the name and dignity of King. The consent of the nation, or the appearance of it, was still wanting: but as the convocation of a parliament might be attended with too many delays, he ventured to substitute a less regular measure. He directed his army to assemble in St. John's Fields: great numbers of people also attended: and to this mixed multitude an harangue was made, setting forth the pretensions of Edward, and inveighing against the usurpation and tyranny of the Lancastrians. The people were then asked, whether they would have Henry of Lancaster for their King, or Edward eldest son of the Duke of York? They decided in favour of Edward with loud acclamations. A number of bishops, lords, magistrates, and other persons of distinction, were next assembled, who ratified the popular election; and the new King was proclaimed the next day, by the title of Edward the Fourth.

EDWARD THE FOURTH.

THIS Prince, who was only in his twentieth year when he ascended the throne, was remarkable for the beauty of his person; for his bravery, activity, condescension, and every other popular quality; and was of a temper well fitted to make his way through a scene of war, havoc, and devastation: his hardness of heart, and sanguinary spirit, rendered him impregnable to the influence of compassion, whenever the chances of war enabled him to send a noble antagonist to the scaffold, or to consign a multitude of captive enemies to the sword. Though a slave to sensual pleasures, he could be cruel when cruelty wanted even the instigation of revenge, of which he gave a remarkable instance in the commencement of his reign. A tradesman of London, who lived at the sign of The Crown, having said that he would make his son heir to the Crown, was condemned and executed for this harmless pleasantry, because it was interpreted to have been spoken in derision of Edward's title.



BATTLE OF TOUTON.

UPON the accession of Edward to the crown, Margaret had retreated to the north, where her partisans were numerous; and in a few days had assembled an army of 60,000 men. The new King, and the Earl of Warwick, with 40,000 men, hastened to check her progress. A skirmish took place at Ferrybridge, between Lords Fitzwalter and Clifford, in which the Yorkists were defeated, and Lord Fitzwalter slain. Lord Falconberg, however, recovered the post, and Clifford fell in its defence. A pitched battle followed at Touton, which was both fierce and bloody. Whilst the Yorkists were advancing to the charge, there happened a great fall of snow; which driving full in the faces of their enemies, blinded them. Falconberg ordered his

infantry to advance, to discharge their arrows, and immediately retire: the Lancastrians, therefore, imagining they were come up with the enemy, discharged their arrows, which thus fell short of the mark. After the quivers of his antagonists had been emptied, Edward advanced his line, and fell upon them sword in hand. The Yorkists gained a decisive victory; and Edward issued orders to give no quarter. The routed army was pursued to Tadcaster; and it is said that above 36,000 men fell in the battle and in the pursuit.

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BATTLE OF HEXHAM.

AFTER the battle of Toton, Henry and Margaret fled to Scotland, which country was in little less confusion than that which they had just quitted. James II., anxious to recover some of those places that had formerly been wrested from his ancestors by the English, laid siege to Roxborough Castle, and was killed by the bursting of one of his cannons, as he was firing it. The Scottish Council were not at first very eager to interfere in the quarrel of the English Roses; but on Margaret's offering to give up to them the important fortress of Berwick, and to contract her son in marriage with the sister of King James, the Scots promised to assist her in endeavouring to reinstate her family on the throne. Edward in the mean time called a parliament, and found the good effects of his vigorous measures in assuming the crown, which had received additional strength from the victory at Toton.

In this parliament the title of Edward by hereditary right was recognized: the members expressed their abhorrence of the usurpation of the House of Lancaster; passed an act of attainder against Henry VI., Margaret his queen, and their infant son Prince Edward, and also against most of the nobility of their party, whose estates they gave to the crown. Martial

law was also introduced in several cases which belonged to a civil tribunal; and several adherents of the deposed family were tried before the Constable, condemned, and executed.

Meanwhile Lewis XI. King of France, whose military resources were impaired by the turbulence of his own vassals, sent over a small body of forces, under the command of Varenne, to assist the desperate cause of Henry; but on Margaret's going in person to the French court, and promising to deliver up Calais if her family recovered the throne by the aid of Lewis, he was induced to send to England with her a body of 2,000 men at arms; which enabled her once more to take the field. She was further strengthened by a numerous train of adventurers from Scotland, and by many partisans of the house of Lancaster. On advancing with her army, she was met at Hedgeley-Moor by Lord Montacute, brother to the Earl of Warwick, and received a severe check. He again attacked her at Hexham, where she was completely defeated. All the nobles of her party who survived the unfortunate conflict suffered on the scaffold; the Yorkists always acting after victory as if their object was the utter extermination of their adversaries.

PLATE XX.

EDWARD THE FOURTH.

Fig. 1.—QUEEN MARGARET AND THE ROBBER.

Fig. 2.—MARRIAGE OF EDWARD WITH LADY ELIZABETH GRAY.

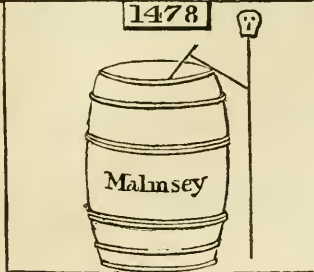
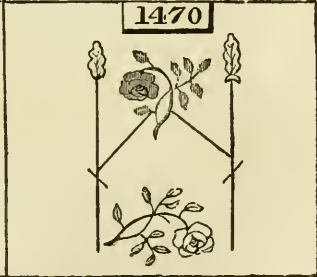
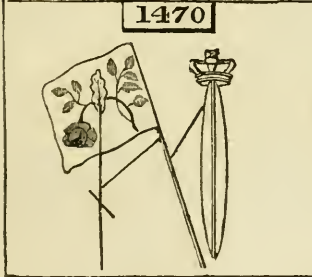
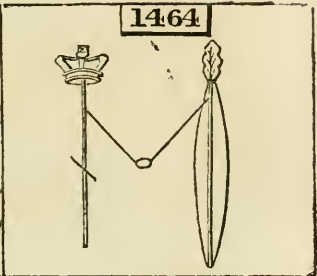
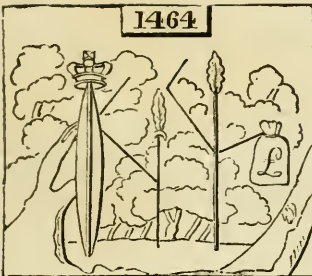
Fig. 3.—TREATY BETWEEN WARWICK AND MARGARET.

Warwick receiving the Lancastrian standard from the hands of Margaret.

Fig. 4.—THE RESTORATION OF HENRY.

Clarence and Warwick are represented exalting the red rose, to shew their instrumentality in restoring Henry. The symbol of York is depicted as fallen, to denote the expulsion of Edward.

Fig. 5.—DEATH OF THE DUKE OF CLARENCE.



QUEEN MARGARET AND THE ROBBER.

AFTER the defeat of the Lancastrians at Hexham, Queen Margaret with her son took refuge in a forest, in the hope of concealing herself from the pursuit of her enemies: but her ill fortune still pursued her. In the darkness of the night she was attacked by banditti, who despoiled her of all her jewels, and, ignorant or heedless of her rank, even treated her with indignity. The division of their spoil occasioned a contest among them, and Margaret eagerly seized that opportunity to escape. She fled with her son into the depths of the forest, where she remained some time, exhausted with hunger and fatigue, and depressed by affliction and terror. In this deplorable situation she was met by another robber; and, finding herself driven to the last extremity, she determined to discover her rank, and thus throw herself on his generosity. Advancing towards him with an undaunted air, and leading the young Edward, she presented him to the robber, exclaiming, "Behold your Prince! to your care I commit the safety of your King's son." The man, whose humanity had not been entirely eradicated, struck with her manner, and flattered by the confidence reposed in him, vowed to protect and serve her. Assisted by him, she remained some time concealed in the forest; and at length escaped, under his guidance, to the sea-coast, whence she embarked for Flanders. She soon after reached her father's court, and obtained a short respite from misfortune. Her husband remained concealed a twelvemonth in Lancashire; but was at length delivered up to Edward, and thrown into the Tower.



MARRIAGE OF EDWARD WITH LADY ELIZABETH GRAY.

AFTER the victory at Hexham, the expulsion of Queen Margaret, and the imprisonment of Henry, Edward yielded

himself up to all the seductive pleasures which his youth, high fortune, and natural temper, invited him to enjoy. During the present interval of peace, he lived in the most familiar and convivial manner with his subjects, particularly the Londoners, and was the peculiar favourite of the young and gay of both sexes. But the varied amusements in which he mixed did not prevent him from forming an individual attachment, and that under circumstances which affected his public character. Happening one day, after a hunting party, to pay a visit to Jaqueline of Luxembourg, dowager Duchess of Bedford, at Grafton in Northamptonshire, her daughter, the widow of Sir John Gray, who had been slain in the second battle of St. Alban's, took that opportunity of throwing herself at the feet of the young monarch, and of imploring his protection for her impoverished and distressed children. The sight of beauty in distress made a strong impression on the susceptible heart of Edward: he raised the fair suppliant from the ground; and finding that, in addition to beauty of person, graceful manners, and the power of charming in conversation, she had all the dignity of character conferred by virtue, he offered to share with her his heart and throne. The marriage was privately celebrated, and the secret carefully kept for some time.

Whilst this romantic train of events was passing in England, the Earl of Warwick, who had been despatched to Paris by the King himself to make overtures, was negotiating a marriage for Edward with Bona of Savoy, sister to the French Queen: to which step the King had been led by an expectation that it would secure the friendship of the French court, which alone was able, and inclined, to give assistance and support to his rival. The news of Edward's imprudent marriage therefore excited the displeasure and indignation of Warwick, who returned to England burning with resentment. Edward's reception of him widened the breach; and the new Queen, whose influence over the King was not lessened by their marriage, still

farther irritated the haughty Earl, by procuring every grace and favour in the gift of the crown for her own friends and relations, whilst those of Warwick, whom she considered as her inveterate enemy, were excluded.

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TREATY BETWEEN WARWICK AND MARGARET.

THE disgust which Warwick had conceived against Edward continued to rankle in his bosom: he could not suffer with patience the least diminution of that influence he had long enjoyed, and which he thought his important services merited. Notwithstanding he had received, in grants from the crown, an additional revenue of 80,000 crowns a-year, his ambitious spirit was still dissatisfied, whilst he saw others surpass him in authority at court. The nobility, too, envying the sudden greatness of the Woodevilles, took part with Warwick; and an extensive and dangerous conspiracy was insensibly formed against Edward and his ministry. An insurrection broke out in Yorkshire; which, after several accessions of force to the rebels, was followed by an action at Banbury (see *Plate XIX. Fig. 9.*), in which the Lancastrians were victorious. In their alternate successes both parties violated the laws of war, by ordering their prisoners of note to execution like criminals. The Yorkists inflicted summary punishment on Sir Henry Neville; the Lancastrians retaliated upon the Earl of Pembroke; and one of their detachment seized and beheaded the Earl of Rivers and his son. Justice was no more: ambition and revenge gave the impulse to public men, and, like fiends, were only to be satiated by blood! Another insurrection arose in Lancashire, headed by Sir Robert Welles; but the insurgents were defeated by Edward in person. Sir Robert Welles and Sir Thomas Laude were taken prisoners, and immediately beheaded. During these transactions, Edward had entertained so little jealousy of Warwick and Clarence, that he sent them

to levy forces against the rebels: but they enlisted troops in their own name, and issued declarations against the Government. On the defeat of Welles, they fled to France. Warwick was received with great kindness by the French King, who prevailed on him to coalesce with Margaret, and to enter into a confederacy for re-establishing the Lancastrian Line on the English throne. A treaty was accordingly concluded, in which it was stipulated that Prince Edward, Henry's son, should marry Lady Anne, Warwick's second daughter, and that, on failure of male heirs of Henry's line, the crown should descend to the Duke of Clarence, in exclusion of Edward and his posterity. The marriage was immediately celebrated in France; and Warwick became the head of the Lancastrian party.



THE RESTORATION OF HENRY.

WHILST Edward was occupied in quelling an insurrection in the north, Warwick, accompanied by Clarence, Oxford, and Pembroke, landed at Dartmouth. They brought from France only a small body of troops; but such was the popularity of Warwick, that multitudes flocked to his standard, and in a very few days his army amounted to 60,000 men. Edward hastened southward to encounter him. The two armies were approaching each other near Nottingham; and a decisive action was hourly expected. The Marquis of Montague, brother-in-law to Warwick, who served in Edward's army, had concerted a plan for aiding the Lancastrian cause; and accordingly, in the night, he made known his intentions to his men. They readily came into his design, and hastened tumultuously to Edward's quarters. The King, alarmed by the cry of war usually employed by the Lancastrians, had only time to mount on horseback, and hurry with a few followers to Lynn in Norfolk, whence he embarked for the Continent. Thus was the Earl of Warwick left master of the kingdom in eleven days only after

his first landing. King Henry was liberated from the Tower; a Parliament was summoned in his name, and the treaty between Margaret and Warwick ratified. Henry's title was recognized: but as his incapacity for government was avowed, Warwick and Clarence were appointed regents till the majority of Edward, the son of Henry; if the male line of that Prince should fail, Clarence was declared successor to the Crown. All the parliamentary acts under Edward IV. were reversed; that Prince was declared an usurper, and attainders passed against him and his adherents.



BATTLE OF BARNET; AND DEATH OF WARWICK.

THE fugitive Edward had landed at Alkmaer in Holland, in the most destitute condition. His brother-in-law, the Duke of Burgundy, had at first manifested towards him only coolness and neglect; but finding his efforts to conciliate Warwick had not won his friendship, and that his dominions would be endangered by the united arms of England and France, he equipped a small squadron in a covert manner, and delivered them, with a scanty sum of money, to Edward. With this assistance the exiled monarch, impatient to recover his authority, and to take revenge on his enemies, immediately set sail for England. He attempted to land in Norfolk, but was repulsed: on which he sailed northward, and disembarked at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, with his troops, which did not exceed 2,000 men. His standard was soon joined by a considerable number of people; he was admitted into the city of York, and was able to take a formidable attitude. Warwick assembled an army at Leicester, to give him battle; but Edward, by taking another road, passed unmolested, and presented himself before the gates of London. His admission was facilitated by numerous adherents in the city; and the passive Henry once more fell into the hands of his enemies.

Warwick, being reinforced by his son-in-law Clarence, and his brother the Marquis of Montague, took his post at Barnet, in the neighbourhood of London. The arrival of Queen Margaret was every day expected, which would have drawn together all the genuine Lancastrians; but Warwick, who dreaded a participator in his fame and power, determined to try the fate of a battle. Clarence, though bound to Warwick by every tie of honour and interest, in the night-time deserted to Edward, taking with him a body of 12,000 men. On the 14th of April, 1471, the two armies came to action: the conflict was obstinate on both sides, and the victory remained long undecided; at length an accident turned the balance in favour of the Yorkists. The Earl of Oxford, who fought on the side of the Lancastrians, was by mistake attacked by his friends, and chased off the field. The brave Warwick, contrary to his usual custom, fought this day on foot, and with his brother was slain in the engagement. Edward issued orders not to give any quarter, so that a great and undistinguished slaughter was made in the pursuit.

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BATTLE OF TEWKESBURY; MURDER OF PRINCE EDWARD.

ON the very day that the battle of Barnet was fought, Queen Margaret and her son, who was now eighteen years of age, and a youth of great promise, landed at Weymouth, attended by a small body of French forces. When the Queen heard of the captivity of her husband, and the defeat and death of Warwick, her spirit, which had hitherto supported her under reverses, gave way, and she foresaw the irretrievable fall of her house among the consequences of this disastrous event. At first she took sanctuary in the abbey of Beaulieu; but being encouraged by several of the nobility, who joined her with their armed followers, to entertain hopes of a favourable vicissitude, she

determined to defend to the last the ruins of her fallen greatness. She advanced through the counties of Devon, Somerset, and Gloucester, increasing her army on each day's march; but was at last overtaken by Edward, at Tewkesbury. Here the Lancastrians were totally defeated. The Duke of Somerset, and about twenty other persons of distinction, took shelter in a church, whence they were dragged out, and immediately beheaded.

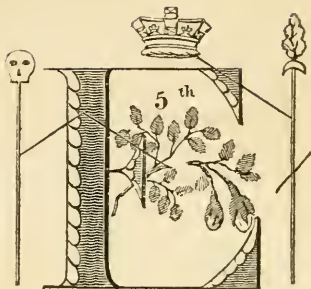
Queen Margaret and her son were taken prisoners, and brought before the King; who tauntingly asked the Prince, how he dared to invade his dominions? The youth replied, that he came "to claim his just inheritance; to revenge his father's injuries, and redress his own!" The brutal Edward, irritated by this spirited answer, struck him on the face with his gauntlet: the Dukes of Clarence and Gloucester, Lord Hastings, and Sir Thomas Grey, taking the blow as a signal for further violence, hurried the Prince into an adjoining room, and there dispatched him with their daggers. Margaret was thrown into the Tower, where she was detained a prisoner till the year 1475, when she was ransomed by Lewis of France, for the sum of 50,000 crowns. She died in the year 1482. Henry had died in the same state prison, a few days after the battle of Tewkesbury: but whether by a violent or a natural death is uncertain, though it is generally believed he was murdered by the Duke of Gloucester.

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DEATH OF THE DUKE OF CLARENCE.

GEORGE Duke of Clarence was second brother to Edward IV.; and considering himself neglected by him after his marriage with Lady Elizabeth Grey, had joined the Earl of Warwick, whose temporary regency and fall have been related. Warwick, to attach the Duke more firmly to his interest, had given him in marriage his eldest daughter, the co-heiress of his immense for-

tunes. Being disappointed in an insurrection which they had planned in Lincolnshire, they retired to Calais : meanwhile the King offered a reward of £1000 to any person who would seize them. On the eve of the battle of Barnet, however, Clarence abandoned his new friends, and joined the King ; and after the battle of Tewkesbury assisted in the murder of the young Prince Edward of Lancaster. He did not, however, succeed in regaining the friendship of his brother, who still regarded him as a man of dangerous character. Having offended the Queen, and his brother the Duke of Gloucester, a Prince disposed to reach the objects of a wily policy by any sanguinary means, a combination was formed between these potent adversaries to work the destruction of Clarence. Some of his particular friends were upon frivolous charges put to death ; and the Prince loudly exclaimed against the iniquity of their prosecutors. The King, highly offended with the freedom of his speeches, committed him to the Tower. A Parliament was summoned, at which the King personally appeared as his brother's accuser, and pleaded against him : the Duke was condemned, and the only favour allowed him was to choose the mode of his death. He was privately drowned in a butt of malmsey. After the destruction of the Lancastrian party, Edward gave a loose to his passions ; and the remainder of his reign is little else than the history of his amours. Berwick was retaken from the Scots by the Duke of Gloucester, and the King began to think seriously of a French war ; but while he was making preparations, he was seized with a distemper of which he died, in the forty-second year of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign. Besides five daughters, he left two sons : Edward Prince of Wales, his successor, then in his thirteenth year, and Richard Duke of York in his ninth.



1483

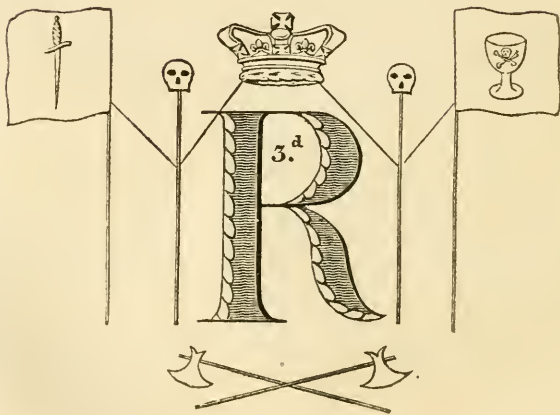


PLATE XXI.

Fig. 1.—EDWARD THE FIFTH.

In the centre of the letter E, the initial of his name, are two white rose-buds, which are separated from the parent branch by the sword of the assassin. On the right hand is the Duke of Gloucester, seizing the crown.

Fig. 2.—RICHARD THE THIRD.

Richard's crown is upheld by assassins, who grasp in one hand standards typical of his crimes. The axes at the bottom refer to his sanguinary executions.

EDWARD THE FIFTH.

DURING the latter years of Edward IV. the kingdom had been agitated by some court intrigues. The Queen's family, the Woodevilles, on account of their great power and unlimited influence, were extremely obnoxious to the old nobility. A combination was formed against them, headed by the Duke of Buckingham, and the Lords Hastings, Howard, and Stanley. The King, in his last illness, was anxious to compose their differences, fearful of the injurious consequences that might ensue during the minority of his son. Having summoned the leaders of the rival parties to his presence, he forcibly represented to them the dangers that would attend a continuance of their animosities; and, under his mediation, they embraced each other with every appearance of cordial reconciliation. He then appointed his brother of Gloucester regent of the kingdom; and committed the care of the Prince of Wales's person, and the superintendance of his education, to the Earl of Rivers, the most accomplished nobleman at that time in England. No sooner had the King expired, than the jealousies and cabals between the two parties was renewed; of which the Duke of Gloucester, who was endued with almost every bad quality, determined to take advantage.

On his return from the North, he arrested the Earl of Rivers, the young King's maternal uncle and guardian: he then met young Edward on his way from Ludlow Castle, and respectfully offered to conduct him to London. Having thus got possession of the person of the King, he took measures for securing that of his brother, whom the Queen, when she heard of the arrest of the Earl of Rivers, had taken for safety to the abbey of Westminster. Cardinal Bouchier and the Archbishop of York had remonstrated against the use of violence: Gloucester therefore sent these prelates to persuade the Queen to comply with a summons for the young Duke of York to attend his brother's coronation. It was long before they could

prevail on her to produce her son; she seemed to presage his unhappy fate; wept over him in an agony of grief; and reluctantly delivering him into their custody, bade him an eternal adieu. The young Princes were sent to the Tower; and Gloucester began to spread reports of their illegitimacy, in order to delay the coronation. Meanwhile he had induced the council to appoint him Protector of the realm.

He attempted to bring over Lord Hastings to his interest; but finding that nobleman firmly fixed in allegiance to the King, he accused him, at the council-board, of witchcraft. On Hastings vindicating himself, Gloucester interrupted him, calling him a traitor; and concluded by saying, "I swear by St. Paul that I will not dine until your head be brought me." He struck the table; armed men rushed in; Hastings was hurried away, and instantly beheaded on a log of wood that lay in the court-yard, on the very same day that Rivers, Gray, and Vaughan, were executed at Pomfret Castle.

Gloucester now judged that he might venture to lay claim to the crown. One Dr. Shaw was employed to make an harangue to the people, from St. Paul's Cross; in which Gloucester was held up as the only genuine descendant of the House of York. It was expected that the congregation would immediately have declared in Richard's favour; but they kept a profound silence. The Duke of Buckingham, who had been won over to the Protector's party, next harangued them, expatiating on the virtues of Richard; but still the people were silent. At length the Recorder repeated the substance of the Duke's speech; and a few of Buckingham's servants exclaimed, "Long live King Richard!" Some apprentices among the populace echoed the cry; and this was considered as the voice of the nation. When the crown was presented to Gloucester, by Buckingham, he affected to decline the honour; but on being told, that if he refused it they would seek some person less scrupulous, he

condescended to accept it. This solemn farce was acted on the 25th of June 1483; and from that time Richard assumed the style and title of "King."

To secure his ill-gotten power, he determined on the destruction of his nephews. Sir Robert Brakenbury, constable of the Tower, refused to have any hand in the infamous transaction; but a fit instrument was not long wanting, and Sir James Tyrrel effected the murder of the innocent youths. In the dead of the night they were suffocated, whilst asleep; and the assassins buried their bodies under a heap of stones, at the foot of the staircase leading to their apartment. Their remains were discovered in the reign of Charles II., and were interred under a marble monument in Westminster Abbey.

DEFINITIONS.

Westminster Abbey.—A magnificent Gothic church, on the north side of the Thames, supposed to have been founded by Sebert King of the East Saxons, about the beginning of the seventh century. Many of our Sovereigns are buried there; and it is particularly noted for the number of splendid monuments erected there, to the memory of departed statesmen, heroes, poets, and philosophers, &c.

Recorder.—An officer who keeps the rolls or records of a city.

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RICHARD THE THIRD.

RICHARD III., the most cruel and unrelenting tyrant that ever sat on the English throne, was small of stature, and of a dark, severe, and forbidding aspect: he acquired the surname of *Crookback* from the deformity of his person. His ruling passion was ambition, for the gratification of which he scrupled not to violate every law both human and divine; and was resolved to ascend to the throne, though every step should be imprinted in blood. He was not destitute of talents for government; and had his title to the crown been legal, he might

have acquired the character of a good king. He passed some popular laws; and administered justice with impartiality when it did not interfere with his ambition.

Richard had not long been seated upon the throne, when mutual disgust arose between him and the Duke of Buckingham, who thought he could never be sufficiently rewarded for having placed him on the throne. Buckingham conspired against Richard, with the remains of the Lancastrian party, and with such of the Yorkists as were desirous of avenging the murdered Princes. His object was to transfer the crown to Henry, Earl of Richmond: and, with the approbation of the Queen-dowager, he entered into a secret treaty with that nobleman, who resided at the court of Brittany; under which Richmond contracted to marry Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. This match was calculated, by uniting distinct branches of the Roses, to strengthen the pretensions of Richmond, to allay the animosities of party, and to obviate disputes in future respecting the succession. The Queen-dowager also sent Richmond a sum of money, to levy a force to be brought to England; and she and Buckingham promised to co-operate with their partisans.

Meanwhile Richard had obtained some obscure intelligence that an extended plot was forming against him, and prepared to act with vigour. Suspecting that Buckingham, who had retired from court in disgust, was connected with it, he sent a message to him, professing that he had occasion to consult him on some affairs of consequence: but Buckingham excused himself upon pretence of indisposition. Richard, who was not to be deceived by this evasion, sent a peremptory summons; to which the Duke replied, "That he did not chuse to risk his person with his most inveterate enemy." Sensible that he had now no middle course, Buckingham assembled his troops. He advanced by long marches towards the Severn;

on his way to join his confederates in the counties of Devon and Dorset; but that and the other rivers, swelled by rains, had inundated the whole adjacent country. For six days, he could neither pass the stream, nor find subsistence for his followers. His Welch forces, dispirited by the want of provisions, and overcome by fatigue, retired to their mountains. So general was this desertion, that Buckingham was left with a single domestic. In this exigence, he sought shelter in the house of one Bannister, who had formerly lived in his service, and who owed all he had to the bounty of the Duke and his father. Richard, informed of the dispersion of his enemies, offered a thousand pounds for the head of Buckingham: to obtain which reward the ungrateful Bannister betrayed his master. Buckingham was taken, disguised as a peasant, and sent to Shrewsbury; where he was beheaded by Richard's order, without any form of trial. Meanwhile the Earl of Richmond set sail from St. Maloes: but receiving intelligence of the fate of Buckingham, he returned to Brittany.

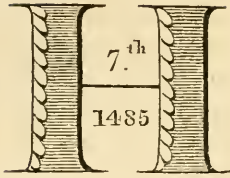
Richard, emboldened by the ill success of his enemies, summoned a parliament; in which his right to the throne was acknowledged. The children of Edward IV. were declared illegitimate; an act of attainder was passed against the Earl of Richmond and his adherents; the duties of tonnage and poundage were granted to the King for life; and his only son, Edward, then about twelve years of age, was created Prince of Wales. The Prince died soon afterwards, and his mother did not long survive him. She was the daughter of the Earl of Warwick, and the widow of Prince Edward, whom Richard had murdered. It is said by some authors that she was poisoned by Richard; and others affirm that she died of a broken heart, in consequence of his cruel treatment.

Richard now paid great court to the Queen-dowager; who, tired of her retirement, gave ear to his blandishments, and put

herself and her daughters into his hands. Knowing that the projected match between Richmond and the Princess Elizabeth could alone make his rival formidable to him, Richard resolved to obtain a dispensation from the Pope for marrying the Princess himself. It is affirmed that the Queen-dowager assented to this project; but her daughter constantly rejected it with horror. The sudden descent of Richmond in Wales disconcerted this plan.

After his first abortive expedition, Richmond and the other English exiles had left Brittany, and taken refuge at the court of France. The countenance and protection of Charles VIII. enabled him to sail from Harfleur with a small armament of about 2,000 men. On the seventh of August, 1485, he landed at Milford Haven: the Welch were prepossessed in his favour; and as he advanced towards Shrewsbury, he daily received reinforcements. Richard, at the head of his army, met his rival at Bosworth, near Leicester. On this field a decisive battle (See *Plate XIX. Fig. 12.*), the last that was fought in the quarrel of the Roses, took place on the twenty-second of August. Henry was at the head of 6,000 men: Richard had an army above double that number; but he could not depend on their fidelity. When he had empowered Lord Stanley to levy forces, he detained his eldest son, Lord Strange, as a pledge for his fidelity; and that nobleman was therefore obliged to employ great caution and reserve in his proceedings. He made such a disposition of his forces, which amounted to 7,000 men, as might enable him on occasion to join either party. Soon after the battle began, he declared for Richmond; and this measure, which was unexpected to the men, though not to their leaders, inspired Henry's soldiers with additional courage, whilst it infused proportional dismay and confusion among those of Richard. Sensible of his desperate situation, he eagerly sought out his rival, in hopes that either Henry's

death or his own would promptly decide the victory. He killed with his own hands Sir William Brandon, standard-bearer to the Earl : he dismounted Sir John Cheyney : he was now within reach of Richmond himself, who declined not the combat ; when Sir William Stanley broke in with his troops, and surrounded Richard, who fell oppressed with numbers, but fighting bravely to the last. About 4,000 of the vanquished perished in the engagement. The body of Richard was found, after the battle, beneath heaps of slain : it was thrown carelessly across a horse, and carried to Leicester, amidst the shouts of the insulting spectators ; and buried in the church of the Grey-Friars, at that place.



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|-------------|-------------|-------------------------|
| <p>1485</p> | <p>1486</p> | <p>1488</p> |
| <p>1492</p> | <p>1496</p> | <p>1501</p> <p>1503</p> |

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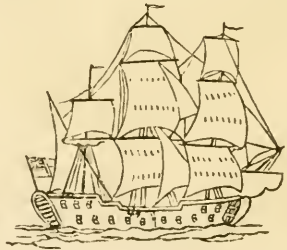
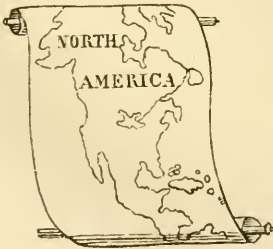


PLATE XXII.

HENRY THE SEVENTH.

Fig. 1.—MARRIAGE OF HENRY OF LANCASTER WITH ELIZABETH OF YORK.

The red and the white rose proceeding from different stems, in connexion with the Crown, shew the union of the York and Lancastrian families. The King typifies the marriage.

Fig. 2.—LAMBERT SIMNEL.

Simnel is holding the standard of insurrection. The falcon in his left hand shews his ultimate condition in life.

Fig. 3.—INSURRECTION OF SIR THOMAS EGREMOND.

Fig. 4.—INVASION OF FRANCE.

Fig. 5.—PERKIN WARBECK.

James IV. of Scotland giving Lady Catherine Gordon in marriage to Perkin Warbeck; who, on account of his being the son of a Jew, is distinguished by the Hebrew letter Aleph.

Fig. 6.—MARRIAGE OF PRINCE ARTHUR WITH CATHARINE OF ARRAGON, AND OF THE PRINCESS MARGARET WITH THE SCOTTISH KING.

Fig. 7.—DISCOVERY OF AMERICA; AND THE BUILDING OF THE GREAT HARRY.

HENRY THE SEVENTH.

HENRY VII. is represented to have been tall and well made, of a grave aspect, serious in demeanour, and plain in his dress. The caution of his character and narrowness of his heart made him reserved in conversation, unless he chose to assume an insinuating manner to carry some favourite object. He was endowed with a fund of natural sagacity, which was heightened and improved by study and experience. He had great personal bravery and political courage. Some remarkable statutes passed in his reign shew him to have been a good legislator; although several branches of political economy are now better understood. He possessed, in a peculiar manner, the art of turning all domestic troubles and foreign disputes to his own advantage. His accession had happily terminated the civil wars; and while he maintained peace at home, he, by judicious alliances and embassies, rather than by military demonstrations or great achievements abroad, acquired the friendship of some foreign Princes, and the consideration and regard of all. It was his policy to depress the nobility, and to check their insolent and factious spirit; which he effected partly by a law prohibiting them from engaging retainers, and partly by a statute permitting them to alienate their estates: at the same time he raised the people to plenty and independence, by the administration of just laws, and by encouraging trade and commerce. Although avarice has been attributed to him as his ruling passion, he at times lent large sums of money, without interest, to those merchants whose stock he knew to be not sufficient for the enterprize they had in view. The great blemish of his character and reign was his animosity toward the Yorkists, and the train of unjust pretences under which he imprisoned and destroyed the last male of the Plantagenet line. He may be termed the founder of the English navy, as consisting of ships set apart for warlike purposes; and he had some share in promoting the

great naval discoveries which distinguished the age in which he reigned.

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MARRIAGE OF HENRY OF LANCASTER WITH ELIZABETH OF YORK.

AFTER the battle of Bosworth, Richard's crown having been found on the field, was placed on the head of the conqueror; the whole army exclaiming, as if by a common impulse, "Long live King Henry!" His first act of power was to order the young Earl of Warwick* to be imprisoned in the Tower; and the Princess Elizabeth, who had been placed there by Richard III., to be set at liberty. He then proceeded to London, where he was received by the people with loud and sincere expressions of joy: but his coronation was delayed for a few weeks by a dreadful malady, called the sweating-sickness, which at that time raged with great violence in the metropolis as well as other parts of the kingdom. He was crowned on the 30th of October 1485; when, to add splendour to the scene, he instituted a body of fifty archers, who were termed Yeomen of the Guard. Henry's design was to be acknowledged king in his own right; for which reason he postponed his marriage with the Princess Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV.; and previously assembled a Parliament, which entailed the crown upon him, and reversed the attainders against the Lancastrians. He even procured a bull from the Pope, confirming his title. Although he instigated the Parliament to attain the late King, and about twenty noblemen and gentlemen who had fought on his side, he proclaimed an amnesty to such of the common people as had borne arms for Richard, on their submitting and taking the oath of allegiance. After these preliminary measures, he ful-

* The young Earl of Warwick was the son of the unfortunate Duke of Clarence, who was drowned by order of Edward IV.

filled his engagements with the Princess Elizabeth. The wedding was solemnized on the 18th of January 1486, with great pomp; and as this step promised to harmonize the conflicting interests of the Roses, it was hailed by the people with unbounded rapture: but Henry, attributing expressions of joy surpassing those manifested at his coronation to a latent preference for the House of York, was greatly displeased; and the suspicions arising from it not only disturbed the tranquillity of his reign, but generated a disgust towards the Queen which embittered all his domestic enjoyments. Elizabeth was virtuous, amiable, and submissive to the caprices of his temper; yet she never won a proper return of affection from her husband; for the malignancy of faction had seized upon his heart, and checked all the sentiments of conjugal affection.

Shortly after his marriage, Henry resolved to take a journey into the North. On his way thither, he received intelligence of an insurrection against him, headed by Viscount Lovel, Sir Humphrey Stafford, and his brother Thomas Stafford. When Henry had arrived at York, one army of the insurgents was marching to besiege the city of Worcester, and the other, under Lovel, was proceeding to attack the King. Henry assembled a small body of troops in whom he could confide, and put them under the command of the Duke of Bedford; but he instructed the Duke not to approach the rebels, but to offer them a pardon if they would return to their allegiance. Lovel, fearful of being deserted, withdrew into Flanders; and his troops submitted to the King's clemency. Sir Henry Stafford, who had besieged Worcester, was taken and hanged, but his brother was pardoned.

Soon after this success, Henry was gratified by the birth of a son, whom he named Arthur, in commemoration of the celebrated British King of that name. Though this event was highly pleasing to the nation, yet the King had lost much of his popularity by the severity exercised against the Earl of

Warwick. On the other hand, the youth and innocence of that nobleman excited compassion, which, with the place of his confinement, occasioned a comparison to be made between the detested Richard and his successor. Whilst the high idea entertained by the nobility of Henry's policy and vigour retained them in obedience, extraordinary incidents indicated the growing unpopularity of the King.

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LAMBERT SIMNEL.

A REPORT had been spread among the people, and received with great avidity, that Richard Duke of York, second son of Edward IV., had escaped the cruelty of his uncle Richard, and was somewhere concealed in England. On this, one Simon, a priest of Oxford, who was watching for some opportunity to disturb Henry's government, secretly instructed Lambert Simnel, a youth of fifteen years of age, the son of a baker, to assume the name of Richard Duke of York: but before he began to act on this imposture, a second rumour was afloat, that the young Earl of Warwick had made his escape from the Tower, and was preparing to head an insurrection. The satisfaction with which this news was received by the public, induced Simon to alter his plan; and his pupil, already furnished with domestic anecdotes of the Royal family, was tutored to personate the Earl of Warwick. As the contriver of the imposture knew that it would not bear a close examination, and as the people of Ireland were greatly attached to the House of York, he made that country the first scene of the enterprize. Simnel no sooner presented himself to the Earl of Kildare, the royal deputy, and claimed his protection as the unfortunate Warwick, than that credulous nobleman, not suspecting so bold an imposture, began to consult other persons of rank with regard to this extraordinary incident. The ready belief of these dispelled his hesitation. The Viceregal Council

had been left by Henry as it had been nominated by his predecessors; hence the deputy and other great officers zealously embarked in the cause of a Plantagenet. As the story spread, all ranks imbibed the delusion. The pretended prince was lodged in the Castle of Dublin; the inhabitants rendered him their spontaneous allegiance: he was crowned with a diadem taken from a statue of the Virgin, and proclaimed King, by the title of Edward VI.

Henry was in some perplexity when he first received this intelligence; he suspected the Queen-dowager to be deeply implicated in the plot, and in consequence placed her under close restraint in a nunnery at Bermondsey, at the same time confiscating all her lands and revenues. The Queen in vain remonstrated: she remained in close confinement till the time of her death, which happened some years after.

He next ordered that Warwick should be taken from the Tower, and led through the principal streets of London: after which he had him conducted to St. Paul's Cross, where great numbers of people assembled to see him.

Meanwhile the people of Dublin supported the dignity of their pretended monarch; and he was crowned with great solemnity by the Earl of Kildare, the Chancellor, and other officers of state. Encouraged by this success, Simnel prepared to invade England with a body of troops under the command of the Earl of Lincoln* and the Earl of Kildare. He was further

* The son of John de la Pole Duke of Suffolk and of Elizabeth eldest sister to Edward IV. Richard had formed a design, in case he should die without issue, of declaring Lincoln successor to the Crown. Henry's jealousy against all eminent persons of the House of York, and his rigorous treatment of Warwick, filled Lincoln with apprehensions, and induced him to seek for safety in the most dangerous counsel. Having concerted a secret correspondence with Sir Thomas

strengthened with 2,000 German veterans, furnished him by the Duchess of Burgundy. With these forces, he landed in Lancashire; whence he marched to York, expecting to be joined by a popular insurrection: but in this he was disappointed. The people in general were convinced of Simnel's imposture; and the disaffected were awed by Henry's military reputation. The invaders were met by the royal army at Stoke, in the county of Nottingham; and an obstinate engagement ensued, in which Henry was victorious. Four thousand men fell in the action, together with Lord Kildare, the Earl of Lincoln, and Martin Swart, the leader of the Germans. King Simnel, and his tutor Simon, were taken prisoners: the latter was committed to close confinement; but Simnel, too contemptible to be an object of apprehension, was pardoned, and made a scullion in the King's kitchen: he was afterwards advanced to the rank of falconer; in which employment he died.



INSURRECTION OF SIR THOMAS EGREMOND.

IN punishing those who had assisted the rebels, Henry made his revenge subservient to his avarice. Heavy fines were levied upon the delinquents. On his return from the North, he determined to gratify the wishes of the people, in having the Queen's coronation performed; a ceremony which tended greatly to tranquillize them, for much of the public discontent had arisen from its being so long delayed. He also restored the Marquis of Dorset to his liberty; of which he had some time before deprived him, from an apprehension that he would resent the ill-treatment of the Queen-dowager.

Meanwhile the French Court had nearly completed the subjugation of Brittany. Though the King had not opposed the

Broughton, he retired to Flanders, and resided some time with his aunt the Duchess of Burgundy.

plans and progress of the French with sufficient vigour and precaution, and was determined to maintain a pacific conduct, yet knowing the warlike temper of his subjects, and that their ancient animosity against France was revived by the prospect of this great accession to her power, he resolved to derive advantage from this disposition, and to obtain some supplies from the people, under pretence of giving assistance to the Duke of Brittany. Parliament granted him a considerable subsidy for that service. But the levying of this tax involved Henry in new troubles at home. The counties of Durham and York had always been averse from his government, and were extremely enraged at the oppressions under which they had laboured after the extinction of Simnel's rebellion. They opposed the commissioners sent by the King, and murdered the Duke of Northumberland, who came to support their authority. After these acts of violence, they grew desperate; and putting themselves under the command of Sir John Egremont, they determined to resist the royal power: but this precipitate enterprize was undertaken by a crowd imperfectly armed, without any assistance in reserve. Henry promptly levied a considerable force, which he put under the command of the Earl of Surrey, by whom the rebels were quickly defeated. John Achamber, one of their leaders, was made prisoner, and executed with some accomplices. Sir John Egremont escaped to Burgundy.

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INVASION OF FRANCE.

THE great fiefs of Normandy, Champagne, Anjou, Dauphiny, Guienne, Provence, and Burgundy, had been united to the Crown of France in the reigns of Charles VII. and his son Lewis XI. During the minority of Charles VIII. the regency was entrusted to his sister Anne, Lady of Beaujeu, a woman of great spirit and capacity, who formed the bold project of uniting Brittany also to the dominion of France.

The Bretons, disgusted with the weakness of their sovereign Francis II., and the insolence of his minister, Peter Landais, seized the latter, and put him to death. The French regent, Anne, taking advantage of the dissensions in that duchy, entered into a secret agreement with the discontented Bretons, to assist them against their Prince. The auxiliary force was treble that stipulated by the insurgents; and when it had penetrated into the heart of Brittany, the revolting Barons and misguided people saw too late that they had betrayed their country into the hands of a powerful and intriguing enemy. In vain they endeavoured to repair the ruin by returning to their allegiance; in vain they implored the assistance of the English King. The Lady of Beaujeu sent an embassy to England; and the vigilance and penetration of Henry were eluded by the dissimulation of the French Court. In 1488, Francis Duke of Brittany died; and was succeeded in the government by his eldest daughter Anne. Henry then sent a body of 6,000 men to the assistance of the young Duchess: they were at first successful, but the distracted state of the counsels of Brittany induced the troops to return as soon as the time of their service, which was only ten months, had elapsed. Brittany was shortly after united to France, by the marriage of the Duchess with the young King, Charles VIII.

Henry once more resolved on an invasion of France; and issued a commission for levying a benevolence on his people, a species of taxation that had been abolished by an act of Richard III. The nobility were eager for military glory; and many of them borrowed large sums of money, or sold their manors, that they might appear in the field with greater splendour.

The King landed at Calais, on Oct. 4th, 1492, with an army of 25,000 foot and 1,600 cavalry. He then marched into the enemy's country, and laid siege to Boulogne; but a peace was shortly after concluded; by which Charles engaged to pay Henry 745,000 crowns, nearly £400,000 sterling of our present

money; partly as a reimbursement of the sums advanced to Brittany, and partly as the arrears of the pension due to Edward IV. On a separate ground, he stipulated to pay Henry and his heirs a pension of 25,000 crowns.

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PERKIN WARBECK.

AFTER concluding a peace with France, Henry had reason to hope for the enjoyment of tranquillity: his domestic authority was fully established; his reputation for policy and conduct was daily extending; his treasures had increased even from the most unfavourable events; and the hopes of all pretenders to his throne were cut off by his marriage, and by the birth of a son. But the Duchess of Burgundy,* rather irritated than discouraged by past disappointments, determined at least to disturb the government she was unable to overthrow.

She first spread a report, that her nephew the Duke of York, who was said to have been murdered in the Tower, had escaped and was still alive. Finding this rumour greedily received, she was not long in finding a young man proper to personate that unfortunate Prince.

There was a youth of the name of Perkin Warbeck, the son of a renegado Jew, whose person bore a strong resemblance to Edward IV. This being reported to the Duchess, she deemed him a fit instrument for the prosecution of her schemes. The beauty of his person, the gracefulness of his actions, his lively and ready wit, filled her with admiration, and seemed to promise success. His manners were so easy, and his conversation so elegant, that he easily imposed upon all those who were not privy to the imposture. Like Simnel, he made his first appearance in Ireland; and taking the name of Richard Plant-

* She was sister to Edward IV., and had been married to the Duke of Burgundy in 1468.

tagenet, he was immediately supported by a great number of credulous people. He wrote letters to the Earls of Desmond and Kildare, inviting them to join his party: he every where dispersed intelligence of his wonderful escape from the cruelty of his uncle Richard; and soon became the subject of general conversation. The French King, ever disposed to interrupt the peace of England, sent Perkin an invitation to repair to Paris; received him as the Duke of York, and settled on him a handsome pension, assigning him magnificent lodgings, and giving him a guard of honour for his protection. Perkin, by his courteous behaviour, increased the admiration of his partisans; and the whole kingdom resounded with the praises of the accomplished and unfortunate Plantagenet, so that he began to entertain the most sanguine hopes of success. All who were disgusted with the King prepared to join Perkin, particularly Henry's former favourites, who thought their services in raising him to the throne not sufficiently recompensed. Their attempts were however frustrated; and many of the conspirators of note suffered by the hands of the executioner. Lord Stanley was tried on a charge of implication in their projects; and being found guilty, was put to death. The fate of this nobleman made a great impression on the people, and struck all the partisans of Perkin with the deepest dismay. The desertion of Lord Clifford from their party, who had betrayed their plans to the King, and revealed to him all the particulars of Perkin's former life and connexions, filled them with mutual distrust; confidence was destroyed, and men became suspicious even of their intimate friends and acquaintance. Finding it fruitless to attempt any thing in England, Perkin repaired to the court of James IV. of Scotland: he was received by the King with the greatest cordiality; who carried his friendship so far as to give him in marriage the daughter of the Earl of Huntley, a near relation of his own. He even attempted to set him on the throne of England; but not meeting with the success he expected, he retreat-

ed into his own country. A peace was soon after concluded between the two kingdoms; and Perkin was obliged to leave Scotland. Born in England, though of Flemish extraction, it was doubtful whether he would be received in the Low Countries, according to the terms of the treaty. He therefore took shelter for a time in the wilds and fastnesses of Ireland; whence he embarked for Cornwall. No sooner did he raise his standard at Bodmin, than three thousand of the populace joined him. Elated with this promise of success, he assumed the appellation of Richard IV. of England, and laid siege to Exeter. Almost all the local forces, influenced by the neighbouring nobility and gentry, hastened to oppose him. Henry was preparing to follow with a considerable army: when Perkin, alarmed at the formidable and increasing number of his opponents, raised the siege, and retired to Taunton; although his army then amounted to 7,000 men. Despairing of success, he retired to the sanctuary of Beaulieu, in the New Forest. The Cornish rebels submitted, and a second time experienced the King's mercy.* Lady Catherine Gordon, wife to Perkin, was taken, and treated with great kindness by Henry. He soothed her mind with many marks of regard, placed her in an honourable situation about the Queen, and assigned her a pension, which she enjoyed even under his successor.

Perkin having taken sanctuary, Henry deliberated for some time in what manner to get possession of his person. At length Perkin was persuaded to surrender himself into the King's hands, under a promise of pardon. He was conducted in a kind of mock triumph through the streets of London; and as the history of his real parentage was now generally known, he was treated with derision by the people. Though his life

* An insurrection of the Cornish men had lately been suppressed: they were defeated by the King at the battle of Blackheath. The ringleaders were put to death, but the people were pardoned.

was granted him, he was still retained in custody : but he broke from his keepers, and flew to the sanctuary of Shyne : he was however again pardoned, after being put in the stocks, and obliged to read aloud to the people the confession which had formerly been published in his name. He was then confined in the Tower. Here his restless spirit of intrigue followed him ; and having found means to open a correspondence with the Earl of Warwick, a conspiracy was formed, of which the first object was the murder of the lieutenant : but this contrivance being discovered, Perkin was put to death.

The unfortunate Earl of Warwick was executed a short time afterwards. The conduct of Henry towards this unhappy youth is the deepest blemish of his reign, and occasioned much discontent among the people.

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MARRIAGE OF PRINCE ARTHUR WITH CATHARINE OF ARRAGON, AND OF THE PRINCESS MARGARET WITH THE SCOTTISH KING.

THE Infanta Catharine of Arragon was the fourth daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, sovereigns of Castile and Arragon, and had long been contracted to Arthur Prince of Wales, Henry's eldest son. Their marriage took place, Nov. 12, 1503; but proved unfortunate, the Prince dying a few months after, much regretted by the whole nation. The King, desirous to continue his alliance with Spain, procured a dispensation from the Pope, and married the Infanta to his second son, Henry, then in his twelfth year; an event which was afterwards productive of the most important consequences. In 1513 he gave Margaret his eldest daughter in marriage to James, King of Scotland: by this compact, Henry hoped to remove every source of discord with that neighbouring kingdom, by whose animosity England had so often suffered.

This same year the Queen died. The situation of the King's affairs, both abroad and at home, was extremely fortunate;

his alliance was courted by all the Princes of Europe; and the prudence and vigour of his domestic administration had reduced the people to entire submission and obedience. His rigid economy in the decline of life, degenerated into avarice; and his two ministers, Empson and Dudley, were guilty of many acts of extortion. Henry, however, hoarded for the public; and it is said, that at his death he possessed, in ready money, the sum of £1,800,000; a treasure almost incredible, considering the scarcity of money in those times.

Henry died of a consumption at Richmond, A. D. 1509, in the fifty-second year of his age, after a reign of twenty-three years and eight months.

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DISCOVERY OF AMERICA; AND THE BUILDING OF THE GREAT HARRY.

It was during this reign that the celebrated navigator, Christopher Columbus, first discovered the Western hemisphere. Bartholomew, his brother, came to London, in order to solicit the protection and support of Henry in his projected discoveries; the King in consequence invited Columbus over to England: but Bartholomew being taken prisoner and detained on his voyage, his brother meanwhile obtained the patronage of Isabella of Castile, who supplied him with a small fleet. He set sail August 3d, 1492; and in less than nine weeks the sanguine expectations of this bold and intrepid projector were happily crowned with success. In 1498, Henry engaged Sebastian Cabot, a Venetian settled in Bristol, to undertake a voyage Westward. Cabot discovered a section of the main land of North America, commencing at the 60th degree of northern latitude, together with Newfoundland and other islands, but returned without making any conquest or settlement.

In 1509, the King ordered a ship of two decks to be built, which he called the Great Harry. It was of one thousand tons'

burthen, and cost £14,000. Before this time, ships of twenty-four guns were the largest in the service; they were devoid of port-holes, having guns only on the upper deck. The Great Harry was, in fact, the first ship in the English navy; for previous to this, when the King wanted a fleet, he had no other expedient than that of hiring or pressing ships from the merchants.

PLATE XXIII.

HENRY THE EIGHTH.

Fig. 1.—INVASION OF FRANCE AND BATTLE OF THE SPURS.

Fig. 2.—BATTLE OF FLODDEN FIELD.—DEATH OF JAMES THE FOURTH OF SCOTLAND.

Fig. 3.—INTERVIEW OF HENRY AND FRANCIS THE FIRST.

Henry is surrounded by the French nobles, and Francis by those of England.

Fig. 4.—DEATH OF CARDINAL WOLSEY.

The mitre and Cardinal's hat allude to his ecclesiastical dignities; and the College Caps (one inscribed "C. C. C. Oxford," and the other Ipswich), to the Colleges which he founded.

Fig. 5.—DIVORCE OF CATHARINE OF ARRAGON, AND MARRIAGE OF HENRY WITH ANNE BOLEYN.

Fig. 6.—THE REFORMATION.

The bible, resting upon the letter E, shows the stability of the Reformation. Beneath are the Papal Insignia reversed and broken.

Fig. 7.—DEATH OF QUEEN ANNE BOLEYN.—MARRIAGE OF THE KING WITH JANE SEYMOUR.

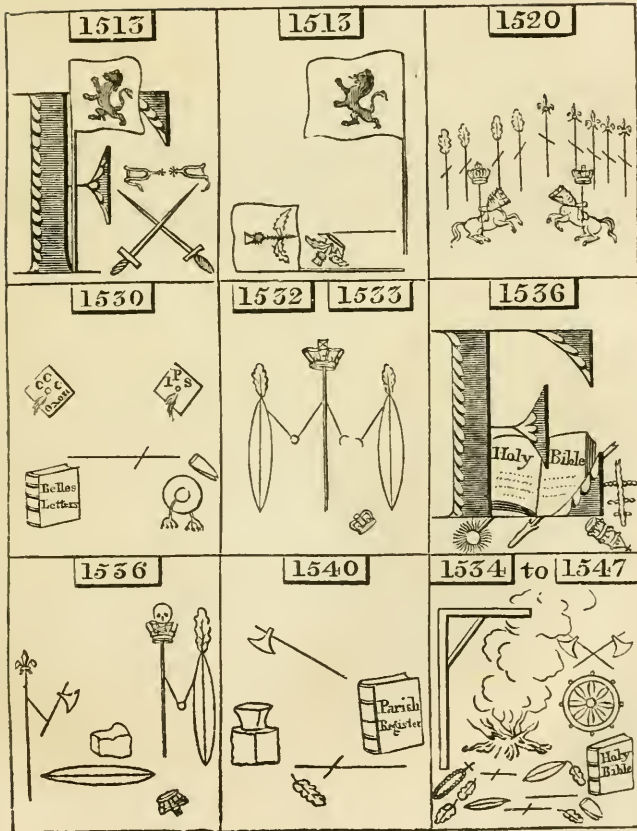
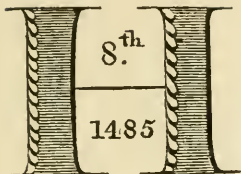
The emblematical personages are explained by the title. The death's head, conspicuous above the crown, alludes to the tyranny and cruelty of Henry.

Fig. 8.—THE DEATH OF THOMAS CROMWELL.

The smith's anvil alludes to his humble origin; and the axe to the manner of his death.

Fig. 9.—PERSECUTIONS.

The gibbet, the fire, the axes, and the wheel, exhibit the different modes of persecution.—The rosary and bible intimate that both Catholics and Protestants were alike victims to Henry's capricious persecutions.





HENRY THE EIGHTH.

HENRY VIII., the sole surviving son of the late King, ascended the throne in the eighteenth year of his age. His countenance was handsome; his person dignified and commanding; he was dexterous in every manly exercise; and had a spirited air. His understanding was naturally good; but his sphere of thinking was cramped by the nature of his studies, which were chiefly confined to gloomy and scholastic disquisitions. The high opinion he entertained of his own talents and acquirements rendered him vain, arrogant, and presumptuous: with vigour of mind he possessed great intrepidity and vigilance, was sincere in the first professions of attachment, and made liberal returns for grateful services; but these popular virtues were eclipsed by his pride and caprice, his violence, injustice, and rapacity, his profusion and fondness for expensive pageants and carousals, his bigotry, and unrelenting cruelty.

The accession of young Henry inspired universal satisfaction, as the rights and pretensions both of the York and Lancastrian Houses were equally centered in him; so that the people naturally expected from a Prince who was obnoxious to no party, a just and impartial administration. Every think seemed to promise Henry a peaceful and happy reign: his kingdom was free from all domestic troubles; his friendship and alliance were courted by the neighbouring potentates; and his treasury, owing to the wise economy of his father, was more than sufficient to answer all reasonable demands. The young King retained such of the old ministers and councillors as were least unpopular; but Empson and Dudley, being particularly obnoxious to the people, were, upon an improbable charge of conspiracy, pronounced guilty by a jury, and put to death.

INVASION OF FRANCE, AND BATTLE OF THE SPURS.

AT this period the balance of power in Europe was such as might have ensured general tranquillity, had it not been for the ambition of Pope Julius II. By his intrigues, a league was formed at Cambray, between himself, Maximilian Emperor of Germany, Lewis XII. of France, and Ferdinand of Spain, to subdue, by their united arms, the Commonwealth of Venice. Henry, without any particular object in view, had allowed his name to be inserted in the treaty for the confederacy. The assailants triumphed by an overwhelming force; but no sooner was Venice prostrate before her enemies, than Julius turned his arms against France, and induced two of the leading powers to assist him. Henry, dazzled by the prospect of military glory, and the title of *Most Christian King*, which the Pope gave him hopes of obtaining, joined with the latter and Ferdinand to expel Lewis from Italy: as party to this new league, he sent a herald to Paris, to exhort the French King not to wage an impious war with the Sovereign Pontiff. Henry then summoned a Parliament, and demanded supplies, all of which the Commons voted. His old and prudent counsellors endeavoured to divert his intentions, but in vain; he was deaf to all remonstrances, and resolved immediately to begin the war.

By the advice of his father-in-law Ferdinand, the King of England, sent a body of 10,000 men, under the command of the Marquis of Dorset, to invade Guienne. Ferdinand wished to make the conquest of Navarre, and for this purpose he required the English to assist him; but Dorset declined to co-operate actively, having no orders to attack that country: nevertheless the English, by their position, prevented the French from affording any assistance to the Navarese, who, unable to cope with the victorious Duke of Alva, were quickly subdued, and John their King obliged to seek protection in the court of Lewis. Ferdinand next invited the Earl of Dorset to invade

the principality of Bearne, an undertaking which was not within the declared objects of the two allied powers; and dissensions arising between the English and Spanish commanders, the former returned with the whole armament to England. Henry was so much displeased at the ill success of this enterprize, that it was with some difficulty Dorset appeased him, even when he made known to him the fraudulent conduct of Ferdinand. About this time Pope Julius died; and was succeeded by John de Medicis, who took the appellation of Leo X., and proved one of the most illustrious Princes that ever filled the papal chair.

In the summer of 1513, Henry in person invaded France, by the way of Calais; and was seconded by the Swiss with an army of 25,000 men. Maximilian also joined him with some German and Flemish soldiers; and observing the English monarch to be more intent on glory than on interest, enlisted himself in his service, wore the cross of St. George, as one of his subjects, and received a hundred crowns daily for his pay.

The English, under the command of Lord Herbert, had met with a severe check whilst besieging Terouane; but Henry soon after obtained a signal victory at Guinegate over the enemy's cavalry, who, the moment that the English came within sight of them, appeared panic-struck, and instantly took to flight. The Duke of Longueville, their commander, Buissi D'Amboise, the Chevalier Bayard, and many other officers of distinction, were made prisoners. This action is sometimes termed the Battle of Guinegate, from the place where it was fought; but more frequently the *Battle of the Spurs*, the French having made more use of their spurs than of their swords.

This success was not followed up: Lewis soon after concluded a separate truce with Ferdinand and Maximilian. Henry was highly incensed at the defection of the Emperor, on whose account alone he had entered into the war. Longueville, who was still a prisoner, taking advantage of this, prevailed with

Henry also to make a peace, and to cement the friendship of the French and English Kings by the marriage of Mary, Henry's youngest sister, with Lewis, who was now a widower: Anne of Brittany having died a short time before.

This union took place in 1514, and in three months afterwards Lewis died. He was succeeded by his son-in-law, Francis Duke of Angouleme.



BATTLE OF FLODDEN FIELD; DEATH OF JAMES THE FOURTH OF SCOTLAND.

WHILST Henry was engaged on the Continent, he endeavoured to secure the neutrality of Scotland, and sent Dr. West on an embassy to that country, to allay some dissatisfaction that had arisen in consequence of the defeat of a Scotch pirate, who had for some time infested the English seas, but was at length killed in an engagement with Admiral Howard. An ancient league had long subsisted between the Scotch and French; and James, thinking himself bound to take part with his ally, sent a squadron of ships to the assistance of Lewis; although he at the same time professed to maintain a strict neutrality. Henry therefore gave orders to the Earl of Surrey to put the borders into a posture of defence, lest the Scots should attempt to invade them. The King of Scotland in the mean time crossed the Tweed with an army of 50,000 men, and ravaged those parts of Northumberland that lay nearest the river. The Earl of Surrey, with a force of 26,000 men, met him in the field of Flodden, near the Cheviot hills, and gained a complete victory. In this sanguinary conflict fell 10,000 of the Scots, among whom was their King and most of their nobility; whilst the English loss, although it amounted to 5,000 men, comprized no officer of note.

To reward the Earl of Surrey for this important service, Henry restored to him the title of Duke of Norfolk, and made his son, Lord Howard, Earl of Surrey.

The Queen-dowager of Scotland, Henry's sister, who had been created Regent during the minority of her son, had no resource but to negotiate: Henry generously forbore to pursue his advantages against the Scottish nation, and readily granted peace. If he relinquished an inviting opportunity for attempting the complete reduction of Scotland, immediate security obtained on that side enabled him to give undivided attention to the affairs which connected England with the Continent.

DEFINITIONS.

Embassy.—A deputation from one country or sovereign to another, to negotiate mercantile exchanges, or to settle political differences.

Pirates.—Robbers, who for the sake of plunder attack indiscriminately the ships of all nations, during peace or war, and sell their prisoners for slaves.



INTERVIEW OF HENRY AND FRANCIS THE FIRST.

THE insolent conduct of the French towards the Milanese, in the time of Lewis XII., had so enraged that people, that, with the assistance of the Swiss, they expelled the French from the duchy. Great preparations had been made by Lewis to reconquer that province, when his intentions were arrested by the hand of death. His successors, however, accomplished what he had projected; and the victory of Marignan put the French once more into possession of the Milanese.

This success, and the glory which Francis I. in consequence acquired, began to excite the jealousy of Henry; who was still farther displeased with the King of France for sending the Duke of Albany into Scotland, a measure which tended to undermine the authority of his sister the Regent. But what chiefly alienated the English cabinet, was the disgust which Wolsey entertained against the French monarch, who had not hitherto courted him with that assiduity and respect which he thought his due.

It was not, however, the interest of France to enter into a new war. The deaths of Ferdinand and Maximilian at this period made Charles V. the most powerful monarch of his time. Francis was sensible of the necessity of Henry's friendship, to maintain a balance of power: aware, too, of the unbounded influence of Wolsey over his master, he began to pay great court to that haughty favourite; and at length the harmonious tone which the correspondence of the two courts assumed, made the King of France believe that he had secured Wolsey in his interest. Francis solicited an interview with Henry at Calais; to which the latter readily assented. As he was preparing to depart, he was surprised at receiving a visit from the Emperor Charles V., who, having heard of the intended meeting between the two Kings, and apprehending some arrangements hostile to his government, had come in person to the English court, to solicit the friendship of the Monarch. The Emperor also paid the most flattering attentions to the English Cardinal, leading him to expect, that through his influence he should eventually be elevated to the Papacy, the primary object of Wolsey's ambition.

On the very day of the Emperor's departure, Henry with the Queen and his whole court passed over to Calais. Francis, with a similar retinue, came to Ardres: the two Monarchs met for the first time in a field within the English pale, in compliment to Henry for crossing the sea. The nobility both of France and England here displayed their magnificence with such profusion, that the place of their interview was called "The field of the cloth of gold."

In order to put a stop to the tedious ceremonials employed at every interview, Francis one day paid Henry a visit attended only by two gentlemen and a page. Henry, who was greatly astonished and highly flattered by this mark of confidence, exclaimed: "My brother, you have played me the most agreeable trick in the world: I surrender myself your prisoner

from this moment." He then took from his neck a collar of pearls of great value, and, putting it on Francis, begged him to wear it for the sake of his prisoner. Francis in return gave Henry a bracelet double in value to the collar.

A defiance had been sent by the two Kings to London and Paris, and to all the chief cities in Europe, importing that Henry and Francis would be ready to answer all comers at tilt, tournament, and barriers. The two monarchs, who were the handsomest persons of their age, entered the field on horseback, most splendidly equipped; Henry surrounded by the French guards, and Francis by those of England. Both Princes were very expert in all military exercises; but Henry, who contended with a number of French noblemen and gentlemen, bore away the honour of the field. In these entertainments, rather than in serious business, the two Kings passed the time till their mutual visit terminated. Wolsey had adjusted with Francis some additions to the late alliance, before the Kings met.

Soon after this, a war broke out between the Emperor Charles V. and Francis: Henry was appealed to as umpire, who committed the business to the mediation of Wolsey. Francis, however, would not accede to the unreasonable demands of Charles: at length Wolsey, having met the Emperor at Bruges, concluded a treaty with him; the tenor of which was, that Henry should invade France the ensuing autumn, with forty thousand men; and that, in order to cement the friendship of the English and Spanish monarchs, the Princess Mary, Henry's daughter, should be betrothed to the Emperor Charles.

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DEATH OF CARDINAL WOLSEY.

THOMAS WOLSEY, the minister and favourite of Henry VIII., was the son of a private gentleman of Ipswich. He had the advantage of a learned education, having taken his degree of

Bachelor of Arts in the University of Oxford, at the early age of fourteen years, where he was commonly called the Boy Bachelor. In his twenty-fifth year he took orders, and was soon after made tutor to the Marquis of Dorset's sons: he was presented by that nobleman with the living of Lymington.* On the death of his patron, he was recommended by Sir John Nefant to King Henry VII., who made him one of his Chaplains, and employed him in a secret negotiation respecting his intended marriage with Margaret of Savoy, daughter of Maximilian. Henry VII. was so much pleased with Wolsey's diligence and success in that business, that he bestowed on him the bishopric of Lincoln.

At the accession of Henry VIII., Wolsey was introduced at Court by the Bishop of Winchester, who hoped, by promoting him, to have a counterpoise to the Earl of Surrey, in a member of the cabinet, subordinate to himself. Wolsey soon insinuated himself into the King's favour; and became no less useful to him by his assiduity in business, than pleasing to him by joining in his festivities and diversions.†

Henry, charmed with his plan of transacting business, which was to converse on state affairs in the intervals of amusement, made him a member of his council, and afterwards his sole and absolute minister. In this high station he had full opportunity of developing the greatness of his character, and the extent of his genius. He was a man of extraordinary capacity

* During his residence here, Wolsey was for some misdemeanor put into the stocks by Sir Amyat Paulet: and he failed not to resent this insult when he became Chancellor, by confining the Knight for some years in the Temple.

† Wolsey is said to have laughed, danced, and sung with the young courtiers, in a manner unbecoming both his years and dignity: but his pleasures never interfered with his official duties; and he is allowed, even by his enemies, to have been indefatigable in business.

and unbounded enterprize; ambitious of power, and fond of glory; oppressive to the people; zealously subservient to the King in every thing not interfering with his own views on the papacy; insinuating and engaging when he designed to please; at other times lofty and commanding; haughty to his equals, and less moved by injuries than by contempt;* liberal to his partisans; gentle and affable to his dependants, by whom he appears to have been greatly beloved. He was a generous patron of literature, which was then in its infancy; and, by his public institutions and private bounty, gave encouragement to every branch of learning.† In 1513 he was made Archbishop of York; to which he annexed the sees of Durham and Winchester, besides farming the revenues of the bishoprics of Bath, Worcester, and Hereford, which were held by Italian prelates who resided at Rome. The Pope, observing his great influence with the King, and desirous of engaging him in his interest, soon after made him a Cardinal. No man ever carried to a greater height the state and dignity of that character. His immense revenues enabled him to support an ostentatious magnificence, surpassing that of many princes. He had no fewer than five hundred servants, among whom were nine or ten Lords, fifteen Knights, and forty Esquires. He was the first clergyman in England who wore silk and gold.

Warham, Archbishop of Canterbury, having resigned the office of Chancellor, the great seal was immediately given to Wolsey.‡ In this high office, he is said to have been strict in the administration of justice: and Sir Thomas More observes, that no Chancellor ever discovered greater impartiality in his

* The Duke of Buckingham having imprudently given him some disgust, was attainted of high treason, brought to trial, condemned, and executed.

† He founded Christ-Church College at Oxford, and one at Ipswich. The latter fell with him, but the former still flourishes.

‡ Wolsey was made a Cardinal, and Chancellor of England in 1515.

decisions, deeper penetration of judgment, or more enlarged knowledge of law and equity.

Upon the surrender of Tournay, Henry bestowed the administration of that See upon Wolsey; and put him in immediate possession of its revenues, which were considerable. It was afterwards ceded to the King of France, who promised to pay the Cardinal a pension of 1,200 livres annually, as an equivalent.

In 1518, Wolsey was appointed legate with unbounded power. He erected an office which he called the Legatine Court, vesting in it a kind of inquisitorial jurisdiction, which gave great offence to the people in general.

Upon the application of Henry to the Court of Rome, to obtain a divorce from his Queen Catherine, Wolsey, in conjunction with Cardinal Campeggio, was appointed to examine the validity of the King's marriage. The situation of Wolsey was now very critical; his immediate interest disposed him to gratify his master, who was impatient of Ecclesiastical controul; but, on the other hand, he was unwilling to detract from the authority of the Pope, as his final aim was to succeed to the Pontifical chair. He foresaw that the delays attending the divorcement of Catherine would prove his ruin, knowing that the King would make his Ministers answerable for the success of those transactions which were confided to them. Henry, who expected that Wolsey would have warmly supported him, was greatly offended by his wavering and indecisive conduct. Anne Boleyn, too, was prepossessed against him; and, suspecting that the obstacle to her elevation was willingly left undissolved, increased the King's displeasure. The great seal was taken from Wolsey, and given to Sir Thomas More. The Cardinal was then ordered to depart from York Palace (now Whitehall); and all his plate and furniture were seized.*

* It is said that the walls of his palace were hung with cloths of gold and silver: he had a service of plate consisting of massy gold, and the rest of his furniture was equally sumptuous.

The King shewing some symptoms of returning kindness to Wolsey, his enemies, who dreaded his influence should he return to Court, never ceased pursuing the disgraced Minister with fresh accusations. Wolsey lived for a short time in privacy and retirement; but at length he was arrested for high treason, and ordered up to London to take his trial. He was, however, unable to proceed far on his journey, being seized with sudden illness: with much difficulty he reached Leicester Abbey, and immediately took to his bed, from whence he never rose more. A short time before he expired, he addressed the following words to Sir William Kingston, constable of the Tower, who had him in custody: "I pray you have me heartily commended unto his Royal Majesty; and beseech him, on my behalf, to call to his remembrance all matters that have passed between us from the beginning, especially in regard to his business with the Queen; and then will he know in his conscience whether I have offended him. He is a Prince of a most royal carriage, and hath a princely heart; and rather than he will miss or want any part of his will, he will endanger the one half of his kingdom. I do assure you, that I have often kneeled before him, sometimes three hours together, to persuade him from his will and appetite; but could not prevail. Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the King, he would not have given me over in my grey hairs. But this is the just reward that I must receive for my indulgent pains and study, not regarding my service to God, but only to my Prince. Therefore let me advise you, if you be one of the King's Privy Council, as by your wisdom you are fit, take care what you put into the King's head, for you can never put it out again."

DEFINITIONS.

Legate.—A Cardinal or Bishop, or other clerical character, sent by the Pope, as his Ambassador, to any Sovereign Prince.

High Treason.—A crime by which the safety of the King or State is endangered.

DIVORCE OF CATHERINE OF ARRAGON, AND
MARRIAGE OF HENRY WITH ANNE BOLEYN.

HENRY had been eighteen years married to Queen Catherine, when he began to disclose his scruples concerning the lawfulness of a union with his brother's widow. He observed, that having studied Thomas Aquinas, he found, in the works of that learned Doctor, an express declaration of the unlawfulness of such marriages. That he had long been troubled in conscience about it; and in particular he was struck with the visible displeasure of Heaven, as all his children by the Queen, excepting one daughter, had died in their infancy. The Archbishop of Canterbury and all the Prelates, except Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, were strongly inclined to favour the King's scruples.

But a more powerful reason than any before enumerated influenced Henry: he was become enamoured of the charms of Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the Queen. This lady was the daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, who had been employed by the King in several embassies. Anne herself, when very young, had accompanied the King's sister to Paris, when that Princess married Lewis XII. It is uncertain at what time she returned to England. Henry was at first attracted by her exquisite beauty; and finding the charms of her mind correspond with her external graces, he determined on marrying her so soon as he could get divorced from the Queen. He therefore instituted an application to Pope Clement, soliciting the Pontiff to annul the bull of his predecessor, which had sanctioned the marriage with Catherine, and to grant a dispensation for a second marriage. Clement was at this time a prisoner in the hands of the Emperor; and having no hopes of regaining his liberty but through the intervention of the King of England, he gave a favourable answer to his demands. No sooner was he free from his captivity, than he began to temporize; having promised the Emperor, who was Catherine's nephew, to take no steps in the affair without imparting them to Charles's ministers: but in

order to appease the King of England, he sent over a commission, in which Cardinal Campeggio was joined with Wolsey, to try the legality of the marriage. The two Legates opened their Court at London. To give an air of impartiality to their proceedings, Wolsey, though the elder Cardinal, yielded the chair of presidency to the Italian Legate. Campeggio summoned the King and Queen to appear before him on the 18th June 1529. The King answered to his name when called; but the Queen, on rising from her seat, threw herself at the King's feet, and addressed him in the most pathetic strain; telling him, "That she was a stranger in his dominions, without protection, without counsel, without assistance; that she had quitted her native country, and had no refuge but in her union with him; that she had been his wife during twenty years, and would appeal to himself whether her affectionate submission to his will had not merited better treatment. That their parents, the Kings of England and Spain, were esteemed the wisest Princes of their time, and had acted from the best advice. That she acquiesced in their judgment, and would not submit her cause to be tried by a Court, whose dependence upon her enemies was too visible ever to allow her any hope of obtaining from them an equitable decision." Having thus spoken, she arose, and, respectfully curtseying to the King, departed from the Court, in which she determined never again to appear.

After her departure, the King did justice to her virtues; and acknowledged that not only had she been a dutiful and affectionate wife, but that the whole tenor of her life had been conformable to the strictest rules of probity and honour.

The Legates again summoned the Queen; who not appearing, was declared contumacious, notwithstanding her appeal to Rome. After multiplied discussions, and the production of various evidence, the business seemed drawing to a conclusion, and Henry every day expected to receive sentence in his favour; when, to his great surprise, Campeggio prorogued the Court till

the 1st of October. Meanwhile Henry, by the advice of Dr. Thomas Cranmer, consulted all the Universities of Europe on this important subject: their opinions coincided with the wishes of the King; who, in order to force the Pope to pronounce the sentence of divorce, engaged the principal Clergy and Nobility to write to his Holiness, threatening him with a renunciation of his appellat jurisdiction, in case he refused to do justice in the cause of the divorce. Clement sent an answer to vindicate his proceedings. But this did not satisfy Henry, who resolved to abide the consequences of a rupture with the See of Rome. With this intention, he in January 1532 was privately married to Anne Boleyn, whom he had previously created Marchioness of Pembroke. A sentence of divorce between Henry and Catherine was pronounced by Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury; and a subsequent sentence of the Primate ratified the marriage with Anne Boleyn, who was soon afterwards publicly crowned with all suitable pomp and solemnity. On the 7th of September she was delivered of a daughter, a circumstance which gave Henry so much pleasure, that he conferred on the Royal infant, who received the name of Elizabeth, the title of Princess of Wales.

Catherine, though commanded to consider herself only as Dowager Princess of Wales, would not relinquish her Royal title and pretensions; but withdrew from Court, and lived in retirement. In the year 1536, this amiable and unfortunate Princess was seized with a lingering illness, of which she died at Kimbolton in Huntingdonshire, in the fiftieth year of her age.



THE REFORMATION.

THE abuse of power is one of the first steps towards its downfall! The line of the Roman Pontiff's pretended to hold their dominion over the Christian world as the immediate successors of the Apostle Peter, and founded their claims to

infallibility upon the power given to St. Peter by our Saviour. Unlike the Apostles, the Papal Princes aimed at nothing less than universal despotism over both the minds of men and their possessions : instead of being preachers of peace, they were too often the chief promoters of war ; and it was no uncommon thing to see a Pope cased in a coat of mail, and leading his troops in person to the field.

Various arts were employed to increase the revenues of the Papal See ; and the people were purposely kept in ignorance, that their superstition and credulity might be the more easily imposed upon.

One of the most extraordinary methods of replenishing the Treasury, was the sale of Plenary Indulgences : that is, written pardons for sins ; not for those sins only which had previously been committed, but even for those of which the purchasers might hereafter be guilty ; and these Indulgences were to be bought at taverns, gaming-houses, &c.

Plenary Indulgences were first devised by Pope Gregory VII., who distributed them as a recompense to those men who went in person to the Crusades. In this he was followed by Victor, and Urban II. Clement V. was the first who offered them to public sale. Leo X., in order to defray the expenses of building the church of St. Peter at Rome, gave a commission to the Dominican Friars for the sale of Indulgences ; which hitherto had been the privilege of the Augustines, who highly resented the transfer.

Martin Luther was an Augustine Friar, and, irritated at the innovation, preached publicly against the efficacy, and even lawfulness, of Indulgences. As he enlarged his reading, he discovered so many errors and abuses in the Church of Rome, that he at length began to question the authority of the Pope himself. He inveighed against the Seven Sacraments, reducing the number of Sacraments to two ; he combated the doctrine of Transubstantiation ; declaimed against Purgatory ; and ex-

posed the dangerous consequences of Clerical celibacy. His books were condemned as heretical, and were burned by the Dominicans. By way of reprisal, Luther, in the streets of Wirtemberg, publicly burned the Pope's Bull, in which he was anathematized. His writings and discourses roused the attention of all Europe; and he was openly protected by Frederic Elector of Saxony, surnamed the Wise.

Henry, who prided himself on his scholastic knowledge and his skill in divinity, wrote a book in Latin against Luther, a copy of which was sent to the Pope; who, receiving it in full Consistory, pretended to be in raptures at its excellence, and conferred on the author the title of Defender of the Faith, an appellation which is still retained by the Kings of England.

Leo was succeeded in the pontificate by Adrian VI., who died soon afterwards. The procrastination and duplicity of Clement VII., in the progress of Henry's divorce, so irritated that Monarch, that, without waiting for the Papal decision, or a dispensation, he divorced his Queen, Catherine, and married Anne Boleyn. Clement, in 1533, issued a proclamation, requiring Henry to take back Catherine as his only lawful wife, and denouncing provisional censures against him should he prove refractory. Henry was greatly enraged when he received the proclamation. The Parliament he knew to be devoted to him; and many of the Clergy were ready to side with him, being greatly dissatisfied to see Italian bishops in possession of English benefices. He therefore required the clergy to acknowledge him head of the church: the Parliament confirmed the King's supremacy; and the authority of the Pope was formally abolished in England. The different monastic houses then underwent a strict examination; and the licentiousness which prevailed in most of them occasioned the destruction of them all. Three hundred and seventy-six of the lesser monasteries were first suppressed; and their revenues and effects, with the riches of their shrines, confiscated to the King.

In 1536, the Convocation deliberated concerning a new Translation of the Bible, that of Tindal being found very incorrect. The Catholic party strongly opposed it; but the better cause prevailed; and an act was passed for a new Translation, which in three years was finished, having been printed at Paris.

DEFINITIONS.

Infallibility.—Exemption from error. A perfection assumed by the Popes, with respect to ecclesiastical matters, by virtue of their accession to the apostolic see of St. Peter.

Purgatory.—According to the Romish church is a place appointed for the souls of deceased persons, and where they remain in a state of suffering, until they have expiated the sins committed during their lives; after which they are received into eternal happiness.

Consistory.—An ecclesiastical assembly held in the presence of the Pope, for the reception of Princes, or their ambassadors; for the promotion of cardinals, and other affairs of importance.

Convocation.—An assembly of all the clergy, to consult upon ecclesiastical matters in time of Parliament. The Archbishop of Canterbury is the president of the Convocation, and prorogues and dissolves it by mandate from the King. The Convocation examine and censure all heretical and schismatical books and persons; but an appeal lies to the King in Chancery, or to his delegates.



DEATH OF QUEEN ANNE BOLEYN; MARRIAGE OF THE KING WITH JANE SEYMOUR.

HENRY'S second Queen, Anne Boleyn, did not long retain the affections of her husband. In the year 1536 she was delivered of a dead son: and Henry's impatience to have male issue being disappointed, he vented his spleen and displeasure against the unhappy mother. He had also become recently captivated with one of the Queen's ladies, Jane Seymour. The attachment of Anne to the cause of the Reformation made the

Papists her enemies : they soon discovered the King's coolness, and conspired her ruin. The circumstance of being educated at Paris had given her a tincture of volatile gaiety, foreign to the manners of the English court. Her enemies took advantage of this ; and hinted to the King imputations against her fidelity and honour, which either inflamed his jealousy, or countenanced his previous design to sacrifice her. With his mind already unfavourably disposed, he observed the Queen at a tournament at Greenwich to drop her handkerchief : an incident which was interpreted as a signal of favour to one of her paramours. Henry, abruptly returning to Whitehall, arrested four of her attendants, *viz.* Norris, Brereton, Smeton, and Weston, together with her brother, Lord Rochford. The next day the Queen was sent to the Tower. Of all those to whom she had been a benefactress during her prosperity, Cranmer alone appeared in her behalf ; and, as far as the King's impetuosity would permit, endeavoured to soften his resentment against her. The Queen wrote a most pathetic letter to Henry, but it made no impression on his cruel and unrelenting heart. Smeton, Brereton, and Weston were executed. Norris had a promise of pardon, if he would accuse the Queen ; but he nobly refused, saying that he would rather die a thousand deaths than calumniate an innocent person.

The Queen, and her brother Lord Rochford, were tried by a jury of Peers : their uncle, the Duke of Norfolk, now one of her most bitter enemies, presided as High Steward. Anne, though unassisted by counsel, defended herself with so much judgment and presence of mind, that the spectators could not forbear pronouncing her entirely innocent. Sentence was, however, given against her ; and she was condemned to be either burned or beheaded at the King's pleasure. When she heard this dreadful sentence, she exclaimed : " O Creator ! thou who art the way, the truth, and the life ! thou knowest that I have not deserved this." Then turning to the judges,

she made the most solemn declaration of her innocence. The day before her death, Anne sent a last message to the King, thanking him for the care he had uniformly taken of her advancement : from a private gentlewoman, he had made her a Marchioness, then a Queen; and now that he could raise her no higher in this world, he was sending her to be a saint in heaven : she then renewed her protestations of innocence, and committed her daughter to his care. She continued to behave with her usual serenity and cheerfulness. On the morning of her execution, she sent for the Lieutenant of the Tower, to be present while she received the sacrament, and witness the declaration of her innocence. She afterwards inquired about the dexterity of the executioner ; and putting her hands about her neck, observed, smiling, " I have but a little neck." When brought to the scaffold, she said, " That she was come to die, as she had been sentenced by the law ; she would accuse none, nor say any thing of the ground upon which she had been judged." She prayed fervently for the King ; and desired, if any one should think proper to canvass her cause, he would judge for the best.

She was beheaded by the executioner of Calais, who was sent for, as more expert than any in England.

The brutal Henry, nowise softened by the bloody catastrophe, nor attentive to the restraints of common decorum, married Jane Seymour the very day after the execution of his once-loved Anne Boleyn. He soon after assembled a Parliament, and caused an act to be passed, declaring the Princess Elizabeth to be illegitimate, as by a former act he had stigmatized the Princess Mary.

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THE DEATH OF THOMAS CROMWELL.

THOMAS CROMWELL was the son of a blacksmith at Putney. Being endowed with sound judgment and a strong natural

genius, he considered travelling as the best means of improving his understanding; and to the knowledge thus collected he was indebted for the high rank and distinguished offices to which he afterwards attained. On his return to England, he was taken into the service of Cardinal Wolsey: who procured him a seat in the House of Commons, where he acquired great honour by the noble defence which he made in behalf of his master. Indeed it laid the foundation of his favour with the King, who gave him several very important places, and honoured him with his confidence. For his active services in promoting the suppression of the monasteries, and in reconciling the people to the seizure of their possessions, he was rewarded with the title of Earl of Essex, and many manors and estates, chiefly spoils of the Church. He connected himself with the prelates and nobles who favoured the progress of the Reformation. Soon after the death of Queen Jane, who died in giving birth to a son, Henry resolved to have a fourth wife from some of the princely families on the Continent. Cromwell at length proposed Anne of Cleves, on account of the great influence which her father had with the Protestant Princes of Germany. A flattering picture of this lady by Hans Holbein determined the King in her favour: but, on her arrival, finding her utterly destitute of grace or beauty, Henry not only conceived an insurmountable dislike to her, but also to Cromwell.

After living in a state of indifference with the Queen about five months, he fell in love with Catherine Howard, niece to the Duke of Norfolk. Partly in order to conciliate the Catholic party, of which Norfolk was the head, and partly to prepare the way for a divorce from Anne of Cleves, he with his usual want of principle determined to sacrifice his minister. Cromwell was obnoxious to two parties: the nobility hated him because he was of a low origin, and yet took precedence of all the temporal lords who were not Princes of the blood; and the Roman Catholics, because they considered him as the concealed enemy of

their religion. He had been invested with the order of the Garter, and made Vicar-general; besides which he was Lord Privy-seal, Chamberlain, and Master of the Wards.

Cromwell had, however, supported the height of his prosperity with moderation, had betrayed no insolence or contempt towards his inferiors, and gratefully acknowledged those obligations which he had received during his humble fortunes.

He was a great politician, and a good man: but, in his zeal for the new religion, he had introduced an unjustifiable application of the penalty of attainder. As soon as he was disgraced and arrested, his enemies accused him of heresy and treason; and notwithstanding a most pathetic letter that he addressed to the King, and which even drew tears from the eyes of the tyrant, who caused it to be thrice read to him, he was beheaded on Tower Hill in 1540. He is said to have promoted more men of merit whilst he was in power than any of his predecessors; and to him we are indebted for the institution of parish-registers.

DEFINITION.

Parish-registers.—Books, in which are written the baptisms, marriages, and burials, that take place in each parish.



PERSECUTIONS.

No Prince in Europe ever possessed more absolute authority than Henry VIII.; and while revolting from papal dominion, he assumed its intolerance. He was an enemy to the Reformers, because he had been offended by Luther; and he had no affection for the Papists, because the Pope had given him abundant cause of displeasure. He expected that his will respecting Church doctrines and discipline should be law; and that his opinions, however mutable and discordant in themselves, should regulate the consciences of his subjects. Hence both parties were obnoxious to him, and both suffered persecution! Never-

theless, the doctrine of the Reformation, encouraged and protected by Cromwell and Cranmer, insensibly gained ground. It had met with little check under the administration of Wolsey: but his successor Sir Thomas More, although a man of genius and learning, from a superstitious attachment to the ancient faith, endeavoured to suppress those opinions by force which he was unable to overthrow by argument. Mr. James Bainham, a gentleman of the Temple, and Thomas Bilney, a priest, were among the first who suffered martyrdom. About this time appeared Elizabeth Barton, commonly called the Holy Maid of Kent. She had been subject to hysteric fits, and in intervals of delirium had uttered many strange and incoherent expressions, which the silly people in the neighbourhood imagined to be supernatural suggestions. The parish priest of Aldington took advantage of the delusion; and, in conjunction with Dr. Bocking, a canon of Canterbury, formed a design of practising on the credulity of the people for their own advantage; with this view they gave out that the maid was inspired by the Holy Ghost. In order to raise the credit of a chapel which belonged to the secular priest, Elizabeth pretended that the Virgin Mary had appeared to her, and declared that she could never recover until she had made a visit to the image of the Virgin within the chapel. Having gone in pilgrimage accordingly, while before the shrine she affected to fall into a trance, and, at its termination, to have received a perfect cure by the intercession of the Virgin. The miracle was soon noised abroad; and the priests, finding their scheme successful, taught her to declaim against the new doctrine, and even against the King's supremacy. Many monks and prelates, from different motives, treated her ravings or tutored effusions as inspirations from heaven. Miracles were said to be wrought by her; and the pulpits echoed with the fame of the new prophetess. Fisher Bishop of Rochester countenanced the delusion; and Warham Archbishop of Canterbury seems to have fallen into it from sin-

cere credulity. Multiplied warnings and prophecies from this source, revealed to the King, that he should die in a month if he divorced Catherine; and all the favourers of the new doctrine were threatened with divine vengeance. At length the King had Elizabeth and her accomplices examined before the Star-chamber; where they confessed all the particulars of the imposture, and were shortly after executed. Bishop Fisher, with some others, was thrown into prison for misprision of treason, because he had not given information of some speeches asserting, and some private meetings aiming to restore, the paramount authority of the Pope. Henry having been declared head of the Church, it was inferred that to deny his supremacy was treason; and in consequence of this tyrannical construction many persons suffered death; among whom were Fisher Bishop of Rochester, and Sir Thomas More: the oath of supremacy was tendered to each of these in prison; but they refused to take it in the terms in which it was conceived.

Upon the death of Queen Anne, the Pope made overtures for a reconciliation with Henry: but the King having become indifferent to papal censures, and finding a great increase of authority as well as revenue to arise from his quarrel with the Court of Rome, resolved to persevere in his present measures. His reforms were not, however, universally well received. The monks who had been expelled their convents, and for whom no provision had been made, wandered about the country, and excited the compassion of all who witnessed their destitute condition: discontents manifested themselves first in Lincolshire, and afterwards in the northern counties, York, Durham, and Lancaster; but they were quickly suppressed, and many of the leaders put to death.

In the year 1538, Dr. Lambert, a schoolmaster in London, was accused by Dr. Taylor, before Cranmer and Latimer, of denying the real presence in the sacrament; of which point Henry was very tenacious. Cranmer endeavoured to persuade

this man to recant, but Lambert appealed to the King. Henry, who prided himself upon his learning, was very glad of an opportunity of displaying his knowledge in divinity, and undertook to confute Lambert in Westminster-Hall, before the bishops, nobility, and dignitaries of the law : public notice was given, that he intended to enter the lists with the schoolmaster ; and scaffolds were erected in the hall for the accommodation of the public.

After an unequal dispute of eight hours (for Lambert was brow-beaten and confounded, while the King was seconded by all his prelates), Lambert was condemned to suffer death as a heretic. He was burned, or rather roasted, at a slow fire. His legs and thighs were consumed to the stumps, whilst the vital parts remained uninjured : at length, some of the soldiers, to put an end to his torments, lifted him on their halberts, and threw him into the flames, whilst he continued to exclaim, " None but Christ, none but Christ," until he expired.

A few days before this execution, four Dutch Anabaptists (three men and a woman) were burned at St. Paul's Cross, and two others in Smithfield. In the year 1539, a new Parliament was called, and the first act that passed was the famous law of the Six Articles, commonly termed the Bloody Statute ; which denounced death against all who should deny the doctrine of the real presence, the sufficiency of communion in one kind, the perpetual obligation of vows of chastity, the utility of private masses ; the divine authority for enjoining celibacy on the clergy, and the necessity of auricular confessions. The penalty for disputing the first article was death by fire, with the same forfeiture as in cases of treason ; and the accused was not allowed the privilege of abjuring : an unheard-of severity, unknown to the Inquisition. The punishment for denying any of the other five articles was death ; but might be mitigated, if the party recanted, to the forfeiture of goods and chattels, and imprisonment during the King's pleasure : but a relapse was punishable with

absolute death, the party not being allowed to recant. To abstain from confession, and from the Eucharist, subjected the absentee to fines and imprisonment. Cranmer had the courage to oppose this bill in the House for three days successively, though the King had desired him to absent himself; but he was obliged, in obedience to the statute, to dismiss his wife. Latimer and Shaxton resigned their bishoprics on account of this law, and were committed to prison.

Soon after, the Parliament, abusing the high trust committed to them by the people, gave to the King's proclamation the force of an act of parliament, under a few limitations, which were insufficient for the protection of civil liberty.

After the death of Cromwell, the marriage of Henry with Anne of Cleves was annulled by mutual consent: the Princess parted from him with great indifference, and accepted £3,000 a-year as an indemnity. His marriage with Catherine Howard immediately followed; and so happy did he now think himself, that he publicly returned thanks for his conjugal felicity. A short time, however, destroyed the illusion; and whatever guilt his cruel suspicion attached to his former unhappy wives was more than verified in the licentious conduct of his new Queen. Two of her paramours were arrested, and confessed their criminality: the Queen herself acknowledged her incontinence before marriage, but denied having been guilty of any infidelity to the King. Both Houses of Parliament declared the charges to be proved; and she was beheaded on Tower Hill, together with the Viscountess Rochford her confidante, whose fate excited no commiseration, as she had been a principal instrument in procuring the death of Anne Boleyn. The ground for regarding Anne Boleyn as innocent is strengthened by this discovery of the guilt of her accuser. Meanwhile, Henry continued his persecutions against both Catholics and Protestants; punishing the former for denying his supremacy, and the latter for infringing the Six Articles. A foreigner at that time in

England used to say, that those who were for the Pope were hanged, and those who were against him were burned.

A slight rebellion broke out in Yorkshire: and as it was supposed to have been set on foot by Cardinal Pole,* Henry determined to make the Countess of Salisbury suffer for her son's offences: and this venerable matron, the last of the line of Plantagenet, perished on the scaffold.

Towards the end of the year 1542, a war broke out with Scotland; but was attended with no particular event, excepting the victory obtained by Henry's troops over the Scotch at Solway. James V. was so affected on receiving news of the disastrous route of his troops, that he died of grief and mortification. A rupture with France occurred soon afterwards, but produced nothing memorable; and a peace was concluded between England, France, and Scotland, in 1546.

After the death of Catherine Howard, Henry, who could not long remain a widower, had in July 1543 taken for his sixth wife Catherine Parr, relict of Nevill Lord Latimer: she was a woman of consummate prudence and excellent temper, and in her heart inclined to the principles of the Reformation. Having once ventured to differ with the King on a point of theology, he was so much displeas'd, that he entertained the thought of having her arraigned as a heretic; and in this he was encouraged by Gardiner Bishop of Winchester, who observed that the more elevated the person who was chastised, and the nearer to his person, the greater terror would the example strike on every one. A friend of the Queen's found

* Reginald de la Pole was a Plantagenet, being the fourth son of the Countess of Salisbury, daughter of the Duke of Clarence. He was a man of great genius and learning, and in his youth highly esteemed by Henry; but religious differences intervening, they became bitter enemies; and Henry carried his resentment so far as to put to death most of this nobleman's family.

a paper containing the basis of an impeachment against her, subscribed by the King, which Gardiner had dropped. Being apprized by this of her danger, she contrived to pacify the King; so that when the chancellor appeared the next day, with forty pursuivants, to take her into custody, he found her walking in the garden with Henry, who sharply rebuked the sanguinary minister for his intrusion, and expelled him from the council.

Henry had for some time been confined with an ulcer in his leg; the pain of which, added to his violence of temper, rendered him so irritable, that his courtiers and attendants dreaded to venture into his presence. The spirit of persecution influenced him to the last. Anne Askew, a young woman of great merit and beauty, had been convicted under the Six Articles just before the narrow escape of the Queen: she was first racked, and then burned to death, for tenaciously adhering to 'Protestant principles: four men suffered at the same time.

The favour which he shewed to Roman Catholic leaders was no pledge of safety to individuals. The Duke of Norfolk had served him with courage and fidelity: the Earl of Surrey, Norfolk's son, a young man of great promise, was distinguished by every accomplishment that adorns a scholar, a courtier, and a soldier. The Earl of Hertford and Sir Thomas Seymour persuaded Henry that the Earl of Surrey aspired to a marriage with the Princess Mary; and they hinted that he had designs on the crown. Among the direct allegations against him, was that of harbouring some Italian spies, and of bearing the arms of Edward the Confessor quartered with his own; and Sir Robert Southwell, who had been admitted to his confidence, charged him with infidelity to the King. Surrey denied the expressions of discontent imputed to him, and challenged Southwell to single combat. He was tried by a common jury; and, notwithstanding his eloquent and spirited defence, was

condemned and executed for high treason. The Duke of Norfolk, whom the principal charges against his son did not reach, and who must have been exculpated on a fair trial before his Peers, was consigned to the penalties for high treason by a bill of attainder, and only escaped being executed by the King's death intervening the night before he was to have suffered. Henry died Jan. 28th, 1547, after a reign of thirty-seven years and nine months, and in the fifty-sixth year of his age. By his will he left the crown to Prince Edward and his issue; with successive remainders to the Princess Mary, and after her to the Princess Elizabeth, and their respective descendants.

DEFINITIONS.

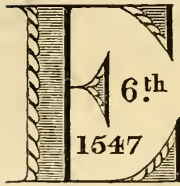
Martyrdom.—The suffering of death or torture, contrary to law and justice, for conscience sake.

Private Masses.—The service of the Romish Church performed a certain number of times for the release of the souls of deceased persons from the pains of purgatory; for this purpose sums of money were frequently left by will.

Auricular Confession.—A free acknowledgment of sins committed, made in private to a priest; who enjoined some penance by way of atonement, on the completion of which they received absolution.

Protestants.—A name first given in Germany to those who adhered to the doctrines of Luther, because they protested against a decree of the Emperor Charles V. and the Diet of Spires, and is now become a common denomination for all persons of the reformed churches.

Rack.—An instrument of torture resembling a wheel, on which the criminal was extended, and his limbs strained with such violence as to dislocate all the joints.



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| <p style="text-align: center;">1547</p> <p>A decorative initial letter 'F' with a wavy border. Inside the letter, the text '6th' is written in a serif font, and '1547' is written below it. Below the letter are seven vertical stems, each topped with a small, stylized floral or leaf-like ornament.</p> | <p style="text-align: center;">1547</p> <p>A decorative initial letter 'S' with a wavy border. Inside the letter, the text '6th' is written in a serif font, and '1547' is written below it. Below the letter is a flag with a lion rampant on a shield, and another flag with a floral design.</p> |
| <p style="text-align: center;">1549</p> <p>A decorative initial letter 'A' with a wavy border. Inside the letter, the text '6th' is written in a serif font, and '1547' is written below it. Below the letter are a book titled 'Book of Common Prayer', a candle, and an anchor.</p> | <p style="text-align: center;">1549</p> <p>A decorative initial letter 'K' with a wavy border. Inside the letter, the text '6th' is written in a serif font, and '1547' is written below it. Below the letter are a crown, a candle, and a leaf.</p> |
| <p style="text-align: center;">1552</p> <p>A decorative initial letter 'K' with a wavy border. Inside the letter, the text '6th' is written in a serif font, and '1547' is written below it. Below the letter are a crown, a candle, and a leaf.</p> | <p style="text-align: center;">1553</p> <p>A decorative initial letter 'K' with a wavy border. Inside the letter, the text '6th' is written in a serif font, and '1547' is written below it. Below the letter are a crown, a candle, and a leaf.</p> |

PLATE XXIV.

EDWARD THE SIXTH.

Fig. 1.—THE DUKE OF SOMERSET CHOSEN PROTECTOR.

The central figure, with the crown just above him, is Somerset; the subordinate relation of the nobles indicates that he is, for the time being, the representative of the King.

Fig. 2.—INVASION OF SCOTLAND, AND DEFEAT OF THE SCOTS.

Fig. 3.—EXECUTION OF ADMIRAL LORD SEYMOUR.

Fig. 4.—THE PROTESTANT BISHOPS PRESENTING THE LITURGY
TO EDWARD.

Fig. 5.—EXECUTION OF SOMERSET.

Fig. 6.—MARRIAGE OF LADY JANE GREY WITH LORD
GUILFORD DUDLEY.

EDWARD THE SIXTH.

THIS excellent young Prince, the son of Henry VIII. by Jane Seymour, is celebrated by historians for the beauty of his person, the sweetness of his temper, and the extent of his learning. At the age of sixteen, he had attained proficiency in the Greek, Latin, French, Italian, and Spanish languages; was skilled in Logic, Music, and Natural Philosophy, and possessed a competent knowledge of Theology. When the celebrated Jerome Cardan visited the English Court, he was so astonished at the attainments of Edward, that he afterwards extolled him in his works as a prodigy of nature. To what shall we fairly ascribe two instances of persecution unto death, on account of religious opinion, which took place at the beginning of this reign? to the leaven of intolerance which hangs about recent separatists from the Church of Rome. The first heads of the reformed churches were rather unsettled seeders from Popery, than consistent Protestants. Young Edward, less a bigot than his counsellors, by the advancing light of one generation, objected to authorize the death of the condemned heretics by the royal sign manual, but was overruled by Cranmer.

DEFINITIONS.

Logic.—The art of reasoning. It explains the nature of the human mind, and the proper manner of conducting its several powers, in order to the attainment of truth and knowledge.

Theology.—The science of divinity.

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THE DUKE OF SOMERSET CHOSEN PROTECTOR.

THE young King was only nine years of age at the time of his father's death: his majority was fixed at the completion of his eighteenth year. Henry had appointed sixteen executors of his will, who were to govern jointly during the minority of Edward; he also named a collateral council of twelve members,

who were to assist the regency when called upon for advice. Among the councillors was Sir Thomas Seymour, Edward's uncle, who was soon after made admiral, and created Lord Seymour of Sudley.

One of the first acts of the executors was to choose a president; as the mover of this step justly observed, that the government would lose its dignity, if left destitute of some representative of royal majesty, who might appoint and receive ambassadors; and whose name might be employed in all orders and proclamations.

After some opposition from Chancellor Wriothesly, a majority of the co-executors elected the King's maternal uncle, the Earl of Hertford, afterwards Duke of Somerset, to be protector of the realm; who was accordingly invested with all the external symbols of royalty.



INVASION OF SCOTLAND, AND DEFEAT OF THE SCOTS.

IN a treaty between the late King and the Scottish gentry, it had been stipulated that a marriage should be solemnized between the English heir apparent, Edward, and Mary the young Queen of Scotland. This project was so agreeable to Henry, that he had enjoined his executors, in his last moments, to make every effort to complete it. Somerset cordially embraced Henry's intentions, equally knowing that the match would tend to unite the two countries under one government, and prevent those sanguinary conflicts that were perpetually occurring on the frontiers of both kingdoms. The Government and leading nobility of Scotland, however, were decidedly averse to the match: partly because, being bigoted adherents to the Catholic faith, they considered the English as heretics, and partly because they apprehended that the loss of their national independence might follow the union of the reigning

families; while the French, who exercised great influence over the Scottish Court as old allies, aggravated every motive to antipathy, from a secret fear that Britain undivided would be too powerful. Hence the overtures from Edward's guardians for a performance of the existing treaty were rejected; and Somerset, finding it impossible to conciliate the Scots, who resolutely evaded the contract, made preparations to obtain by force what was denied to negotiation. He passed the borders at Berwick, and advanced towards Edinburgh. After some skirmishing, a desperate engagement took place near Pinkey, in which the Scots were defeated with the loss of 10,000 slain, and 1,500 prisoners, whilst the English lost only fifty horsemen. Somerset was unable to prosecute his successes, being called back to counteract the cabals and intrigues of his brother the admiral. The Scots meanwhile sent their young Queen over to France, and finally married her to the Dauphin.

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EXECUTION OF ADMIRAL LORD SEYMOUR.

LORD SEYMOUR was a man of eminent talents, but haughty, turbulent, and vindictive. The ascendancy of his elder brother excited his envy, and converted him into an ambitious competitor for the Regency. Soon after the death of Henry VIII., he prevailed on the Queen-dowager to give him her hand in private; and the splendour of this alliance imparted a fresh stimulus to the Admiral's ambition. He obtained from the young King a letter, expressing his desire that such a marriage should be celebrated, and then he publicly avowed it, in open defiance of the Protector. Whilst Somerset was in Scotland, Seymour pursued his intrigues with great alacrity, and endeavoured to get himself appointed governor to the King. When some friends remonstrated with him on the folly and danger of his schemes, he replied that if he were thwarted in his attempts, he would make this the blackest session that ever sat in Eng-

land. A message from the Council, however, threatening him with imprisonment in the Tower, and with a prosecution for high-treason, induced him to submit, and to sue for a reconciliation with his brother. The Queen-dowager dying shortly afterwards, Seymour made overtures of marriage to the Lady Elizabeth. Meanwhile, he once more endeavoured to seduce the young King to his interests; openly decried his brother's administration; and had formed so strong a party, including secret adherents in the Privy-Council and the two Houses of Parliament, that he calculated on mustering an army of 10,000 men. He is said to have actually assembled, at different places, 2,000 armed followers, with the design of getting possession of the King's person. The Council, finding the public peace endangered by his rebellious schemes, committed him to the Tower, and appointed Commissioners to take the depositions of his accusers. Somerset meanwhile exhorted him to resign his office, and retire from court; but Seymour refused this peace-offering and pledge of submission. The Protector then deemed that decisive measures were requisite for his own safety: the King, by the advice of the Council, signified his disapprobation of Seymour's proceedings, and deprived him of the office of admiral. The Commissioners made a report to the House of Peers, accusing him of high-treason, on which he was condemned by a bill of attainder, and executed on Tower-hill.



THE PROTESTANT BISHOPS PRESENTING THE LITURGY TO EDWARD.

UPON the death of Henry, the hopes of the Protestants, and the fears of the Catholics, began to revive. The Protector was a zealous friend to the Reformers, and took care to entrust the King's education only to persons attached to the same principles. In pursuing his design of advancing the Reformation, he always consulted Cranmer, who being a man of

moderation and prudence, was averse to all violent changes, and proposed to bring over the people by insensible innovations to that system of doctrine and discipline, which he deemed the most pure and perfect. Among the dignitaries of the English Church, the most pertinacious obstructor of the Reformation was Gardiner Bishop of Winchester; but his remonstrances to the Protector were fruitless: and for persisting to oppose a commission for visiting the monasteries, he was committed to the Fleet, as Bishop Bonner was to the Tower. An order, issued by the Council in the beginning of 1548, prohibited the carrying of candles in procession on Candlemas-day; of ashes on Ash-Wednesday; and of palms on Palm Sunday: and all images were ordered to be removed from the churches, private masses were abolished, and auricular confession left to the discretion of individuals. A committee of bishops and divines, by appointment of the Council, proceeded to compose a new Liturgy, which is, with a few exceptions, the same that is now used. The mass had always hitherto been celebrated in Latin; the Missal was now translated into English, and as much of it retained as the principles of the Reformers would admit: the prayers to Saints were retrenched, and all the superstitious ceremonies abolished. An act was passed to establish this form of worship in all the churches; and uniformity was enjoined in all rites and ceremonies.

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EXECUTION OF SOMERSET.

IN the late reign, when Henry's profusion had exhausted his revenue, to palliate the deficiencies of the treasury he had debased the coin. The necessities of the State obliged Somerset to have recourse to the same pernicious expedient. The ill effects of this were aggravated by some temporary evils which attended the suppression of monasteries; one of which was, that most of the expelled monks were obliged to earn a sub-

sistence by manual labour, so that every common occupation was overstocked with hands. Thus, while the poor who could find employment, were defrauded of a sufficient maintenance by wages much below the nominal amount, others were supplanted in their proper callings, and utterly deprived of subsistence. Under their indescribable hardships, the common people every where murmured, and in many counties proceeded to acts of outrage and rebellion. While the insurgents in Sussex, Hampshire, Kent, Gloucester, Warwick, Essex, Hertford, Leicester, Worcester, and Rutland, were appeased by the mediation of moderate persons, more obstinate commotions in the counties of Oxford, Devon, Norfolk, and York, long defied, and in some cases defeated strong detachments from the Royal army. In many parts, the distresses of the expelled friars and nuns, and of persons who had farmed monastic lands, operating with the disinterested zeal of multitudes of Papists, added to the other causes of rebellion a furious dissatisfaction with the innovations in the Church. In Oxfordshire, many of the insurgents were slain in battle, and their captive ringleaders executed; in Devonshire and Norfolk the spirit of resistance was so resolute and terrible, that successive battles and repeated executions were necessary to subdue it. In Norfolk, the rebels, after losing Norwich by assault, and failing in an attempt to retake it, made a last stand near Dussendale. Here the Earl of Warwick, who had about 7,000 infantry and 3,000 cavalry, with a train of artillery, totally defeated them, with such carnage, that, in the pursuit alone, 3,000 of the rebels were slain. Kit, the tanner, was hanged on Norwich castle; his brother, on Wymondham steeple; and nine of their accomplices, on a large tree, since called the Oak of Reformation, under which the committee of insurgents had held their sittings.

In order to confirm the restoration of internal peace, Somerset published a general amnesty: he did this without consulting

the Privy-councillors in general, which gave many of them offence. His influence over his old partisans began to decline; and the Earl of Warwick, an artful and ambitious member of the Superior Council, was intriguing to procure his fall, in order to succeed to his power. Wriothesley Earl of Southampton, had been Chancellor in the beginning of this reign: but on account of commissioning four substitutes to hear and decide causes during his absence, he was deprived of the seals, and dismissed the Council: the Judges having declared, that his delegating his power to others was an act highly illegal. After being re-admitted into the Council, he united with Warwick to undermine the authority of the Protector. At length, on the 6th of October 1549, Warwick, Lord St. John the president, and six other members of the Council, met at the Bishop of Ely's house in Holborn, and, after some concerted proceedings, sent for the Mayor, Aldermen, and Common-council of London, together with the Licutenant of the Tower, and forbade them to acknowledge the Duke of Somerset as Protector. In consequence of this cabal, Somerset repaired with the young King to Windsor. Next day, Chancellor Riche, and six other members of the executive Council, joined Warwick's party at Ely House. Somerset was desirous of a compromise; and this indecisive conduct induced his friends, who had yet acted with him as members of the collateral Council, to desert him. The triumphant malcontents then addressed a letter to the King, justifying the vote by which they rescinded their election of Somerset as Protector. The young King being advised to assent to their demands, Somerset submitted, and was carried before the Council; whence, after being required to answer prepared articles of impeachment, he was sent to the Tower. Next session a bill of attainder against him was agitated in the House of Peers; but he averted total ruin by confessing that the executive Council had a right to resume the office of joint regents. He was deprived of all his offices, and adjudged to

forfeit all his moveables, with great part of his landed estates, to the King. He was then released, on giving security for his future conduct; and two months afterwards was re-admitted into the Council.

In 1551, Somerset had made great progress in retrieving the King's favour, and began to take measures for regaining the office of Protector. Warwick, now created Duke of Northumberland, not deeming his elevation secure during the life of such a powerful rival, detached the King's affection from his uncle by artful insinuations; and then proceeded to arrest Somerset on a criminal information, charging him with a design to marry his third daughter to the King, and alleging that he had concerted a plan for assassinating the Duke of Northumberland, the Marquis of Northampton, and the Earl of Pembroke. The Peers acquitted him of high-treason, but condemned him to death for simple felony on a statute of Henry VII. which made it felonious to harbour the thought of killing a Privy-councillor. It was not until the 22d of January, 1552, that Somerset was beheaded, under colour of this scandalous sentence. He was much beloved by the populace. The numerous crowd which witnessed his execution sympathised so strongly with him, that they seemed on the eve of attempting his rescue, had he not intreated them to remain quiet. Many of the spectators dipped their handkerchiefs in his blood, and preserved them as precious relics.

DEFINITIONS.

Lord Mayor.—The Supreme Magistrate of the City, chosen annually by the Citizens, pursuant to a charter of King John. The civil government of the City of London resembles the legislative power of the nation: the Mayor, Aldermen, and Common-Councilmen making laws, and governing the City, as the King, Lords, and Commons, preside over, govern, and make laws for the whole nation. No act can be performed in the name of the City of London, without the concurrence of the Common-Council, but they cannot assemble, without a sum-

mons from the Lord Mayor, who nevertheless is obliged to call a Common-Council, whenever it shall be demanded, upon extraordinary occasions, by six respectable citizens, and members of the court.—*Enfield.*

Aldermen, among our Saxon ancestors, was a title of nobility, answering to our Earl or Count at present. In London there are twenty-six Aldermen, each having one of the Wards of the City committed to his care. This office is for life. All the Aldermen are Justices of the Peace by a charter, and are exempted from serving inferior offices; nor can they be put upon assizes, or serve on juries, so long as they continue in office.—*Gregory.*

Common-Council.—A court, in which are made all bye-laws that bind the citizen. Like the parliament, it consists of two houses: an upper, composed of the Lord Mayor and Aldermen; and a lower, of a number of Common-Councilmen, chosen by the several Wards, or representatives of the body of the citizens.



MARRIAGE OF LADY JANE GREY WITH LORD GUILDFORD DUDLEY.

THE Dudleys, who are so conspicuous in the history of Edward, are the son and grandsons of that Dudley who had been minister to Henry VII., and was sacrificed to popular resentment in the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII. That monarch, sensible of the illegality of the sentence, took the son into favour; and finding him brave, industrious, and vigilant, he entrusted him with many important concerns; bestowed on him the title of Viscount de Lisle; and, in his will, constituted him one of his executors. During the minority of Edward, he had been created Earl of Warwick. In the disputes between Somerset and his brother Lord Seymour, Warwick acted a very insidious part, and contributed all in his power to widen the breach.

From the close of 1549, he had assumed the office of Protector, having, by a series of machinations, effected the fall, and ultimately the death, of the Duke of Somerset, as already re-

lated. He had in the interval obtained the dukedom of Northumberland. The state of Edward's health was very precarious. The small-pox had left a disorder on his lungs, which degenerated into a confirmed consumption, and threatened his dissolution. Northumberland, who had formed the design of retaining the sovereign authority after the death of Edward, represented to him, That his sister Mary's antipathy to the reformed religion would dispose her to visit the Protestants with the most dreadful persecutions; and that there was no way of averting the restoration of Popery, but by excluding her from the succession: That the Princess Elizabeth was involved in the only legal objection that could be urged against Mary, for both had formerly been declared illegitimate by different acts of Parliament; and, That as the children of Margaret Queen of Scotland stood excluded under Henry's will, the right of succession devolved on Frances wife of the Marquis of Dorset, eldest daughter of Mary sister of Henry VIII., who after the death of her first husband Lewis XII. of France married Charles Brandon Duke of Suffolk. Northumberland's proposal to Edward, however, was to pass by the Marchioness of Dorset in favour of her daughter Lady Jane Grey, a lady eminent for her learning, knowledge of divinity, and piety. Edward agreed to have the succession submitted to the Council. Meanwhile, the title of Suffolk being extinct, Northumberland induced the King to bestow it on the Marquis of Dorset; and then had a marriage solemnized between his fourth son, Lord Guildford Dudley, and the Lady Jane Grey; hoping by this means to secure the English crown in his family, and to govern the nation according to his own pleasure.

The young King, whose health continued to decline, was at length prevailed on to set aside the claims of his sisters by letters-patent, and to settle the crown on the heirs of Frances, now Duchess of Suffolk. It was observed by the people that Edward daily grew worse from the time that the Dudleys were about

his person. The physicians were dismissed by Northumberland's advice; and the King was put under the care of an ignorant old woman, who undertook to restore him; her medicines seemed but to increase all the distressing symptoms; the art of the physicians, who were recalled, was ineffectual; and shortly afterwards Edward breathed his last. He died at Greenwich on the 6th of July, 1533, in the seventeenth year of his age, and the seventh of his reign, deeply regretted by the whole nation.

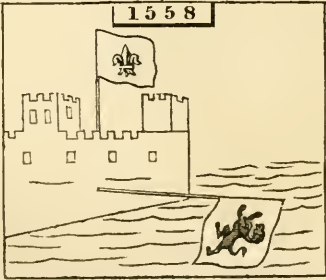
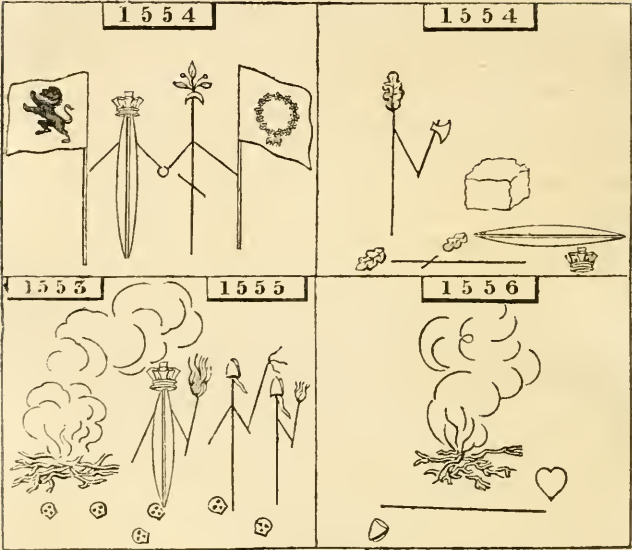
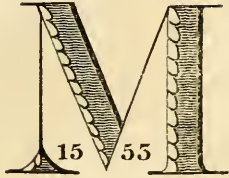


PLATE XXV.

MARY.

Fig. 1.—MARRIAGE OF MARY WITH PHILIP OF SPAIN.

Philip is designated by the olive branch. In his hand is the Spanish standard, inscribed with the golden fleece.

Fig. 2.—EXECUTION OF LADY JANE GREY, AND OF LORD GUILDFORD DUDLEY.

Fig. 3.—THE CATHOLIC RELIGION RESTORED, AND PERSECUTION RENEWED.

The Queen, with a torch in her hand, has just lighted the fire of Persecution. Near her are Bonner and Gardiner: the former holds a whip, the latter a torch. The skulls in the foreground point out the fatal effects of intolerance.

Fig. 4.—DEATH OF CRANMER.

Fig. 5.—CALAIS TAKEN BY THE FRENCH.

MARY.

MARY, daughter of Henry VIII. by Catherine of Arragon, partook more of the violent temper of her father than of the amiable gentleness of her mother. Early accustomed to witness scenes of cruelty, and taught to consider persecution as laudable, and the only expedient for bringing back her subjects to the religion of their forefathers, she beheld with apathy, if not with pleasure, spectacles that, had not the sufferers been heretics, might perhaps have excited her commiseration. Her person was disagreeable; and her manners harsh and unpleasing. Her temper was gloomy; her disposition severe; her understanding contracted, and her religion darkly tinctured with bigotry and superstition. Cruel and tyrannical to her subjects, slighted and neglected by her husband, and unhappy in herself, her character involved every stage of her reign in gloom, the shade of which was illumined only by the blaze of persecuting fires, that served to point out a path of blood.

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MARRIAGE OF MARY WITH PHILIP OF SPAIN.

THE Duke of Northumberland concealed the death of Edward, with the design of securing the Princess Mary. She had been required, by an order of Council, to attend her brother in his illness; and had arrived at Hoddesdon, within seventeen miles of London, when a message from the Earl of Arundel apprized her of Edward's death, and of the steps which had been taken to exclude her from the throne. On this intelligence, she retired to the house of Mr. Huddleston, a Roman Catholic, at Sawston in Cambridgeshire; whence, disguised as a maid-servant, she was conveyed, behind a country-looking man, on horseback, to Kenning Hall, in Norfolk. She then addressed letters to the Council and Lords Lieutenants, requiring them to proclaim her: and at same time sent orders to Sir George Somerset, Sir William Drury, and Sir W. Waldegrave, to

attend her with all the forces they could raise. After these preparatory steps, she withdrew to Framlingham Castle in Suffolk, to secure her escape by sea, in case of not being supported.

Meanwhile the Dukes of Northumberland and Suffolk, the Marquis of Northampton, and the Earl of Pembroke, went as deputies from the Council to Lady Jane Grey, to make known the patent by which Edward had transferred the succession to her, and to salute her as Queen. When she understood the design of their visit, she was overcome with surprise; this giving way to grief, she shed a flood of tears; at last, with the utmost reluctance, she suffered herself to be conveyed to the Tower, in order to be crowned. On the fourth day after Edward's death, she was proclaimed Queen in London; and the Council sent an answer to Mary's letter, advising her to drop her pretensions, as having been born under an unlawful marriage, and to acknowledge the sovereignty of Jane.

The elevation of Jane was totally unexpected by the people; and when they heard her proclaimed, they returned no acclamations. They hated the Duke of Northumberland, as the author of Somerset's ruin. Besides, the claims of Mary were too well established, by being recognized in her father's will, to be affected by any act of her brother, a minor. The remembrance of the senior part of the community could also attest what the nation had suffered in the latest Lancastrian wars, caused by departing from the regular line of succession. Hence Jane had no partisans zealously affected to her, beyond the immediate dependants and connections of the two houses of Northumberland and Suffolk.

To meet the forces which Mary was collecting, the Duke of Northumberland put himself at the head of some troops which had assembled at Newmarket, amounting to 8,000 men. Either distrusting his followers, or conscious of the weakness of his cause, instead of advancing into Suffolk, he loitered near

Cambridge, till the army of Mary amounted to 40,000 men. At this crisis, the Earl of Arundel and Earl of Pembroke, who had concurred with Northumberland and Suffolk from necessity, being detained in the Tower with the other members of the Council, were permitted to repair to the Earl of Pembroke's house, on pretence of conferring with the French ambassador. Instead of which, they invited to the place all the noblemen about London whom they judged well affected to Mary; and after this assembly had solemnly engaged to support her, they imparted their resolution to the Lord Mayor and Aldermen, and had her immediately proclaimed Queen in Cheapside. On this, some companies took possession of the Tower, in the name of Mary, without opposition. Lady Jane Grey, after reigning ten days, resigned her royalty with evident satisfaction, and retired with her mother to the family residence.

The Duke of Suffolk and the rest of the Council acquiesced in these transactions, and signed an order to the Duke of Northumberland to disband his forces. He had already been informed of this sudden revolution, and began to dismiss his army. His first intention was to quit the kingdom; but the band of Pensioners insisted that he must stay to justify their conduct. He then proclaimed Mary in Cambridge, and endeavoured to conciliate her by extravagant demonstrations of zeal for her service. This did not prevent him from being arrested, and brought to trial. Sir Thomas Palmer and Sir John Gates, and several others deeply involved in his treasons, suffered with him on the scaffold.

On the 3d of April, 1553, the Queen made her entry into London, accompanied by her sister Elizabeth, who had joined her with a thousand horse raised for her service. When she arrived at the Tower, she released the Duke of Norfolk, who had remained a prisoner during all the last reign. The Bishops Gardiner, Tonstal, and Bonner, were not only liberated, but admitted to her confidence. Day and Heath were at

the same time restored to their sees. On the other hand, Hooper bishop of Gloucester, and Coverdale of Exeter, with other Protestant clergymen, were imprisoned, because they would not submit to Gardiner as the dispenser of licenses to preach. Divine service was celebrated in the old manner, contrary to subsisting laws. Judge Hales, who had strenuously defended the Queen's title, was treated with such severity for enforcing the unrepealed statutes of Edward, that he fell into a frenzy and committed suicide. The men of Suffolk, who had declared in her favour on her express promise to grant them liberty of conscience, were now restricted by her proclamation, and involved in rigorous prosecutions; and one of the deputies sent to remind the Queen of her engagement was placed in the pillory. Bonner next ventured to assail Cranmer, by coarse ridicule, and by inventing a report that he had promised to recant. Bishop Latimer, and the archbishop, were then summoned before the Council. The former was committed at once to the Tower: Cranmer was sent thither the day after, on a charge of treasonable practices, his written declaration of faith being construed into a seditious libel. The Protestant aliens, who in the preceding reign had taken refuge in England, were allowed to quit the kingdom unmolested; and many useful arts and manufactures which they had introduced fled with them.

It was a better prelude to a coronation to reward with high distinctions those who had first armed in support of the Queen's rights. The Earl of Arundel was made Lord Steward of the Household; on the Earl of Sussex was conferred the privilege of appearing covered in the Queen's presence; the Order of Jerusalem being restored, Sir Thomas Tresham was created Lord Prior, which gave him rank as the premier Baron; the entire scale of creations and promotions attested her gratitude to many others. She was crowned on the first of October 1553; and the same day published an amnesty, which, by being narrowed to the retrospect of a month, and by excluding many

by name who had been arrested since the first of September, seemed to be dictated by a desire to evade the exercise of a princely grace, and to mock the dependants on her clemency. Immediately afterwards, Holgate Archbishop of York was committed to the Tower. It was not until the 3d of November in the same year that Lady Jane Grey, and her husband Lord Guildford Dudley, together with his two brothers, and Archbishop Cranmer, were brought to trial. They pleaded guilty; and the sentence of the law was pronounced upon them. It was supposed, at the time, that Mary did not intend to have the sentence executed upon Lady Jane and her husband, because, from their juvenile age, they were regarded as the innocent and unwilling instruments of Northumberland's ambition. As to Cranmer, the Queen forbore at present to declare the See of Canterbury void; designing that he should be deposed in a canonical manner, and suffer as a heretic, while she made a merit of pardoning his offence against herself. Meanwhile the Archbishop, with the other prisoners, were remanded to the Tower; and the revenues of the primacy sequestered.

How the political relations of the country might be affected by the Queen's marrying, now became a subject of anxious speculation with the public. The son and heir of the Marquis of Exeter, whom she had created Earl of Devonshire, is said to have excited some regard in the mind of Mary: but he had conceived a predilection for the Princess Elizabeth, the discovery of which not only produced in the Queen a coolness towards the Duke his father, but an inveterate dislike to her sister, on whom she accumulated indignities and mortifications.

The accession of Mary to the throne of England was scarcely announced on the Continent, before Charles V. projected a marriage between his son Philip and the Queen; which alliance he expected would compensate for the failure of all his military plans in Germany. With earnest solicitude, he made overtures

on the subject in a letter under his own hand; and Mary was glad to strengthen the connection with her mother's family, and had many political motives for entertaining the proposal. Gardiner, who was now Chancellor, advised her to accept Philip for a husband: but at the same time represented to her the necessity of suspending all farther approaches to a complete reunion of the English Church with the Holy See, until the intended marriage should be concluded; and that the first care of the Government ought to be, to reconcile the people to the introduction of the Emperor's heir, by rendering the conditions as favourable to England as possible, and by securing the ancient laws and popular privileges.

The first intelligence of the negociation alarmed the whole kingdom; and the Commons sent a deputation to the Queen, with a strong remonstrance against an alliance which might bring the nation under foreign dominion. Mary, to avoid their importunity, immediately dissolved the Parliament.

Although Gardiner, who concluded the treaty, had received from the Emperor 12,000,000 crowns, to be distributed to various individuals whose objections could be surmounted only by a bribe, it must be owned that the articles of marriage contained many concessions from Philip to the jealousy and independent spirit of the English. The principal stipulations were:—That although Philip and Mary should bear the conjunct title of King and Queen of England as long as the marriage should subsist, the administration should be vested entirely in the Queen; that no foreigner should fill any public office in the kingdom; that no innovation should be made in the laws, customs, and privileges of the English nation; that Philip should not carry the Queen abroad without her consent; nor any of her children, without the consent of the nobility; that £60,000 a-year should be settled on her, as her jointure; that the eldest son of Philip and Mary should inherit, together with England, Burgundy, and the Low Countries; while the Arch-

duke Charles, the son of Philip by a former marriage, should succeed to the kingdoms of Spain, Naples and Sicily, the duchy of Milan, and the Imperial Fiefs in Italy. If the Archduke Charles should die without issue, the eldest son or daughter of Philip and Mary should succeed to all the dominions of both parents; but should administer the government only by natives of the respective countries. Philip also engaged, that all his domestics should be English, or subjects of the Queen: that in case of his surviving her, he should not arrogate to himself any authority over England, but leave the succession to the lawful heir; and that the alliance between England and France should remain inviolate.

The apprehensions of the people, that Philip would introduce the arbitrary maxims of the Spanish Government, seemed to be increased by the cautious stipulations of the treaty. The ratification of it excited loud murmurs; and was the pretext for a rebellion, contrived for raising Lady Jane Grey once more to the throne. Sir Thomas Wyatt, of Kent, was obliged to precipitate the execution of the project, by the flight to the Continent of Sir Peter Carew of Devonshire, another principal conspirator, whose design had been discovered. Wyatt assembled a small force at Maidstone, and proclaimed that his intention was to prevent the kingdom from being enslaved by the Spaniards. He then repaired to Rochester, and fortified the bridge; here he refused an offer of pardon, expecting to collect a greater force than could be sent against him, as the Queen had disbanded her army. The Duke of Norfolk was sent to suppress the revolt, reinforced only by 500 Londoners. An agent of Wyatt's, pretending to desert, persuaded the Londoners, and the greatest part of the guards, to join the rebels. On this, Norfolk fled, leaving his baggage and artillery; and Wyatt, who had now 4,000 men, marched for London. Although he defeated the remnant of the guards at Westminster, he was unable to force Ludgate: near which place, being inter-

cepted in his retreat by the Earl of Pembroke, who had collected an imposing force of horse and foot, he surrendered with all his followers. Fifty rebels were hanged in the city; and many persons of distinction in Kent, as accessaries to the insurrection. The Duke of Suffolk, who had retired to Warwickshire, was discovered to have a share in the conspiracy, by an intercepted letter from Wyatt. He was taken in disguise, at the house of his own ranger, and was executed before Wyatt. The latter, being tampered with while under sentence, implicated the Marquis of Exeter as privy to the plot; and the suspicions of the Court involved the Princess Elizabeth as an accomplice. Wyatt, however, on his way to execution, implored the forgiveness of the Marquis, for having loaded him with so foul a calumny; and, in the presence of the sheriffs, exculpated Elizabeth. After a strict examination before the Council, the Queen was obliged to dismiss the charge of treason: but the Marquis was sent from the Tower to the castle of Fotheringay; and Elizabeth was committed to the custody of Sir Henry Bedingfield, at Woodstoke.

The marriage of Philip and Mary did not take place till after the execution of Lady Jane Grey; but it will preserve the unity of the subject, to relate in this place the events which connect the treaty with the wedding.

On the 20th of July 1554, Philip arrived at Southampton with a fleet of sixty ships. When he set foot on English ground, he unsheathed his sword; and being presented with the keys of the town by the magistrates, he returned them without speaking one word. The Queen met him at Winchester, where they were married by Gardiner, and their nuptials celebrated with great magnificence. Philip was in his twenty-seventh year, and Mary turned of eight-and-thirty. After the ceremony, they were proclaimed King and Queen of England, France, Naples, and Jerusalem, with many other high-sounding titles. He was a prince of profound dissimulation, and maintained a

reserve which disgusted the English people: nevertheless he brought over great sums of money, which reconciled many persons to the match. In order to conciliate his new subjects, he interceded for several state-prisoners whom Gardiner had devoted to destruction; and obtained the pardon of the Princess Elizabeth, the Archbishop of York, and ten knights. But he could never gain the attachment of the nation, who attributed to his influence some of the most odious acts of Mary.



EXECUTION OF LADY JANE GREY, AND OF LORD GUILDFORD DUDLEY.

THE Duke of Suffolk's connection with the rebellion of Wyatt, brought on the execution of Lady Jane Grey and her husband. She was nowise agitated at receiving a message from the Queen, desiring that she would prepare for immediate death: this summons, which she had long expected, was delivered two days after the execution of Wyatt. Dr. Fecknam, Dean of St. Paul's, who was the bearer of it, persuaded the Queen to grant her a reprieve for three days, that he might have time to attempt her conversion to the Catholic religion. When Lady Jane was informed of this respite, she assured him that it was far from being agreeable to her wishes. In the disputes into which the Doctor drew her, she defended the principal points of the Protestant faith with uncommon strength of reason, and displayed a great fund of knowledge. She employed part of the short period allowed her in writing a letter to her sister, in the Greek language; exhorting her to persevere with fortitude in the maintenance of her principles.

On the day of her execution, her husband, Lord Guildford, had obtained permission to take his last farewell of her: but she would not consent to see him, saying that the meeting would but overcome their fortitude, and increase the anguish of their parting; that they should soon rejoin each other in a

scene where they should be for ever united, and where death could no more have access to them, nor any sorrow disturb their eternal felicity. It had been intended to execute the wife and husband both together, on the same scaffold, on Tower-hill: but the Council, fearing the youth, beauty, and noble birth of the victims, would excite the compassion of the people, gave directions that Lady Jane should be beheaded within the verge of the Tower.

She saw her husband led to execution; and having given him from the window some sign of her remembrance, she calmly awaited the hour that should bring her to a like fate. The sight of his headless body, carried back in a cart, seemed only to strengthen her resolution and constancy. Sir John Gage, constable of the Tower, when he led her to execution, requested her to bestow on him a small present as a perpetual memorial of her; she gave him her tablet, on which she had just written three sentences: one in Latin, one in Greek, and a third in English; the purport of them was, "That though the justice of man was inimical to the body, Divine Mercy would be favourable to the soul; that if her fault deserved punishment, her youth and imprudence merited excuse; and that God and prosperity, she trusted, would shew her favour."

On the scaffold she addressed the spectators, and said, "That her offence was not the having laid her hands upon the crown, but the not rejecting it with sufficient steadiness. That she had erred less through ambition than filial duty; and that though her infringement of the laws had been constrained, she would, by her voluntary submission, make all the atonement now in her power; and that the story of her life might at least be useful, by proving that innocence is no excuse for errors, if they tend to the destruction of the commonwealth."

She then caused herself to be disrobed, and with a steady countenance submitted herself to the executioner.

This amiable, accomplished, and unfortunate lady, was only seventeen years of age when she was beheaded. Being of the same age with the late King, she had received the whole of her education with him. She had acquired a familiar knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages, besides several of the modern tongues, and passed most of her time in study. Roger Ascham, tutor to the Princess Elizabeth, speaks highly of Lady Jane Grey's attainments, and of her love for literature and the polite arts.



THE CATHOLIC RELIGION RESTORED, AND PERSECUTION RENEWED.

NOTHING now retarded the complete reunion of the English Church with the See of Rome, but the determination of the leading families not to restore the lands which had been torn from the monasteries. The new Parliament, which met on the 11th of November 1554, were ready to yield to the Queen and Pope on every other point. On the twenty-ninth of November, Cardinal Pole, as the Pope's legate, gave absolution to both Houses, which the members received on their knees. He prescribed as a penance, that they should repeal all the statutes against the Papal authority. They qualified the repeal with an express clause, that the possessors of alienated church lands should not be disturbed. The Mass was re-established, together with the Liturgy used in the latter part of Henry's reign. The Archbishop of York, the Bishops of St. David's, Chester, and Bristol, were deposed, because they had not lived in celibacy; and those of Lincoln, Gloucester, and Hereford, on pretence that they had preached erroneous doctrines. Of 16,000 inferior ecclesiastics, two-thirds were deprived of their benefices, on account of having been married. Although Cardinal Pole advised in council that the infliction of capital punishments on

the Protestants should be avoided, Gardiner received a commission from the Queen to extirpate heresy; and commenced a cruel persecution under it.

Rogers, prebendary of St. Paul's, a man eminent for virtue as well as learning, was burned in Smithfield. The Commissioners had condemned Hooper, bishop of Gloucester, at the same time; but they sent him to be executed in his own diocese, in the hope of intimidating the parochial clergy under that See. In the midst of the flames he continued to pray, and to exhort the people, till his tongue, swoln with the violence of his agony, could no longer minister to utterance. He was three quarters of an hour in torture, which he bore with inflexible constancy. The next victims were, Sanders a preacher at Coventry, and Dr. Taylor vicar of Hadley.

After these four executions, Gardiner, fearing the hatred of the public, which began to vent itself in murmurs against him, transferred his authority to Bonner, a man of profligate manners. Such was the brutal ferocity with which he exercised the power of persecution, that he seemed to derive enjoyment from inflicting torments. He sometimes whipped the prisoners with his own hands; he is said to have torn out the beard of a weaver, who refused to abjure the Protestant faith; and, in order to give the lacerated sufferer a specimen of burning, held his hand to the flame of a taper until the veins burst, and the sinews were consumed.

At the beginning of Bonner's barbarities, humane persons of all persuasions were so loud in condemning them, that the other Bishops disclaimed the persecution. The odium, of course, fell on the King and Queen; but most pointedly on the King, as having been educated in a country subject to the Inquisition. Philip, being informed that the English entertained an opinion so much to his prejudice, exculpated himself before the whole court, by Alphonso his confessor; who charged the bishops with those cruelties against which the nation ex-

claimed, and challenged them to produce one passage in Scripture authorizing them to put people to death merely for matters of faith. Bonner, confounded, suspended his inhuman rage for some weeks. But such is the dissimulation of Papists, that he soon derived from some quarter encouragement enough to commission the flames with tenfold fury.

Ferrar bishop of St. David's was burned in his own diocese. Ridley and Latimer, prelates of eminent learning and virtue, were martyred together at Oxford. When the first was tied to the stake, he said to his fellow-sufferer, "Be of good heart, brother; for God will either assuage the flame, or enable us to bear it." And Latimer, to cheer him in return, cried out, "We shall this day kindle such a torch in England, as I trust, by God's grace, will never be extinguished."

A young man of the name of Hunter, having unwarily denied the real presence, absconded. Bonner seized his father and threatened him with the greatest severities if he did not produce the young man. Hunter, to save his father, voluntarily surrendered, and was condemned to the flames. The women were nowise inferior to the men in constancy and resolution; cheerfully submitting to the greatest tortures, rather than deny their principles. At length the people had become generally shocked at the diabolical cruelties which had been perpetrated; and every fresh martyrdom was equivalent to a hundred sermons against Popery. The new doctrines continued to spread; and the spectators of the executions gradually displayed a bolder indignation against the remorseless agents of persecution. The Government daily became more odious; and the Queen, not yet satiated with these sanguinary and horrid acts, wrote letters to the magistrates, urging them to pursue the pious work without interruption. In this persecution, which lasted three years, ending in 1557, it is computed that five prelates, twenty-one inferior clergymen, eight lay gentlemen, eighty-four tradesmen; 100 husbandmen, servants, and labourers; fifty-five

women, and four children, perished by fire ; besides those who were punished by fines, imprisonment, and confiscations !

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DEATH OF CRANMER.

DR. THOMAS CRANMER was admired as an eminent scholar, and revered for the sincerity, beneficence, disinterested spirit, and apostolic simplicity of his character, as a Christian and prelate. Henry VIII. entertained a high opinion of his talents as a civilian ; and relied on a treatise of Cranmer's in defence of his divorce, as an invincible chain of argument.

In 1533, Cranmer was made Archbishop of Canterbury. He was strongly attached to the Reformation, but was ever guided by moderation and humanity ; and so skilfully had he managed the capricious and violent temper of Henry, that his enemies were unable to deprive him of the King's confidence. By his conscientious opposition to the Six Articles, which had emanated from the reliques of Popery in Henry's inconsistent mind, he even increased the King's esteem, though he could obtain no relaxation of that intolerant statute.

Upon the accession of Edward VI. Cranmer was taken into the confidence of the Protector, who was directed by his judgment in forwarding the Reformation.

When Mary assumed the sceptre, Cranmer was imprisoned, together with the other Protestant dignitaries. In 1556 she had completed the preparations for his punishment. He was cited by the Pope to take his trial at Rome ; and though it was notorious that he was kept in close custody at Oxford, he was condemned as contumacious for not obeying the summons. A commission, sent to Oxford, then degraded him from the primacy as a heretic. The implacable spirit of the Queen, not satisfied with (what she believed inevitable) the eternal condemnation of Cranmer, conspired with the Popish commis-

sioners and leading clergy to allure him to apostacy, by the offer of life, while they designed to evade the promise of pardon.

A great number of Catholic divines, both natives and Spaniards, assailed him with different engines: they engaged him in doctrinal disputes, threatened him with the consequences of obstinate heresy, intreated him to be reconciled to the Church, and soothed him with the prospect of a pardon, until he was surprised into signing a recantation. As soon as this had been printed and circulated, the Queen sent down a warrant for his execution. He was then conducted to St. Mary's church, where Cole, provost of Eton, extolled his conversion as the immediate work of God's inspiration; assuring the Archbishop that masses should be said for his soul in all the churches of Oxford. During the whole sermon, Cranmer, with his eyes lifted up to heaven, groaned with internal anguish. Being desired to declare his faith, he repeated the Creed of the Apostles, confessing that he had subscribed a paper contrary to his conscience, from the apprehension of death; for which reason the hand that signed the recantation should first feel the torture of the fire. He renounced the Pope as the enemy of Christ, and vindicated the Protestant principles, avowing himself ready to seal with his blood that faith which was founded on the Scriptures. When bound to the stake, without shewing the least sign of pain or agitation, he held out his right hand to the flames until it was entirely consumed; frequently exclaiming, "That unworthy hand!" He afterwards poured forth pious ejaculations until he expired. After his body was destroyed, his heart was found entire, among the ashes.

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CALAIS TAKEN BY THE FRENCH.

MARY seems to have had only two objects in view during her reign: the one, to re-establish Popery; the other, to gratify

the wishes of Philip, even at the expense of undermining the public safety and ruining her country.

In 1555, Charles V. had resigned his dominions to his son Philip. A subsequent cession by Philip, in the same year, of the Imperial dignity to his brother Ferdinand, left Philip the sovereignty of Spain, with that of Naples and other continental territories. In 1556, Pope Paul IV. declared war against the King of Spain, and engaged Henry of France to arm as his ally, promising to assist Henry in the conquest of Naples. The mediation of Mary, nevertheless, effected a truce for five years between the Kings of France and Spain. The Pope having been thus abandoned by his ally, the Duke of Alva invaded his territories, and was approaching Rome; when Henry broke the truce, to which he was instigated by a second embassy from the Pope. Philip now solicited the co-operation of England: he told the Queen that if so reasonable an application for aid was refused, he would never more set foot in England. The Queen, alarmed at this threat, and willing to gratify her husband, prevailed on the Council to espouse his quarrel and declare war against France. Meanwhile, the Pope and the King of Spain compromised their differences.

The town of Calais had at this time all the capabilities of an impregnable fortress. It was well defended by nature, and had been greatly strengthened by art since the time of Edward III. who, at the head of a victorious army, had not taken it until after a siege of eleven months. As it gave the English an easy entrance into France, it was regarded as the most important possession belonging to the Crown. It was now, however, in a comparatively defenceless state. Near the close of 1556, Philip sent intelligence to Mary that the Cabinet of France had projected some attempt on Calais: and offered to supply her with troops for the defence of that fortress. The Council suspected this intimation to be a stratagem of Philip to gain possession of Calais, and advised the Queen to decline the offer.

They equally neglected to reinforce the garrison, or to repair the defences of the place, notwithstanding the repeated solicitations of Lord Wentworth the governor. The ministry were too much occupied in extirpating heresy, to fulfil the proper duties of governors. Calais had been in the hands of the English above 200 years, when the Duke of Guise attacked it by surprise in the depth of winter. Having taken two forts at the first assault, from these he battered the town, and compelled the governor to surrender on the seventh day. He then, with similar rapidity, reduced the dependent town of Guisnes, and the Castle of Hames, the garrisons of which were intimidated by the loss of Calais. Thus, within the short space of fifteen days, all that remained of the English conquests in France was lost by the infatuation and improvidence of the Queen and Council. The whole nation murmured at this important loss attended with indelible disgrace. The ministry were so confounded, that they could not open their mouths in their own justification; and the Queen was overcome with grief and dejection. She was heard to say, that, when dead, the name of Calais would be found engraven on her heart. Philip, who, by his own troops under Spanish generals, had penetrated France from the Netherlands, had gained several important victories, and had taken St. Quintin, pressed her to make a powerful effort for the recovery of the place, before the French had time to repair the fortifications: but the ministry declined the enterprize, in order to be the more terrible at home; and a proclamation of the Queen denounced immediate execution, under martial law, on all those who should receive heretical books without delivering them to the magistrates. Meanwhile the Parliament meeting on the 20th of January 1551, after a subsidy had been granted for the war, some of the partizans of the court proposed an act for giving the force of law to the Queen's proclamations. A member who opposed this, on the ground that such an unlimited power would enable the Queen

to alter the Succession, was committed to the Tower by the House itself. Nevertheless, the bill was not introduced, probably because Mary perceived that the country was tenacious of the right of the Princess Elizabeth. At this time the King of Sweden made overtures of marriage to Elizabeth, which she rejected.

In the month of October, a negociation for a peace between France, Spain, and England, was opened at Cambray. The Queen demanded a supply from Parliament in case the war should continue: but the Commons shewed no readiness to make the grant. Accumulated mortifications, the coldness and neglect of her husband, the consciousness of being hated by her subjects, the disasters of the war, and the prospect of a successor whom she knew to be attached to the Reformation, preyed upon her spirits, and aggravated a dropsy to which she was subject, and which had been improperly treated. She died on the 17th of November 1557, in the forty-third year of her age, after a reign of five years, four months, and eleven days.

PLATE XXVI.

ELIZABETH.

Fig. 1.—RE-ESTABLISHMENT OF PROTESTANTISM.

The triangle represents the British Constitution. The Bible inserted in the centre of it implies that the Protestant religion, having been established as the basis of the National Church, by the King, the Lords, and the Commons, cannot again be overturned without destroying the Constitution itself.

Fig. 2.—CONTEMPORARY STATE OF SCOTLAND.

The escutcheon encloses the symbolical abstract of Scottish History during the reign of Elizabeth. The letter S, which occupies the centre, is rent in several places, to shew the distracted state of Scotland; and the existence of civil war there is further typified by the swords and halberds by which it is environed. In the angles of the escutcheon are separate groups of symbols, illustrating the biography of Mary Queen of Scots. At the top, the division *a* shews her marriage with the Earl of Darnley; *b*, on the right, the assassination of Rizzio; *c*, on the left, the murder of Darnley; and *d*, at the bottom, the execution of Mary.

Fig. 2. (Division a.)—MARRIAGE OF THE QUEEN OF SCOTS WITH THE EARL OF DARNLEY.

Fig. 2. (Division b.)—ASSASSINATION OF DAVID RIZZIO.

Fig. 2. (Division c.)—MURDER OF LORD DARNLEY.

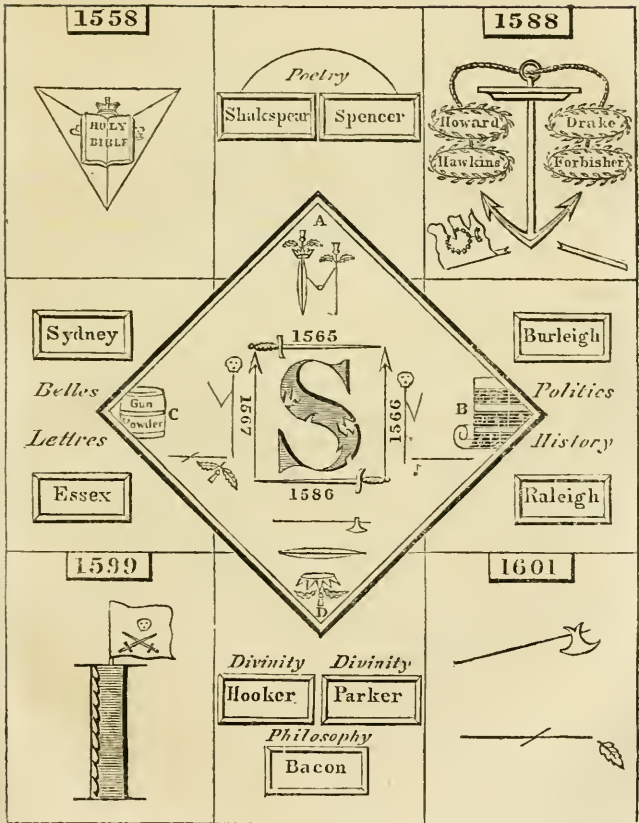
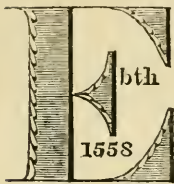
Fig. 2. (Division d.)—DEATH OF MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

Fig. 3.—DEFEAT OF THE SPANISH ARMADA.

The anchor of England has fallen upon and destroyed the Spanish standard. On each side, encircled with wreaths of laurel, are the names of those distinguished commanders under whose auspices that glorious event was accomplished.

Fig. 4.—REBELLION OF TYRONE IN IRELAND.

Fig. 5.—DEATH OF THE EARL OF ESSEX.



ELIZABETH.

THIS illustrious Queen received her education in the best of all schools, the school of adversity; and under this tutor she had made great proficiency in the virtues of self-command, and a disposition not to revenge the injuries when a Queen, which she had received as a Princess. Under able masters in classical learning, liberal studies, and polite accomplishments, she had acquired an intimate knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages, and of ancient history; was well instructed in divinity; had become a ready mistress of French, Italian, German, and Spanish, while she displayed a grace in dancing, and a skilful execution on several musical instruments, which few could emulate. Nature had endowed her with a tenacious memory and a vigorous understanding. Her sagacity, penetration, vigilance, and address, have never been surpassed. These endowments, strengthened and assisted with the solid fruits of application and reflection, combined to give her singular talents for government. By professing a constant regard for the public interest, and acting in correspondence with so elevated a motive for a sovereign, she obtained an uncontrolled ascendancy over her people. She was heroic, but not rash; frugal, but not avaricious; and though never without a favourite, her partiality appears only in one instance to have blinded her judgment, and to have induced her to bestow an important office on a person of inadequate capacity: but the conduct of the Earl of Leicester, in many high trusts and grand expeditions, is a surprising exception to the general wisdom with which she chose her great officers. Her confidential ministers were distinguished for judgment and abilities. In her person, Elizabeth was tall and masculine, but well proportioned. She liked to be complimented on the power of her charms, and on that head was open to the grossest flattery; yet was she never seduced by flatterers into any act that militated against the dignity or interest of her kingdom. She

knew how to command; and though no one ever carried the prerogative to a higher pitch, her good sense prevented her from abusing it to the disadvantage of the nation.

Her unjust detention of the Queen of Scots, was a violation of the rights of hospitality which cannot be palliated: simply to have detained Mary, was incompatible with any claim to magnanimity; to tantalize her with dissembling negotiations or her release was dishonourable; and hardly less cruel than to terminate nineteen years of captivity with a sudden execution. The whole tragedy, from the first act to the catastrophe, is a dark stain on Elizabeth's memory; the darker, because policy might have been generous where malice was severe. In every thing these Queens were rivals; rivals in power, in the promotion of opposite religions, in talents, in accomplishments, in personal charms.* Mary excelled in beauty, and in fascination of manner; Elizabeth in solidity of judgment, and vigour of intellect. Mary captivated as a woman; Elizabeth ruled as a Queen. Self-love, and a misguided pursuit of happiness, led Mary to the commission of indiscreet acts, which involved her under the suspicion of participating in atrocious crimes; self-love, directed by ambition and envy, impelled Elizabeth to take an unworthy advantage of the unhappy circumstances of Mary as a wife and Queen, and the heir presumptive to the throne of England.

The accession of Elizabeth inspired universal joy; for her past dangers and misfortunes had excited the sympathy of the people, and her conduct under them had evinced that she

* No one will hesitate to give the palm of beauty to Mary; but it is well known that Elizabeth always expected the preference. Sir James Melville reports, that the Queen one day asked him which was the tallest, she or Mary? He replied, that Mary was: "then," said Elizabeth, "she must be too tall, for I am just the proper height for a woman."

possessed a firm mind, tempered by prudence. She inagnanimously resolved to bury in oblivion all past offences against herself. She received the congratulations of the different orders with kindness and complacency; and, excepting to Bonner, the cruel and unrelenting persecutor of the Protestants under Mary, she testified to all, sentiments of esteem and regard. She then notified her accession to the foreign Courts, and solicited their friendship and alliance.

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RE-ESTABLISHMENT OF PROTESTANTISM.

ELIZABETH, that she might not alarm her Catholic subjects, retained eleven of her sister's councillors; but, in order to balance their authority, she added eight more, who were distinguished Protestants. Sir Nicholas Bacon was appointed Lord Keeper; and Robert Cecil, Secretary of State. Education and interest equally led her to favour the Reformation: she resolved, however, to proceed by gradual and secure steps. She first liberated such of the Protestants as had been imprisoned on account of religion; and then recalled the natives who had been exiled, and the foreign refugees who had been expelled for the same cause. She next ordered that the Litany, the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, and the Gospels, should be read in English; and after commanding that all churches should conform to the ceremonies in her own chapel, she forbade the Host to be any more elevated in her presence. However inconsiderable this innovation may appear, it was an intelligible prelude to fundamental changes.

A Parliament was soon after summoned, and one of their first acts vested the supremacy over the Church of England in the Queen; a bill was also passed for abolishing the mass, and re-establishing the Liturgy of Edward VI. Thus, in one session, without any violence, tumult, or clamour, was the whole system of religion altered, on the very commencement

of a reign, by the wisdom, prudence, and moderation of a Queen, who was only twenty-five years of age, and reigning without a consort. The Commons voted her a subsidy of four shillings in the pound on land, two shillings and eightpence on moveables, and two fifteenths. In the course of the session, they presented an address to Elizabeth, intreating her to marry, for the benefit of a quiet succession: To which she replied, that England was her husband, and all the English people her children; and that whilst she was employed in governing and protecting them, she never should consider her life useless, or unprofitable. That she desired no higher character, or fairer remembrance of her, should be transmitted to posterity, than to have this inscription engraved on her tomb-stone: "Here lies Elizabeth, who lived and died a maiden Queen."

Philip of Spain, alarmed at the sudden loss of his influence in England, and fearing that the King of France, by powerfully supporting the pretensions of Mary Queen of Scots to the English crown, would ultimately unite not only Scotland, but England and Ireland to his own dominions, had, soon after the accession of Elizabeth, made overtures of marriage to her by his ambassador; but she declined the proposal in a courteous tone, which prevented him from taking offence. She still regarded him as a friend and ally, and he continued to entertain the hope of espousing her. With these inducements, he began to negotiate, in concert with Elizabeth, for a general peace between Spain and France, between England and France, and between England and Scotland. Philip insisted on the restoration of Calais to the English, until the renewal of his suit produced a final repulse from Elizabeth; when he compromised his differences with the French Court, and left the English Government to its own resources. The Queen, thus deserted, signed a peace with France and Scotland in 1559. By the principal treaty, it was stipulated, that the French

King should retain Calais, and the other places lately wrested from the English, for eight years; at the expiration of which time he should restore them to Elizabeth: and if he failed to deliver them up at the appointed period, he was to pay 500,000 golden crowns as a penalty, without being released from the obligation to restore them. In the treaty with Scotland, Elizabeth and Mary mutually contracted not to attempt any thing to each other's prejudice. During the short period in which this peace was observed, Elizabeth devoted her attention to the domestic policy of the nation. She paid off the debts of the crown, restored the purity of the coinage, and furnished her arsenals with great quantities of arms from Germany, and other foreign countries. She introduced into England the art of making gunpowder and brass cannon; fortified the frontier of the kingdom on the side of Scotland; encouraged agriculture, promoted commerce, patronized enterprising navigation; and so much increased the magnitude and number of the ships equipped for the public service, that she was justly styled the restorer of naval glory, and the Queen of the northern seas.

DEFINITIONS.

Secretaries of State.—High officers of State, that have under their management and direction the most important affairs of the kingdom, and are obliged constantly to attend on the King. They have authority to commit persons for treason, and other offences against the State; are members of the Privy Council, and with them is deposited the seal called the signet.

Host, in the Church of Rome, is a name given to the consecrated wafer, enclosed in a kind of covered chalice. When, during the celebration of Mass, the Host is elevated by the priest, a bell is rung for the people to prostrate themselves in token of adoration; as it is generally understood by them that the simple element is transubstantiated, or changed into the real body of Christ.

CONTEMPORARY STATE OF SCOTLAND.

WE have seen, in the preceding reign, that the young Queen of Scots was married to the Dauphin of France, afterwards Francis II. As nearly all the Catholics in England deemed the claims of Elizabeth to the throne to be doubtful, they looked upon Mary of Scotland as the rightful heir; and she was prevailed upon by the councils of France, in conjunction with her husband the Dauphin, to assume the title of King and Queen of England. This public signal of competition and defiance, displayed before the wax of the treaty was cold, not only excited alarm in the breast of Elizabeth, but gave birth to a jealousy of her rival that was never to be appeased; notwithstanding the Dauphin and Mary, through the influence of the Constable, Montmorency, afterwards laid aside the distinctions which had challenged Elizabeth's title.

Henry II. of France having been slain in a tournament near the close of 1559, Mary, as the consort of Francis II., became Queen of France, an elevation of which she was soon deprived by the death of Francis in the following year. In 1561, she returned to Scotland. Although she was received with acclamations by her native subjects, she soon found herself exposed to innumerable mortifications. Such severe laws were in force against her religion, that it was with difficulty she was permitted to celebrate mass in her private chapel. Having been accustomed from her infancy to the splendour and urbanity of the French court, she felt keenly the coarse and harsh manners of her native subjects. Guided by fanaticism instead of reason, the celebrated John Knox mistook insolence for sincerity, and violence for holy zeal. To be a Papist was, in his estimation, to be abominable; and the Queen was continually exposed to contumely and insult. Knox usually called her Jezebel; and though she endeavoured by the most gracious condescension to win his favour, she could make no impression on his obdurate heart.

The Queen of Scots, destitute of any military force, and possessing only a narrow revenue, harassed by a factious nobility, and by the frantic hostility of the Scottish reformers, and the majority of the people whom they influenced, soon perceived that her only expedient was to preserve a good correspondence with Elizabeth. After some delays, occasioned by Mary's desire of being nominated to succeed to the crown of England, and Elizabeth's determination never to declare a successor, that subject was dropped, and both Queens assumed all the appearances of a cordial reconciliation and friendship.



MARRIAGE OF THE QUEEN OF SCOTS WITH THE EARL OF DARNLEY.

THE close connection of Mary with the House of Guise gave just grounds of apprehension to Elizabeth; who dreaded lest the Scottish Queen should form any powerful foreign alliance, which might tempt her to revive her pretensions to the crown of England, and to invade the kingdom on the side where it was weakest and most exposed. She therefore, by her minister in Scotland, exhorted Mary to marry some English nobleman; which would remove all grounds of jealousy, and cement the union between the two kingdoms. She even proposed that she should marry Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester; but no sooner did Mary seem inclined to acquiesce in the proposal, than Elizabeth receded. The duplicity of her conduct in this instance produced a coolness between the two Queens; but harmony was again restored by the interposition and address of Sir James Melville.

At length Mary's councillors and subjects began to think it full time that some marriage was concluded; and the Earl of Darnley was generally considered as a fit person to share the throne of Scotland: for being nearly allied to Mary, he would by espousing her preserve the royal dignity in the family of

Stuart; and as he was, after her, the next heir to the English throne, it was deemed no inconsiderable advantage that she could by marrying unite both their claims. Elizabeth, though secretly pleased with her choice, yet affected great displeasure at it, in order to conciliate the popular party in Scotland. The marriage of Mary with Darnley took place in 1565.



ASSASSINATION OF DAVID RIZZIO.

PREVIOUS to her marriage with Darnley, the conduct of Mary had not only been unexceptionable, but laudable; nevertheless, differing from her people in religious principles, she was suspected of insincerity; and a letter that she wrote to the Council of Trent, in which, after alluding to her title to the crown of England, she expressed a hope of being one day able to bring back all her subjects to the bosom of the church, alarmed the Reformers, and increased their distrust. The Duke of Chateleraud, the Earl of Murray, and some of the nobility, jealous of the favour shewn to the King's friends, convened secret meetings at Stirling, under the pretence of an anxious concern for the security of religion; but the prompt and vigorous measures of Mary put a stop to these machinations, and compelled those persons to seek safety in England.

It was not long after her marriage when Mary discovered that the mind of Darnley was nowise correspondent to the beauty of his person. In the first effusion of her fondness, she had taken a pleasure in exalting him above measure; but perceiving his weakness and his vices, she determined to restrain her liberality, and to be more reserved in the trust she reposed in him. His resentment at this conduct increased her disgust; meanwhile he was preparing to take vengeance on every one whom he deemed the cause of this change in her behaviour.

There was in the court a musician, one David Rizzio, a Piedmontese of mean birth, who had come into Scotland in

the train of an ambassador from the Duke of Savoy. As he possessed a good ear and a tolerable voice, Mary retained him in her service. Her secretary for French dispatches having incurred her displeasure, she promoted Rizzio to that office, which gave him frequent access to her person. He soon became so great a favourite, that no honours nor offices were to be obtained from the Queen, but through his interest; in consequence of which he became insolent and overbearing. He had at first employed his credit in promoting the marriage of Darnley; but on the Queen's change of sentiments, the latter was persuaded by his friends that the alienation of her affection was owing to her partiality for Rizzio. Impelled by jealousy and revenge, Henry combined with the discontented nobles to remove the favourite by assassination.

On the 9th of March 1565, about seven in the evening, when Mary was at supper, in her own apartment, with the Countess of Argyle, David Rizzio, and several other persons, Darnley entered the room by a private passage, and stood behind Mary's chair. The conspirators then rushed into the room, and, overturning every thing in their way, seized the unhappy Rizzio, who vainly attempted to save himself by clinging to the Queen for protection; he was dragged into another room, where he was dispatched, receiving in the struggle fifty-six wounds. The unhappy Queen, hearing of his fate, immediately dried her tears, saying, "Henceforth I will weep no more, but meditate revenge."

At this crisis the Queen was advanced six months in her pregnancy: but as if it had not been enough to begin the murder of Rizzio in her presence, Ruthven, one of the assassins, was permitted by her husband to return and upbraid her with the past measures of her administration.

The assassins, fearing Mary's resentment, detained her a prisoner until their safety was assured, by the King's declaration that nothing had been done but by his orders.

DEFINITION.

Council of Trent.—An ecclesiastical council, assembled by the Popes Paul III., Julius III., and Pius IV., to correct, illustrate, and fix with precision the doctrine of the Church, to restore the vigour of its discipline, and to reform the lives of its ministers.



MURDER OF LORD DARNLEY.

THE outrage perpetrated against Mary by the murder of one of her servants, under circumstances which seemed contrived for filling her with horror and affliction, increased her aversion to her husband. Taking advantage of his fickleness and irresolution, she proposed an accommodation. Henry embraced the offer, and she recovered her liberty. On her return to Edinburgh, she persuaded him to disavow any concurrence with the assassins of Rizzio, and even to publish a proclamation containing a falsehood so notorious to the world.

Having thus rendered him contemptible, she laid aside all marks of regard for him. He was, however, permitted to have apartments in the castle of Edinburgh; where Mary was delivered of a son, in 1566. This event gave great joy to all her partisans, both in Scotland and England; and so much had she gained upon the hearts of all, by her late moderation and condescension in pardoning the assassins of Rizzio, that the public were willing to ascribe her imprudence to her youth and inexperience. The calm was deceitful; and Mary was destined to feel the severest of misfortunes, aggravated by the horrors of self-reproach.

The Earl of Bothwell, a Scottish nobleman of ancient family and considerable power, but destitute of talents either military or civil, and notorious for his vices and profligacy, had succeeded Rizzio as the favourite of Mary. Reports injurious to her honour were in continual circulation. Henry, on retiring to Glasgow, was seized with an extraordinary illness, which

was ascribed to poison, administered by the agents of a confederacy originating with the Earl of Murray, and involving Secretary Lidington and the Earls of Bothwell and Morton Mary, when she heard of Darnley's illness, immediately undertook a journey to see him; and behaved towards him with so much tenderness, that he put himself implicitly in her hands, and attended her to Edinburgh. She lived in the palace of Holy-rood House; but as the situation of it was low, she fitted up a house for her husband in a retired place at some distance, called the Kirk of Field. Mary here treated him with kindness and attention, conversed cordially with him, and slept some nights in an apartment under his chamber; but on the ninth of February she told him she would pass that night in the palace, because the marriage of one of her servants was to be celebrated in her presence. About two o'clock in the morning the whole town was thrown into the utmost confusion and alarm; and the people were still more astonished when they understood that the house in which the King lay was blown up with gunpowder, and his dead body found at some distance in a neighbouring field.

Few persons doubted that Bothwell was accessory to this atrocious deed; and the public voice in Edinburgh elamorously inveighed against him as the author of the plot. When it was found that the man who was suspected of being the King's murderer still retained the favour and confidence of the Queen, it was justly inferred that she was an accomplice in his guilt. Shortly afterwards, when Mary, who had been to see her infant son, was on her return to Stirling, Bothwell, at the head of 800 horse, intercepting her, seized and carried her to Dunbar, with the most criminal intentions. Some of the nobility privately informed her, that if she was detained by force, they would use all their efforts to reseue her. Her answer was, that though she was carried off by force, yet she had been so well treated since her arrival, that she willingly remained with Both-

well. Very shortly after, in despite of all decency, she married him, he having for that object divorced his wife.

All Europe was filled with amazement and concern at this fresh instance of guilty imprudence, which covered the actors of it with eternal infamy.



DEATH OF MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

THE marriage of Mary with Bothwell was equally displeasing to men of all ranks and persuasions. The Earl of Athol, a staunch Catholic, put himself at the head of a confederacy to protect the infant Prince from the attempts of Bothwell. Lord Hume was the first who took up arms against Mary; he defeated her at Carberry Hill, from whence he conducted her to Edinburgh. Bothwell fled to Dunbar, and from thence to Denmark, where he was thrown into prison, lost his reason, and died miserably: an end worthy of his flagitious conduct and behaviour. Mary was imprisoned in Lochleven Castle, situated in a lake of that name, where she was treated with much hardship and severity. Elizabeth, who was fully informed of all these incidents, was touched with compassion for the unfortunate Queen. Her fears and jealousies being now laid asleep, she reflected on the instability of human greatness, and the danger of encouraging rebellious subjects. She sent Sir Nicholas Throgmorton ambassador into Scotland, in order to remonstrate both with Mary and the confederated Lords. She intreated the former to lay aside all thoughts of revenge, except against the murderers of her husband; and also to send the young Prince to England to be educated. To the confederated Lords she urged, that whatever blame she might throw upon Mary's conduct, it did not become them to punish the mal-administration of their Prince; she even required them to restore the Queen to liberty, and promised them in that case to concur with them in all proper expedients for regulating the

government. After a long debate, it was determined by the confederated Lords to depose the Queen, to acknowledge her son as King, under the title of James VI., and during the minority to vest the regency in the Earl of Murray. An instrument was quickly drawn up to this effect; and the unhappy Queen, believing that no deed which she executed during her captivity could be valid, was prevailed on to sign it.

George Douglas, brother to the Laird of Lochlevin, was induced, from motives of compassion, to attempt freeing the Queen from captivity; he conveyed her in disguise into a small boat, and himself rowed her on shore. She hastened to Hamilton; and the news of her arrival being quickly spread abroad, many of the nobility quickly flocked to her with their forces. The Regent, upon receiving intelligence of her escape, immediately assembled an army to oppose her. A battle was fought at Langside, near Glasgow: the Queen was defeated, and fled into England. On her arrival at Workington, in Cumberland, she dispatched a messenger to Elizabeth, notifying her arrival, desiring leave to wait on her, and craving her protection. To this appeal Elizabeth replied, that she could not be admitted to her presence until she had cleared herself of her husband's murder; and exhorted her to submit her cause to her arbitration. After some delays Mary reluctantly consented. Commissioners were appointed by the English Court for the examination of this important cause, which was to be held at York. The English Commissioners were, the Duke of Norfolk, the Earl of Sussex, and Sir Ralph Sadler. On the part of Mary were, Lesley Bishop of Ross, the Lords Herries, Livingstone, and Boyde, with three persons more. The Earl of Murray, Regent, the Earl of Morton, the Bishop of Orkney, Lord Lindesay, and the Abbot of Dunfermline, were appointed Commissioners from the King and kingdom of Scotland. Secretary Lidington, George Buchanan, the famous poet and historian, with some others, were named as assistants. Hitherto

the conduct of Elizabeth had been so equal, that each side accused her of partiality towards their adversaries.

Mary's Commissioners, before they gave in their complaints against her enemies in Scotland, entered a protest that their appearance in the cause should nowise affect the independence of her crown, or be construed as a mark of subordination to England. The complaint of that Princess was next read, detailing the injuries she had suffered since her marriage with Bothwell. The Earl of Murray, in answer, gave a summary of the late transactions, and transmitted the following queries to Elizabeth. First, Whether the English Commissioners had authority from their Sovereign to pronounce sentence against Mary, in case her guilt should be fully proved before them? Secondly, Whether they would promise to exercise that authority, and proceed to an actual sentence. Thirdly, Whether the Queen of Scots, if she were found guilty, should be delivered into the hands of the Regent, or at least be so secured in England, that she should never be able to disturb the tranquility of Scotland? And fourthly, Whether Elizabeth would also in that case promise to acknowledge the young King of Scotland, and protect the Regent in his authority?

Elizabeth, under pretence that the distance from her person retarded the Commissioners, ordered them to come to London, and there continue their conference. She gave a satisfactory answer to all Murray's demands; and declared, that though she wished and hoped to be convinced of Mary's innocence, yet should that Princess be proved guilty of her husband's murder, she should deem her unworthy of a throne. To the accusation of being an accomplice in the murder of Darnley, Mary's Commissioners refused to reply, saying, they had orders from their mistress, if any thing was advanced that touched her honour, not to make any defence, as she was a sovereign Princess, and could not be subject to any tribunal. The proceedings therefore were stopped; and orders were given for

removing the Queen of Scots from Bolton to Tutbury, where she was put under the custody of the Earl of Shrewsbury.

The Duke of Norfolk, a man of the most amiable manners, and, from his rank, wealth, and power, confessedly the first subject in the kingdom, began to conceive hopes of restoring the Queen of Scotland to her throne, and of sharing the regal power with her, so soon as she could be legally divorced from Bothwell. In this project he was supported by all the Catholic party, both in England and Scotland. The Kings of France and Spain promised their concurrence. This scheme did not escape the vigilance and penetration of Elizabeth and her ministers: Norfolk was seized and sent to the Tower; but was soon after released, upon promise of abandoning the party of Mary. Being, however, again detected in a conspiracy, he was seized, brought to trial, and executed on May the 8th, 1572. The Earl of Northumberland, for a similar offence, was also brought to the scaffold. Several other conspiracies in favour of Mary were subsequently undertaken and detected; and many persons suffered imprisonment and death, as her emissaries and partisans. The plot of Anthony Babington, which was set on foot by the intrigues of the Pope, the Court of Spain, and the House of Guise, not only brought on the destruction of that accomplished young man, but hastened the end of the unhappy Queen they meant to serve. The plan of this conspiracy was the assassination of Elizabeth, a foreign invasion, and an insurrection at home. According to some representations these designs were all made known to Mary, and received her assent; she observing, that the death of Elizabeth was a necessary circumstance. Secretary Walsingham, who was secretly informed of all their plans, suddenly seized the conspirators, fourteen of whom were condemned and executed. Elizabeth and her ministers, finding that whilst Mary lived machinations in her favour would still be formed, resolved to bring her to trial "as a traitor concerned in the conspiracy of

Babington;" for which purpose a commission, consisting of forty noblemen and privy councillors, were empowered to examine and pass sentence on her.

The commissioners came to Fotheringay Castle, and sent Sir Walter Mildmay and some others to inform Mary of her approaching trial. At the first she protested against their right to try an independent Princess, but was at length prevailed on to submit. She admitted that she had promised to transfer to Philip of Spain her right to the kingdom of England, if her son should refuse to be converted to the Catholic faith; but denied having any knowledge of, or concern in, Babington's conspiracy against Elizabeth, although Mary's secretaries had made a full confession of all the circumstances, or had fabricated a correspondence to implicate her. Mary was condemned, and the sentence was ratified by both Houses of Parliament. Elizabeth, though highly pleased to get rid of a formidable rival, affected great reluctance to execute the sentence against her; hoping by this means to secure herself from the imputation of cruelty and injustice. Great efforts were made by the foreign Powers, and by the young King of Scots, to avert the doom of Mary, but in vain; the fatal warrant was signed, and on the eighth of February 1587, the temporal sorrows and misfortunes of the Queen of Scots were to receive their termination.

This unfortunate Queen was executed at Fotheringay Castle, in a room hung with black for the occasion. Her behaviour under this severe trial was dignified and composed. She beheld without dismay the scaffold, the executioner, and all the preparations of death. When the executioner offered to assist in disrobing her, she smiled, and said she was not accustomed to undress before so large a company. One of her maids, whom she had appointed for that purpose, covered her eyes with a handkerchief: then laying herself down, without any sign of fear or trepidation, her head was severed from her body at two strokes.

Thus perished, in the 45th year of her age, and the 19th of her captivity, Mary Queen of Scots.

The beauty of her person was only excelled by the sweetness of her address, and the charms of her conversation. Her mind appears to have been formed for the residence of every virtue: early accustomed to the voice of adulation, of an impetuous temper but warm affections, the neglect of her husband roused the feelings of resentment; contempt and hatred ensued; the violence of her enemies, and the flattering arts of a designing villain, hurried her into connection with a party, at whose crimes we recoil with horror; of being accessary, however, to the conspiracy against her husband, it is a relief to the pained mind to acquit her. In a private station Mary might have been an exemplary wife and mother. When we reflect on the temptations attending her elevated rank, charity would induce us to throw the mantle of pity over those parts of her conduct which justice will not allow us to palliate. Happy are they whom Providence has placed in less dangerous situations. But while we condemn the crimes which are the subjects in dispute between her apologists and her accusers, let us not refuse a tear to the misfortunes of the unhappy and misguided Mary Stuart.

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DEFEAT OF THE SPANISH ARMADA.

AFTER the death of Mary Queen of England, Philip II. of Spain, who was very desirous of annexing Britain to his already extensive dominions, hoped that her sister Elizabeth would have accepted his proffered vows; but that Princess, who determined never to risk her power, or share it with a husband, declined his offer. Philip soon manifested his displeasure at this resolution, and returned the collar of the Order of the Garter, which Elizabeth had sent him. The Reformation having spread with rapidity over the Continent, Philip determined to extirpate the Protestants in his dominions. Elizabeth

was long restrained, by being in a state of peace with Henry III. of France and Philip of Spain, from openly assisting either the Huguenots, as the Protestants were called in France, or the proselytes to the Reformation in the Low Countries; who had alike been exposed to the most dreadful persecutions.* She, however, connived at the transmission to them of money and arms, and other supplies raised by voluntary contributions among her subjects.

In 1585 she concluded a league with the United States of Holland; and sent over 5,000 foot and 1,000 horse to assist them in throwing off the Spanish yoke. This produced an implacable hatred in Philip; and Elizabeth, finding a war with that monarch inevitable, determined to attack the most defenceless part of his dominions. She sent a fleet of twenty sail, under the command of Sir Francis Drake,† to annoy the Spanish Settlements in the West Indies. They took St. Jago, near Cape Verd, by surprise; made themselves masters of St. Domingo

* Charles IX. of France, his mother Catherine of Medicis, and the family of Guise, planned the massacre of St. Bartholomew; by which upwards of 10,000 persons, amongst whom was the great and good Admiral de Coligni, were butchered in Paris alone.

During the reign of Charles V. of Spain, it is computed that 100,000 persons perished in defence of their religious principles. Under the reign of Philip II. the Duke of Alva boasted, that, in the space of five years, he had delivered 18,000 heretics into the hands of the executioner.

† Sir Francis Drake was born at Tavistock in Devonshire, in 1545. He was the son of Edmund Drake, a sailor, but was brought up under the care of Sir John Hawkins, who was his kinsman. In expeditions to South America in 1570, 1571, 1572, he made a considerable fortune by predatory descents on the Spanish settlements in the Isthmus of Darien. By means of Sir Christopher Hatton, the Vice-Chancellor, he obtained permission of the Queen to conduct a voyage of discovery into the South Seas. In the prosecution of this

and Carthagena : and burned St. Augustine and St. Helena, two towns on the coast of Florida.

In 1587, Elizabeth having been apprized that Philip of Spain was preparing a great armament to invade England, sent the same great commander to destroy his flotilla in the harbour. Sir Francis Drake attacked the Spanish fleet lying at Cadiz, and burned 100 vessels laden with ammunition and naval stores, and destroyed a great ship belonging to the Marquis of Santa Cruz. He next insulted Lisbon; and on his return was so fortunate as to meet with, and capture, a rich Spanish ship returning from the East Indies. This short expedition greatly encouraged the English seamen, and taught them to despise the unwieldy ships of the enemy. The intended expedition against England was by this means retarded a twelvemonth, which enabled the Queen to mature her arrangements by land and sea for repelling the meditated invasion.

In 1588 the formidable fleet of Philip, ostentatiously styled the Invincible Armada, was completely equipped. It was commanded by the Marquis of Santa Cruz, a sea-officer of great reputation and experience. A large armament, consisting of a flotilla, having on board 50,000 land forces, under the command of the Duke of Parma, was destined to sail from various ports in the Netherlands, to co-operate with the principal Spanish fleet. The most renowned princes and nobles of Italy and Spain were ambitious of sharing in the honour of this great enterprize. About 2,000 Spanish volunteers, many of them men of family, had enlisted in the service; and no doubt was entertained but that such vast preparations, conducted by officers of consummate skill, must be successful. The Queen was not backward in making preparations to repel this for-

undertaking he passed the Straits of Magellan, and on the 25th of Sept. 1578, entered the Pacific Ocean; and after sailing onwards to the East Indies, he returned by the Cape of Good Hope, A. D. 1580. He was the first Englishman who sailed round the globe.

midable armament: all the commercial towns in England were required to furnish a certain number of ships to reinforce the navy, which did not at this time exceed twenty sail. The only advantage of the English consisted in the bravery and dexterity of the seamen. Lord Howard, of Effingham, was appointed Admiral of the Fleet. Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher, the most renowned navigators in Europe, served under him. The principal fleet was stationed at Plymouth; a smaller number, commanded by Lord Seymour, lay off Dunkirk, in order to intercept the Duke of Parma, the most consummate general of the age. The southern coast of England was defended by an army of 20,000 men, disposed in different detachments: a second army, consisting of 22,000 foot, and a thousand horse, under the command of the Earl of Leicester, was stationed at Tilbury, to guard and defend the capital. Lord Hunsdon commanded a third army, amounting to 36,000 horse and foot, for the defence of her Majesty's person. The Queen, undismayed by the present dangers, gave all her orders with tranquillity: and, more to animate the martial spirit of the nation, she appeared on horseback in the camp at Tilbury: exhorting the soldiers to remember their duty to their country and their religion; professing her intention, though a woman, to lead them against the enemy, and rather to perish at their head than to survive the ruin and slavery of her people. This spirited behaviour so animated her men, that their attachment to her person became quite enthusiastic.

The Spanish Armada was ready to sail the beginning of May; but just as they were putting to sea, the Marquis of Santa Cruz died. The command was then given to the Duke of Medina Sidonia, a nobleman of great family, but totally inexperienced, and ignorant of sea affairs. At length, on the twenty-ninth of May 1588, the Armada set sail from Lisbon; but a tempest the next day sunk some of the smaller ships, and forced the rest to take shelter in Corunna and other parts of Spain. Having

speedily repaired the damage, they again put to sea. The fleet consisted of one hundred and thirty ships; of which 100 were larger than any that had ever before been used in Europe. It carried on board 19,000 soldiers, near 9,000 mariners, and 2,630 pieces of brass ordnance. It was victualled for six months, and was attended by twenty smaller ships. After the Armada was under sail, the Spaniards took a fisherman, who informed them that the English Admiral, having heard that the tempest had dispersed the Spanish fleet, had retired to Plymouth, laid up his ships in the harbour, and discharged most of the men. Upon this false intelligence, the Spanish Admiral conceived hopes of destroying the fleet in the harbour, and sailed directly for Plymouth. A Scotch pirate informed the English of the enemy's approach.

Effingham gave orders not to come to close fight with the Spaniards, but to cannonade them at a distance. A large galleon, on board of which was a considerable part of the Spanish money, took fire by accident, and, together with another ship of the same class, was taken by Sir Francis Drake. As the Armada proceeded up the Channel, the English hung upon its rear, and harassed it with vigorous but desultory attacks. The size of the Spanish ships was no advantage to them; their bulk exposed them to the fire of the enemy, whilst their cannon, placed too high, shot over the heads of the English. Whilst the Spaniards lay before Calais, expecting that the Duke of Parma would put to sea and join his forces to them, the English admiral practised a successful stratagem. He took eight of the smaller vessels, and filling them with combustible materials, sent them, one after another, into the midst of the enemy. The Spaniards, taking them for fire-ships, immediately cut their cables, and took to flight with the greatest disorder and precipitation. The English fell upon them next morning, whilst in confusion; took, sunk, and drove on shore thirteen of the enemy, besides damaging a great many others. A violent tempest overtook the Armada,

after it had passed the Orkneys, and drove many of their ships on the coasts of Ireland and Scotland, where they were wrecked. Of the whole Armada, but three and fifty ships returned to Spain; and the seamen as well as soldiers who survived were so overcome with hardships and fatigue, that they filled all Spain with accounts of the desperate valour of the English, and of the tempestuous violence of the ocean by which they are surrounded.

Such was the miserable and dishonourable conclusion of an enterprize which had been preparing for three years; which had exhausted the revenue and force of Spain; and filled all Europe with anxiety or expectation.

The spirit and courage of the English were now excited to attempt invasions in their turn, which they executed in numerous descents on the coast of Spain, that tended greatly to harass the enemy, but was attended with considerable expense to England. The naval officers of this reign were alike distinguished for spirited enterprizes and for personal bravery. The names of Howard, Drake, Hawkins, Frobisher, Cavendish, and Raleigh, will ever stand foremost in the list of fame: under these renowned warriors the English navy began to take the lead, and has since continued irresistible.

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REBELLION OF TYRONE IN IRELAND.

THOUGH the English had now been masters of Ireland upwards of four centuries, their authority hitherto had been little more than nominal. The Irish Princes and nobles paid exterior marks of obedience to a power they were unable to resist; but being treated with cruelty and neglect, they every day became more formidable. Hugh O'Neal, a man noted for perfidy and cruelty, had been raised by the Queen to the dignity of Earl of Tyrone; but he preferred a life of rapine to opulence and tranquillity, and secretly fomented the discontents of the other chieftains, in the hope of overturning the English Government. At length he

openly rebelled, and entered into a correspondence with Spain. Sir John Norris, and Sir Henry Bagnal, who were successively sent over to oppose him, were equally unfortunate; and Tyrone assumed the character of deliverer of his country, and patron of Irish liberty.

In 1590, the Earl of Essex was made governor of Ireland, with the title of Lord Lieutenant, and invested with greater authority than had ever been conferred on any of his predecessors. He was also furnished with an army of 20,000 foot, and 2,000 horse: a force which it was thought would overwhelm the rebels, and in one campaign make an entire conquest of Ireland. Essex, instead of at once attacking Tyrone in the province of Ulster, according to his instructions, fell into the same errors as his predecessors, whom he had so loudly condemned: he wasted his time and forces in frivolous enterprizes; sickness appeared amongst his men, and carried off so many, that he was forced to write to the Council for a reinforcement of 2,000 men. His demand was complied with; but the army was so very averse to the undertaking, and so terrified with the character of Tyrone, that many deserted: finding himself therefore incapable of effecting any thing of moment, he concluded a truce with Tyrone, renewable every six weeks.

This truce was very ill observed: in less than three months the rebels had overrun almost the whole kingdom. Their chief, pretending to be the champion of the Catholic religion, was not only encouraged by the Pope, but a body of Spaniards came over to his assistance. Lord Mountjoy, who had been appointed to succeed Essex in the government of Ireland, was a man of considerable capacity and vigour; he penetrated into Ulster, and defeated the rebels with considerable loss. He afterwards defeated the Spaniards at Kinsale, and expelled them from the island. Tyrone, dispirited by his multiplied losses, at length surrendered; which event put an end to the Irish war, in the year 1603.

DEFINITION.

Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.—A Viceroy, who has all the state and splendour of a King of England, except being served on the knee. Prior to the Union of 1802, he had the power of making war and peace, of bestowing all the offices under the Government, of dubbing knights, and of pardoning all crimes except high treason; he also called and prorogued the Parliament, though no bill could pass without the Royal assent. He was assisted in his government by a Privy Council; and on his leaving the kingdom, he appointed the Lords of the Regency, who governed during his absence.



DEATH OF THE EARL OF ESSEX.

ROBERT DEVEREUX, Earl of Essex, was one of the most accomplished men in the court of Elizabeth, and a munificent patron of literature. Elegant in manners, brave, open, sincere, and eloquent, he became a decided favourite with the Queen. He had early distinguished himself for bravery in Holland, where he served under the Earl of Leicester. On his return, he rose rapidly into favour, and was made Master of the Horse. He accompanied Sir Francis Drake and Sir John Norris in their expedition to Portugal, and was joint commander with Lord Howard in the expedition against Cadiz. In 1597 he was made Earl Marshal of England, and, upon the death of Lord Burleigh, Chancellor of Cambridge.

The great favour which Essex enjoyed with his royal mistress created him many enemies; and being of an impetuous temper and high spirit, he would ill brook any controul, or even opposition. Being once engaged in a dispute with the Queen, respecting a person proper for the government of Ireland, he so far forgot both his duty and civility, that he turned his back upon her in the most contemptuous manner. Elizabeth was so irritated by this insolence, that she gave him a box on the ear. Essex, instead of recollecting himself, and suing for pardon,

clapped his hand upon his sword, and swore that he would not have borne such an affront from Henry VIII. This misconduct was however forgiven, and he was made Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. His administration there gave his enemies an opportunity of accusing him to the Queen. Informed of their machinations, he quitted Ireland, in defiance of her positive commands to the contrary, and suddenly presented himself before her. He was afterwards disgraced, and all his employments taken from him except the office of Master of the Horse. He was committed to the custody of the Lord Keeper, with whom he continued six months; but being denied some favour that he solicited, his indignation burst all bounds. He refused to attend the Council, when summoned; and detained in his own house, under the custody of some of his armed followers, the Earl of Worcester, Lord Chief-justice Popham, and some other members of the Council, who were sent by the Queen to inquire the meaning of the select meeting, comprehending three hundred persons of distinction, which had assembled under his roof, and of the large concourse of people waiting in the street. Essex, then, leaving two hundred men to defend his house, repaired to the city; and exclaiming, "For the Queen! For the Queen! My life is in danger!" endeavoured to engage the citizens to rise in his support. Not being joined there by one single person, and many of his followers stealing away, obstructed in his return through the heart of the city, and proclaimed a traitor, he with difficulty escaped in a boat to Essex-house. Being besieged by several regiments, with artillery, he surrendered at ten at night, and was conveyed to the Tower. He was tried by his Peers, and condemned for high-treason; and on the 25th of Feb. 1601, was beheaded within the Tower, in the thirty-fourth year of his age.

Elizabeth had formerly given the Earl a ring, as a pledge of her affection for him; solemnly promising that whatever disgrace he might fall into, if he sent her that token, she would

save him from his enemies. This ring he now sent by the Countess of Nottingham: who, being his secret enemy, never delivered it. The Queen from day to day put off signing the fatal warrant, expecting he would claim her mercy; but at length, wearied out with the importunities of her ministers, who ardently desired the death of Essex, and angry at his supposed obstinacy, she signed the warrant for his execution.

Elizabeth did not long survive the Earl; relinquishing the attempt to be cheerful, she sighed and wept insensibly; but, besides this, she had many other causes of grief and mortification: she began to perceive the advances of age and infirmity, and that her courtiers were remitting their attentions to her, through an impatient haste to secure the favour of her nephew, the King of Scots.

The Countess of Nottingham falling ill, desired to see the Queen, having something of importance to communicate. In this interview, she acknowledged the Earl of Essex's commission. Elizabeth in astonishment, overcome by surprise, grief, and vexation, shook the dying Countess in the bed, exclaiming, "God may forgive you, but I never can!" and thenceforth resigned herself to the influence of an incurable melancholy. She refused food and sustenance, and lay ten days and nights upon cushions, venting her sorrow in tears and groans. Her end was now visibly approaching; and having declared the King of Scots her successor, she expired in the seventieth year of her age, and forty-fifth of her reign.

DEFINITIONS.

Earl Marshal of England is the eighth great officer of state. The title is personal, and the office honorary. It was made hereditary in the family of Howard Earl of Norfolk, by Charles the Second, in 1672.

Chancellor of Cambridge.—The head or chief of the whole university.

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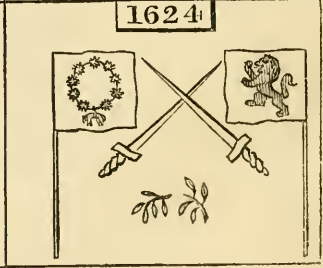
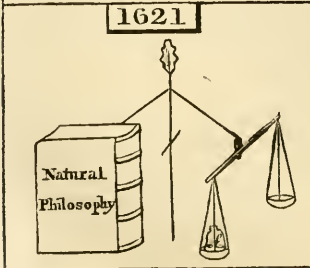
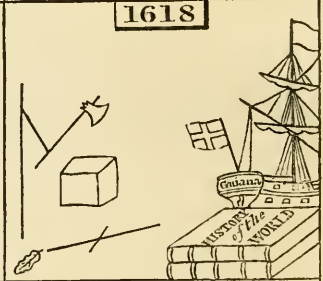
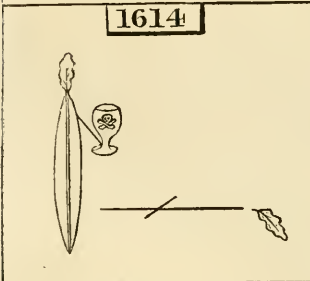
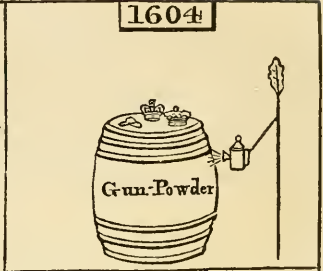


PLATE XXVII.

JAMES THE FIRST.

Fig. 1.—UNION OF THE CROWNS OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

Fig. 2.—THE GUNPOWDER PLOT.

The crown, coronet, and hat, lying on the barrel, shew the intention of the conspirators to destroy the King and Parliament. The figure on the right is Guy Fawkes.

Fig. 3.—DEATH OF SIR THOMAS OVERBURY, WHO WAS POISONED BY THE COUNTESS OF ESSEX.

Fig. 4.—DEATH OF SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

The block and axe allude to the manner of his execution; the books to his literary pursuits; and the ship, inscribed "Guiana," to his last final expedition.

Fig. 5.—DISGRACE OF LORD CHANCELLOR BACON.

Fig. 6.—RUPTURE WITH SPAIN.

CHARACTER OF JAMES THE FIRST.

THE character of James I. is so differently drawn by the contemporary writers of his time, as they affect either the Court or the popular party, that it seems almost impossible to draw a correct portrait. By his panegyrists, he is represented as wise, learned, generous, and a lover of peace; by the opposite party he is said to have been weak, pedantic, pusillanimous, profuse, and cunning. Prejudice appears to have blinded both parties: his enemies have exaggerated his faults; his friends and admirers have overrated his merits. His reign is neither distinguished by great virtues, nor disgraced by flagrant crimes; and he is rather to be commended for the absence of vice, than extolled for positive virtue. His predecessors on the throne had maintained an absolute sovereignty, and stretched the regal prerogative to its utmost limits. The people were beginning to feel their own strength, and to have more enlarged ideas of liberty: and, sensible that the reins of Government were not held with that firmness which had distinguished their late monarchs, they were emboldened in their proceedings. They watched with jealousy every action of the Court, and loudly condemned every thing that favoured arbitrary power. The King, though desirous of peace, was anxious to maintain his prerogatives, and to transmit them to his son undiminished: his intentions were good; and though the result was sometimes evil in its consequences, it was chiefly owing to the peculiar circumstances and complexion of the times.

James was awkward in his person, and inelegant in manners; of an affectionate temper; but not happy in the choice of his favourites, being dazzled with the appearance of exterior graces, rather than attracted by real worth.



UNION OF THE ENGLISH AND SCOTCH CROWNS.

JAMES the First, King of England, was the sixth of that name King of Scotland. He was the son of Mary Queen of

Scots, by Lord Darnley; and great grandson of Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry VII.; and on the failure of the male line, his hereditary right of succession was indisputable. His accession to the English Crown was reviewed with pleasure by all ranks of people; and they hailed his approach to the capital with loud acclamations. But James, who possessed not that affability of manners which distinguished the late Sovereign, forbade the multitude from assembling, under pretence of a scarcity of provisions; though, to testify his sensibility of their attachment to him, he conferred the honour of knighthood on two hundred and thirty-seven persons. Favours of this kind had been rarely bestowed in the preceding reign, and were therefore prized. But the prodigality of the King in this respect, instead of procuring him friends, disgusted the majority of the people: they were displeased at seeing honours and rewards thus lavished on persons who had no pretensions by merit, and considered it only as the mark of an easy temper and indiscriminating good-nature.

Ambassadors from almost all the Princes and States of Europe came to congratulate him on his accession, and to form with him new treaties of alliance. The King was averse from war; but finding that the people were earnestly bent on supporting their Protestant brethren in the Low Countries, he entered into a treaty with Henry IV. of France, to support the United States against the power of Philip; and it was mutually agreed, that if that Prince attacked either of them, they would assist and defend each other.

The meeting of the Parliament had been delayed some time, on account of the plague, which this year raged with so much violence as to carry off 30,000 persons. The Parliament at length assembled; and the speech which the King made on this occasion is said to have been surpassed by few productions of that age. Hitherto the House of Commons had been considered of so little importance in the Government, that scarcely

any attention had been paid, either by the Crown, the people, or the House itself, to the choice and continuance of the members. When James summoned this Parliament, he issued a proclamation, strictly enjoining the people not to choose any outlaw for their representative, on pain of being fined or imprisoned for the same. This was making a proclamation equal to a law, and that too on a point so delicate and momentous as the right of elections: the House therefore determined to come to some resolution respecting their privileges in choosing their own members, and no longer to allow the Chancellor the power of issuing new writs, or of vacating seats at pleasure. They also established the power of punishing the person at whose suit any member is arrested, as well as the officers who may arrest or detain him. James, who justly regarded it as the peculiar felicity of his reign, that he had terminated the bloody animosities of the English and Scotch people, and reduced the whole island under one government, was extremely anxious that they should enjoy a thorough union of laws, parliament, and privileges; by which he hoped they would gain not only internal tranquillity, but security from foreign invasion. The prejudice and ill-will of the people of both countries were at this time much too strong to be overcome by reason or policy.

During his reign, the prerogatives of the Crown were violently and openly attacked: the chief grounds of discontent being religion and money. The King, from his high notions of the royal prerogative, was led to imagine he might demand whatever sums he pleased from the Parliament; who seem to have behaved as unreasonably on one hand, as James himself did, unfortunately, on the other.

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GUY FAWKES' CONSPIRACY.

It is no unusual thing with men of warm tempers, when they discover an error in their conduct, to fly to the opposite ex-

treme, in order to prove their entire renunciation of former failings : and as religion is a subject that embraces the dearest and most essential interests of man, it takes the strongest possession of his mind. When the errors of Popery once became apparent, and the objects of superstitious veneration unmasked, the Protestants, in their zeal, forgot the great law of Christianity—Charity, which “thinketh no evil;” and, still smarting with the recollection of the persecutions of the Papists, began, when power was on their side, to make their enemies feel that they had neither forgotten nor forgiven past cruelties. Hence violent animosities were generated, and the nation was split into parties. The Roman Catholics had expected great favour and indulgence from James ; both on account of his descent from Mary, and particularly as he himself had, it is imagined, in his early youth, shewn some partiality towards them. But they soon discovered their mistake, and were at once surprised and enraged to find James, on all occasions, express his intention of persevering in the strict and rigorous measures of Elizabeth.

Catesby, a Catholic gentleman of good parts, and of an ancient family, first thought of a most extraordinary method of revenge ; and opened his intention to Percy, a descendant of the illustrious House of Northumberland. He told him it was in vain to think of killing the King only : “To serve any good purpose,” said he, “we must destroy, at one blow, the King, the Royal Family, the Lords and Commons ; and bury all our enemies in one common ruin.” Percy readily entered into the project of Catesby. They agreed to communicate the matter to a few more ; and, among the rest, to Thomas Winter, whom they sent to Flanders in quest of Fawkes, an officer on whose zeal and courage they could depend, and who was at that time in the Spanish service.

These transactions took place during the spring and summer of 1604 ; at which time the conspirators hired a house in Percy’s name, adjoining to that in which the Parliament was to

assemble. They pierced through a wall three yards thick, which led to a vault below the House of Lords. A large quantity of coals had been kept there, which were at this time selling off; and as the vault was to be let, Percy immediately hired it, and secretly conveyed into it thirty-six barrels of gunpowder: the whole was then covered up with faggots and billets, the doors of the cellar boldly thrown open, and every body admitted, as if it contained nothing dangerous. The King, the Queen, and Prince Henry, were all to be present at the opening of the Parliament. Percy was to seize or assassinate the Duke, who was not expected to be present, on account of his youth; and three others of the conspirators were to seize the Princess Elizabeth, and proclaim her Queen.

The day so long wished for now approached, and every thing seemed to promise success to their plan. The dreadful secret, though communicated to above twenty persons, had been inviolably kept for the space of a year and a half. No remorse, no pity, no fear of punishment, no hope of reward, had as yet induced any one conspirator either to abandon the enterprize, or to betray it. Private friendship, however, saved the nation from impending ruin.

Ten days before the meeting of Parliament, Lord Monteagle received the following letter, which had been delivered to his servant by an unknown hand. “ My Lord,—Out of the love I bear to some of your friends, I have a care of your preservation: therefore I would advise you, as you tender your life, to devise some excuse to shift off your attendance on this Parliament: for God and man have concurred to punish the wickedness of the times. And think not slightly of this advertisement; but retire yourself into the country, where you may expect the event in safety. For though there be no appearance of any stir, yet, I say, they will receive a terrible blow this Parliament, and yet they shall not see who hurts them. This counsel is not to be contemned; because it may

do you good, and can do you no harm; for the danger is passed as soon as you have burned this letter. And I hope God will give you the grace to make good use of it, unto whose holy protection I commend you."

Lord Monteagle knew not what to make of this letter, and thought it an attempt to frighten him; nevertheless, he judged it expedient to shew it to Lord Salisbury, Secretary of State. Salisbury, though also inclined to pay little attention to it, laid it before the King. The King, after some reflection, conjectured that it implied some danger from gunpowder; and it was thought advisable to inspect all the vaults beneath the Houses of Parliament. This search was purposely delayed till the day before the meeting of Parliament; when the Earl of Suffolk remarked the great piles of wood and faggots which lay in the vaults under the Upper House. Fawkes, who was standing in a dark corner, passed himself off as Percy's servant. His daring and determined countenance did not escape the penetration of Suffolk; the quantity of fuel, too, excited his suspicions; and he determined on making a more thorough search. Accordingly, Sir Thomas Knevit, a Justice of the Peace, with proper attendants, went about midnight to the place; and finding Fawkes at the door of the vault, who had just finished his preparations, he immediately seized him; and turning over the faggots, he discovered the powder. The matches, and every thing ready for firing the train, were found in the pockets of Fawkes, who, on his guilt becoming apparent, sought refuge in boldness and despair. He was immediately sent to the Tower; and being left to reflect on his guilt and danger, and the rack being shewn him, his courage failed, and he made a full discovery of all his accomplices. Catesby, Percy, and the other conspirators who were in London, hearing of the arrest of Fawkes, fled to Warwickshire, where Sir Everard Digby, thinking himself sure of success, was already in arms. The Princess Elizabeth had escaped to Coventry; the whole country was

raised; and the conspirators were surrounded on all sides. No hope of escape remaining, they confessed themselves and received absolution, boldly prepared for death, and resolved to sell their lives as dearly as possible. Some of their powder, however, took fire, and killed and wounded several of them: the people then rushed in upon them. Percy and Catesby were killed by one shot. Digby, Rookwood, Winter, and others, being taken prisoners, were tried, confessed their guilt, and perished under the hands of the executioner.

The wisdom, equity, and liberality of James, were never more conspicuous than upon this occasion. In his speech to the Parliament, he observed, that though religion had engaged the conspirators in so criminal an attempt, yet they ought not to involve all the Roman Catholics in the same guilt, or suppose them equally disposed to commit such enormous barbarities. He concluded by saying, that the conspiracy, however atrocious, should never alter his plan of government; for that while with one hand he punished guilt, with the other he would still support and protect innocence.

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DEATH OF SIR THOMAS OVERBURY.

AFTER the detection of the gunpowder conspiracy, the King continued his attention towards improving the manners of his Irish subjects; of reconciling them to laws and industry; and of rendering them useful to the Crown of England. In this well-planned work James proceeded with such steadiness and regularity, that in the space of nine years he is said to have made greater advances towards the reformation of that country, than had been made during the four hundred and fifty years which had elapsed since its first conquest. He planted new colonies in Ulster, divided the property into moderate shares, introduced husbandry and the arts, and punished robbery and plunder; so that Ulster, which was formerly the most

disorderly province in Ireland, soon became the best cultivated and the most civilized.

In 1612 died Prince Henry, deeply regretted by the whole nation. He was a youth of great attainments; and the people had entertained the fondest hopes that his talents and virtues would one day increase the lustre of the British throne. Violent reports were spread that Henry had been carried off by poison; but the physicians, on opening the body, found no such symptoms. The death of Sir Thomas Overbury, in the following year, revived these suspicions; though no proof, nor even probability of such an event, could be traced.

Sir Thomas Overbury was the tried friend of the favourite, Viscount Rochester, a young Scotchman of good family; of whom the King was so extravagantly fond, that he not only heaped honours and dignities upon him, but had even condescended to become in some measure his tutor, and had taken pleasure to instruct him in the mysteries of politics: for Rochester was not, at first, so much intoxicated with advancement, as to be insensible of his own ignorance and inexperience. In Sir Thomas Overbury he met with a judicious and sincere counsellor; and while he was content to be ruled by his councils, he enjoyed, what is very rare, the highest favour of the Prince, without being hated by the people.

The unfortunate families of Howard and Devereux, who had suffered so much in the cause of Mary and James, had not been forgotten by the King. Young Essex had been restored to his family dignity; and the titles of Suffolk and Northampton conferred on two brothers of the house of Norfolk. The Earl of Essex had early been betrothed to Lady Frances Howard; but when the marriage came to be ratified, the young Countess testified so great an aversion, that the Earl, after an ineffectual struggle to overcome her dislike, gave up the pursuit, and left her to follow her own discretion. The cause of this aversion to her lord, arose from Lady Essex having become violently

attached to Rochester, whom she ardently desired to marry. Rochester consulted his friend Overbury upon the plan of a divorce. Overbury used every method to dissuade him from so foolish, so dangerous an attempt; and, in his zeal, went so far as to threaten him, that he would separate from him for ever, if he could so far forget his honour and his interest as to promote the intended marriage. Rochester had the weakness to reveal this conversation to the Countess of Essex, and also to join with her in her vindictive projects against his friend. Their first step was to prejudice the King, from whom they obtained a warrant for committing Overbury to the Tower. The Lieutenant of the Tower was a creature of Rochester's, and debarred the unhappy prisoner the sight even of his nearest relations, during the six months he remained in prison. In the mean time, the guilty pair pursued their purpose: the King, blinded by his partiality for the unworthy favourite, zealously entered into the project of divorce; and, that the lady might lose no rank by her second marriage, Rochester was created Earl of Somerset.

The vindictive Countess, not yet satisfied with the revenge she had already exercised upon Sir Thomas Overbury, engaged her husband, as well as her uncle, to take him off by poison, which atrocious design was accomplished. The symptoms were so sudden and violent, that the cause was apparent to every one who approached him; and his interment was hurried on with the greatest precipitation: but the crime was not fully proved till some years afterwards. The upbraiding voice of conscience, even amidst the hurry and flattery of a Court, destroyed the peace of Somerset. The graces of his youth passed away, the gaiety of his manners was obscured, and his politeness changed into sullenness and silence. The King, whose affections had been engaged by those superficial accomplishments, began to estrange himself from a man who no longer contributed to his amusement; and the discovery of

Somerset's guilt, in the murder of Overbury, brought on the ruin and infamy he so well merited. An apothecary's apprentice, who had been employed in making up the poison, having retired to Flanders, revealed all the particulars. The King, alarmed at this account of Somerset's guilt, ordered a most rigorous inquiry to be made; and the whole plot was carefully unravelled. All the lesser criminals received the punishment due to their crime. Somerset and the Countess were pardoned; but they languished out an old age in infamy and obscurity. Love, the cause of their crimes, was converted into a deadly hatred; and they passed many years together, in the same house, without any intercourse or correspondence with each other.

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DEATH OF SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH had greatly distinguished himself, during the reign of Elizabeth, in various naval expeditions against the Spaniards, and was universally admired for his courage and capacity; but towards the close of her reign he lost much of his popularity, by his enmity to the Earl of Essex, the darling of the people.

Not long after the accession of James, he engaged in a conspiracy to place upon the throne Arabella Stuart,* a near relation of the King's. The plot was discovered; some of the conspirators were put to death, and others pardoned. Sir Walter Raleigh was only reprieved, and sent to the Tower, where he remained a prisoner for thirteen years; and it was during this long confinement he wrote "*The History of the World.*" At length the sentiments of the nation began to alter

* Arabella Stuart was the daughter of Charles Earl of Lennox, and cousin to the King; and during the reign of Elizabeth, had been declared lawful heir to the crown.

with respect to him : they reflected on the hardships, and even injustice of his sentence; for he had been condemned on the testimony of a single witness, Lord Cobham, a man of no honour or integrity; and they pitied his active and enterprising spirit, which languished in the rigour of confinement. They were struck with the extensive genius of the man, who, being educated amidst naval and military achievements, had surpassed, in the pursuits of literature, the most recluse and sedentary. To increase these favourable dispositions, on which he built the hopes of recovering his liberty, Raleigh spread a report of his having discovered a gold mine in Guiana, which, according to his representations, was sufficient to enrich not only the adventurers, but to afford immense treasures to the nation. The King gave little credit to these mighty promises; but thinking that Raleigh had already undergone sufficient punishment, he released him from the Tower; yet refused to pardon him, though strongly solicited to do so. He professed himself still diffident of Raleigh's intention; but gave him permission to try the adventure of the Guiana mine, when a sufficient number of adventurers could be procured.

Some years before this time, Raleigh made the first discovery of Guiana, and laid claim to it in behalf of his Sovereign; yet he made no settlement on the coast, but quitted it almost immediately. The Spaniards, not knowing or not acknowledging this claim, had taken possession of a part of Guiana, and had built the little town of St. Thomas, on the river Oroonoko, where they worked some mines of small value. Raleigh well knew that it was very far from the intention of James to attack any of the Spanish settlements, and had positively declared that the mine he was going in quest of had no connexion with the Spanish colonies; nevertheless, he bent his course directly to St. Thomas; and remaining himself at the mouth of the river with five of the largest ships, he sent on the rest, under the command of his son and Captain Keymis, a person entirely

devoted to him. The Spaniards, who had expected this invasion, were prepared to receive them, and fired upon the English at their landing; but being repulsed, were driven back into the town. Young Raleigh, to encourage his men, cried out, pointing to the town, that this was the true mine, and that none but fools looked for any other; then boldly advancing against the Spaniards, he received a shot, of which he immediately expired. This accident did not intimidate the others: the town was taken and reduced to ashes, nothing of value being found in it. Raleigh had affirmed that Keymis alone knew the exact situation of the mine; yet the latter, on the most frivolous pretences, now refused to discover where it was; although he declared they were within two hours' march of the spot. He therefore returned to Raleigh; and after detailing to him the melancholy account of his son's death, and the failure of the enterprize, retired to his cabin and put an end to his life.

The other adventurers now concluded that Raleigh had deceived them; and that he never had known of any such mine as the one he pretended to go in search of; they therefore determined to return immediately to England, and to carry him along with them, to answer for his conduct. The Council, upon inquiry, found no difficulty in pronouncing that he had abused the King's confidence, and acted in an offensive and hostile manner against his Majesty's ally, the King of Spain, who loudly complained of the aggression. James therefore made use of the power which he had purposely reserved in his own hands, and signed the warrant for the execution of Raleigh, upon his former sentence.

This was an act that gave great dissatisfaction to the public. It was an established principle among lawyers, that as he lay under an actual attainder for high treason, he could not be brought to a new trial for any other crime; though he might

have been tried, either by common law, for this act of violence and piracy; or by martial law, for breach of orders. To execute therefore a sentence which was originally so hard, which had been so long suspended, and which seemed to have been tacitly pardoned, by conferring on him a new commission, was deemed an instance of cruelty and injustice.

Raleigh, when he felt the edge of the axe by which he was to be beheaded, observed, "It is a sharp remedy, but a sure one, for all ills." He is reported to have been one of those modern philosophers, very rare at that time in England, which have since been called Free-thinkers. He suffered decapitation October 29th, 1613.



DISGRACE OF LORD CHANCELLOR BACON.

THE celebrated Lord Chancellor Bacon, Baron Verulam and Viscount St. Albans, was a man universally admired for the greatness of his genius, and beloved for his courtesy. He was the ornament of his age and nation, and one of the greatest philosophers that any country has produced. Before his sixteenth year, he had made such uncommon progress in his studies, that he was particularly noticed by Queen Elizabeth. He did not, however, obtain much preferment during her reign; though the renowned Earl of Essex, who not only distinguished merit but loved it, was his avowed patron. The ingratitude of Bacon to this nobleman is one of the dark stains in his character, and for which no apology can be offered. The guilt of bribery, of which he stands accused, appears not to have been so well grounded: his want of economy, and his indulgence to servants, involved him in necessities; and, in order to supply their prodigality, he had, it is affirmed, not scrupled to take bribes, under the title of presents, from suitors in Chancery. Bribery was not unusual at that time, as the former Chancellors

had given precedents for this dangerous proceeding; but a spirit of reform began to display itself in the Commons, and they now determined to check, if not put a stop to, such glaring injustice. It is said, however, in favour of Bacon, that in the seat of justice he still preserved the integrity of the judge, and had given just decrees even against those very persons from whom he had received the wages of iniquity. An impeachment against him was nevertheless sent up to the Peers by the Commons: and the Chancellor, conscious of guilt, endeavoured to deprecate the vengeance of his judges, and to escape the confusion of a strict inquiry, by a general avowal; but in vain: he was sentenced to pay a fine of £40,000; to be imprisoned in the Tower during the King's pleasure; and was declared incapable of ever again sitting in Parliament, or of holding any office, place, or emolument. Yet, in consideration of his great merit, the King remitted the punishment, conferred on him a pension of £1,800 a-year, and employed every expedient to alleviate the weight of his age and his misfortunes. Bacon survived his disgrace five years; his faults being almost forgotten amidst the greatness of his genius and the splendour of his literary fame.

DEFINITION.

Lord High Chancellor, or Keeper of the Great Seal.—This is the highest honour of the long robe, being created by the mere delivery of the King's Great Seal into his custody, by which he becomes, without writ or patent, an officer of the greatest weight and power of any now subsisting in the kingdom. He is a Privy Councillor by his office; and to him belongs the appointment of all Justices of the Peace throughout the kingdom. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics; and has the general superintendence of all charitable uses in the kingdom, besides the vast extensive jurisdiction which he exercises in his judicial capacity in the Court of Chancery.

RUPTURE WITH SPAIN.

IN 1613, James gave the Princess Elizabeth in marriage to the Elector Palatine. The Elector, trusting to so great an alliance, engaged in enterprizes beyond his strength. He was defeated in the great and decisive battle of Prague; and fled with his family into Holland; whilst Spinola, the Spanish general, made himself master of the whole Palatinate.*

The English, alarmed at the distresses of their Protestant brethren in Germany, were anxious to rush into a war with Spain; and the temporizing spirit of the King was highly displeasing to the Commons. Their dissatisfaction produced remonstrances; and remonstrances begat recrimination. The project of marrying Prince Charles to the Infanta of Spain at this time occupied much of the King's attention: negotiations to this effect had long been carrying on: but the difference of religion had hitherto retarded its conclusion. Prince Charles, instigated by the artful persuasions of Buckingham, who had succeeded Somerset in the King's favour, accompanied by that favourite, set out on a romantic expedition, to visit the Court of Spain. The Prince and Buckingham, in disguise, with their two attendants, and Sir Robert Graham, passed through France, and even ventured into a Court-ball without being discovered. There Prince Charles saw the Princess Henrietta, whom he afterwards espoused, and who was at that time in the bloom of youth and beauty. In eleven days after, they arrived at Madrid. The Spanish Monarch immediately paid Charles a visit, expressed the utmost gratitude for the confidence reposed in him, and by the most studious civilities evinced the respect which he bore towards his royal guest. He gave him a golden key which opened all his apartments, that the Prince might, without any introduction, have free access to him at all times. The reserve, modesty, and sobriety of

* A State lying in the midst of Germany.

Charles's character, his generous confidence and romantic gallantry, charmed the Spaniards, and endeared him to the whole Court of Madrid. But in the same proportion that the Prince was beloved, Buckingham was detested: his sallies of passion, his indecent freedom with the Prince, his dissolute pleasures, and his arrogant and impetuous temper, excited the peculiar aversion of the Spaniards; he had pointedly insulted the Condé D'Olivarez, and was determined at all events to break off the match with the Infanta. The Prince, too, was not unwilling to be released from his engagements, having been particularly struck with the charms of the French Princess Henrietta: and as the match with Spain had ever been opposed by the nation at large, insurmountable obstacles were easily found to put an end to the project, and a war with Spain was eagerly desired. A negociation was then opened with France; but before it was finally concluded, James died, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty-second of his reign over England. He had been King of Scotland almost from his birth. He was only once married (to Anne of Denmark); and left one son, Charles, then in the twenty-fifth year of his age; and one daughter, Elizabeth, married to the Elector Palatine.

PLATE XXVIII.

CHARLES THE FIRST.

Fig. 1.—THE BILL OF RIGHTS.

The Bill of Rights preponderates in the scales of Justice; whilst the oppressive powers formerly exercised by the Monarch are retiring out of sight.

Fig. 2.—THE SCOTTISH COVENANT.*Fig. 3.*—THE STANDARD OF REBELLION RAISED IN SCOTLAND.*Fig. 4.*—DEATH OF THE EARL OF STRAFFORD.

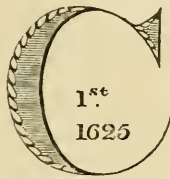
On the right is the King, holding the letter written by that unfortunate nobleman.

Fig. 5.—INSURRECTION AND MASSACRE OF THE PROTESTANTS IN IRELAND.*Fig. 6.*—COMMENCEMENT OF THE CIVIL WAR.

England divided by faction; the standard of Rebellion erected in the South; the Royal standard is waving above.

Fig. 7.—THE SCOTS SELLING THE KING TO THE ENGLISH PARLIAMENT.*Fig. 8.*—THE KING ESCAPING TO THE ISLE OF WIGHT.*Fig. 9.*—DEATH OF THE KING.

The Constitution effaced. Instead of the Crown, the emblem of royalty, appears a death's-head, the symbol of murder. The coronet of the Nobles is eclipsed, for their power is no more. The Commons alone retain the symbol of power; and the use they made of it is shewn by the axe, which points to the place formerly occupied by the Crown.



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|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| <p>1628</p> | <p>1638</p> | <p>1639</p> |
| <p>1641</p> | <p>1641</p> | <p>1642</p> |
| <p>1647</p> | <p>1647</p> | <p>1649</p> |

CHARLES THE FIRST.

THIS amiable and unfortunate Prince succeeded his father in 1625. His countenance was pleasing, though melancholy; and his features handsome and regular. He was of middle stature, but well proportioned; skilful in all manly exercises; and possessed of a refined taste in the liberal arts. He was humane, modest, chaste, and temperate; and in his private morals, unblemished and exemplary.

Bred up in the principles of absolute monarchy, and taught to consider the prerogatives of his crown as a sacred deposit that he was to transmit uninjured and undiminished to his posterity, Charles endeavoured from principle to maintain them; though the genius of the people at that time ran in a course diametrically opposite. The emancipation from the shackles of superstition had awakened the love of civil liberty; and, in the endeavour to attain political freedom, reason became intoxicated, and judgment blind. Fanaticism, guided by hypocrisy, threw down the crown, and trampled upon the sceptre, and in its stead exalted the iron rod of military despotism. Charles was a man of strict religion; and his judgment, when left to decide for himself, was excellent; but his deference to the opinions of others often betrayed him into actions that seemed to controvert it. He was a good, rather than a great man. He was not the hero whose name is enrolled in the lists of Fame by the slaughter and destruction of thousands of his fellow-creatures; but he was the Christian hero, who, having been insulted, betrayed, robbed, and ignominiously condemned to death by his rebellious and ungrateful subjects, pronounced forgiveness to his foes (in imitation of his Divine Master), in the emphatic word "*Remember!*"*

* It being remarked that the King, the moment before he stretched out his neck to the executioner, had said to Juxton, with a very earnest accent, the single word "*Remember!*" great mysteries were supposed

BILL OF RIGHTS.

THE pure and noble mind of Charles disclaimed to use any secret influence to obtain a majority in the Parliament. Conscious of the integrity of his intentions, he trusted to the liberality, honour, and justice of the Commons, to supply those wants, which were not the result of his own imprudence, but of enterprizes previous to his accession. They knew that James had left the Crown burthened with many debts: and they knew, also, that the revenue of the Crown was totally inadequate to the ordinary expense of the Government; and that they were engaged in a war with Spain and Austria, contrary to the wishes of the late King, and entirely in compliance with their own desires: yet they thought proper to vote him a subsidy of only £112,000.

The marriage of Charles with Henrietta of France, though at first highly pleasing to the Commons, now excited their apprehensions of the return of Popery; and the resolution of the King to abate the rigour of the Penal Laws against the Catholics, excited their disgust. The Parliament was therefore dissolved; and a new one called the following year. The war with Spain still continuing, the King borrowed money from his subjects on privy seals: this enabled him to equip his fleet, which however performed nothing worthy of notice. The second Parliament voted him a supply of £168,000, and three fifteenths; but deferred passing this vote into a law until the

to be concealed under that word; and the Generals vehemently insisted with the Prelate that he should inform them of the King's meaning. Juxton told them, that the King, having frequently charged him to inculcate on his son the forgiveness of his murderers, had taken this opportunity, in the last moments of his life, when his commands he supposed would be regarded as sacred and inviolate, to reiterate that desire; and that his mild spirit thus terminated its present course by an act of benevolence to his greatest enemies.

end of the sessions. They commenced an attack on Buckingham, but without success. The King interfered in behalf of his favourite, and even committed the two members who managed the impeachment against him to prison; he however was forced to release them from confinement in a few days, and shortly afterwards dissolved the Parliament. Money being still wanting, Charles was driven to the necessity of raising supplies by authority of the Crown alone. A commission was openly granted, to compound with the Catholics for dispensing with the Penal Laws against them. This measure, though productive, gave great offence to his Protestant subjects. The nobility, from whom he required assistance, were very tardy with their contributions; and the citizens of London, of whom he demanded a loan of £100,000, after some delays, gave at last a flat denial. Recourse was next had to ship-money, and after that a general loan. The sum demanded from each individual was not greater than would have been paid had the Parliament passed a vote of four subsidies: but the *mode* of doing it was *unconstitutional*, and tended not only to render Parliaments superfluous, but to destroy the liberty of the subject. Many persons therefore refused to pay it, who were in consequence thrown into prison. John Hampden, with four other gentlemen, resolved to stand a trial upon the occasion. This important cause, which was tried in the King's Bench, engaged the attention of the whole kingdom. Personal liberty had been secured by no less than six different statutes, as well as by an article in Magna Charta itself; though there were not wanting many instances in which, during times of turbulence, Princes had, by virtue of their own power, infringed upon those laws. The difficulty lay in determining when such a discretionary power was necessary; though it clearly appeared that the act itself was highly unconstitutional.

Whilst affairs were in this distracted state, the King was, by the jealousy of Buckingham and Richelieu, forced into a war

with France, the conduct of which was committed to the former, who managed so ill, that he lost two-thirds of his army. The discontents now rose to a great height; and Charles being much distressed for money, called a new Parliament. They began the session by voting against arbitrary imprisonments and forced loans; after which they granted the King a supply of £280,000. They then drew up the famous Petition of Rights, by which forced loans, benevolences, taxes without consent of Parliament, arbitrary imprisonments, billeting soldiers, and martial laws, were declared illegal. After some delays, this important bill received the Royal assent. The Commons then renewed their attack upon Buckingham, who shortly afterwards was murdered by Felton, whilst giving some necessary orders for the embarkation of the troops for the Continent.

DEFINITION.

Ship-money.—A tax by which all maritime towns, with the assistance of the adjacent counties, was required to arm so many vessels as were appointed them.



THE SCOTTISH COVENANT.

THE contentions between the King and the Commons continuing with increased animosity, Sir John Elliott framed a remonstrance against tonnage and poundage. The Speaker refused to put the question, alleging that he had a command from the King to adjourn; but upon attempting to leave the chair, he was forcibly held in it till a short remonstrance was framed, which was instantaneously passed with almost universal acclamation.

The King, in disgust, again dissolved the Parliament, with a determination never to call another. Some of the members were imprisoned and fined. This severity only increased the public discontent, and pointed out the suffering members as proper leaders for the popular party. Charles then made

peace with France and Spain; and by the advice of Archbishop Laud, who had obtained great ascendancy over him, he attempted to revive some of the ancient Church ceremonies, a measure that was extremely impolitic and unpopular at that time. Money for the support of Government was levied either by the revival of obsolete laws, or by the violation of privileges. Unusual severities were exercised by the Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission; and tonnage and poundage continued to be levied by Royal authority alone. Compositions were openly made with Recusants; and the Popish religion became a regular part of the revenue.

Calvinism was at this time the prevailing religion of the Scots. James had endeavoured to raise the Scotch Bishops, who were held in poverty and contempt, and to introduce the Liturgy of the Church of England, but died in the midst of his attempts. Charles impolitically endeavoured to complete what his father had begun. This roused the prejudices of the whole Scotch nation, and alienated their affections. The fears excited by the prospect of innovation produced the famous *Covenant*. It consisted of a renunciation of Popery, formerly signed by James in his youth: and a bond of union, by which the subscribers obliged themselves to resist all religious innovations, and to defend each other against all opposition whatever. This Covenant was subscribed to by people of all ranks; and none but rebels to God, and traitors to their country, it was thought, could withdraw themselves from so salutary and pious a combination.

DEFINITIONS.

Tonnage and Poundage.—Tonnage and poundage was originally a temporary grant of Parliament; but it had been conferred on Henry V., and all succeeding Princes, during life, to enable them to maintain a naval force for the defence of the kingdom; and the necessity for levying this duty had been so apparent, that each King had even claimed it from the moment of his accession; and the first Parliament of each

reign had usually, by vote, conferred on the Prince what they found him already possessed of. For more than a century this tax had been levied before it was voted by Parliament. Charles had followed the example of his predecessors, and no fault was found with his conduct on the occasion; yet when the Parliament met, instead of granting the supplies during the King's life, they voted it only for one year: a plain proof that they had seriously formed a plan for reducing the King to subjection.

High Commission Court.—The Court of High Commission was an Ecclesiastical court, erected by act of Parliament in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. In this court the whole life and doctrine of the Clergy lay under its inspection; consequently every breach of the Act of Uniformity was cognizable in this court, and, during her reign, had been punished by fines, confiscations, and imprisonments. Any word or writing which tended towards heresy or schism, was punishable by the High Commissioners, or any three of them. Liberty of conscience was totally suppressed; and the free exercise of every religion, excepting that of the Established Church, was forbidden throughout the kingdom.

Star Chamber.—The Star Chamber possessed the same authority in Civil matters as the High Commission Court did in ecclesiastical ones, and its methods of proceeding were equally arbitrary and unlimited. The origin of this court was derived from the remotest antiquity; and at no time was its authority circumscribed, or its mode of proceeding directed by any law or statute.

Calvinism, the doctrine of Calvin. This reformer maintained, that none but the *elect*, or those who are predestined to salvation, can be saved, and that all others are, from eternity, doomed to perpetual suffering.--*Evans's Sketch.*

Covenant.—The Scottish Covenant was a solemn league, or bond, originally, in 1580, entered into by the King of Scotland and his household. In the following year all ranks of people subscribed to it, as well as in the year 1590, and it was finally renewed in March 1638.

The parties who subscribed to the Covenant, asserted their entire belief and acquiescence in the doctrines of Christianity, as promulgated

by the *Kirk of Scotland*, and expressed their detestation and abhorrence of all contrary religions and doctrines; more especially denouncing the Romish Church as prophane and blasphemous. In addition to this confession of faith, the subscribers bound themselves to defend the doctrines thus set forth, together with the King and the liberties of their country, to the utmost extent of their respective powers.

To this paper was attached a recapitulation of the acts of the Scottish and English Parliaments, which ensured civil and religious liberty to the subject.

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STANDARD OF REBELLION RAISED IN SCOTLAND.

CHARLES, alarmed at the formidable combination of the Scots, endeavoured, by concession, to prevent hostility. The Scots, however, determined to support the Covenant by force of arms; and the Earl of Argyle, after some hesitation, became the leader of their party. A few castles belonging to the King, being totally unprovided with means of subsistence or defence were seized by the Covenanters. Leith was strongly fortified, and the whole country placed in a warlike posture. The King was not backward in making preparations to oppose this formidable combination. Having, by a wise economy, paid off all the debts contracted during the wars with France and Spain, he found a surplus of £200,000, which he had prudently reserved for any emergency. A considerable supply was also procured from the Catholics, by the Queen's interest. By this means he was enabled to equip an army of twenty thousand foot, and three thousand horse, which were embarked on board the fleet, and destined to act against the Scots. But on the first overtures of peace, Charles, who was anxious to avoid drawing his sword against his subjects, dismissed these forces, and a sudden pacification was concluded. The war, however, was shortly recommenced; and after a lapse of eleven years, the King, being entirely destitute of means to pay his troops, once more called a Parliament, which he had the mortification to find no

less refractory than the former. The King wanted money, the Parliament a redress of grievances, and neither party was inclined to concede. Thus disappointed in his expectations of receiving supplies, Charles had recourse to loans: he borrowed from his ministers and courtiers; and so much was he beloved by them, that above £300,000 was subscribed in a few days. With much difficulty the King drew together an army of nineteen thousand foot, and two thousand horse; the command of which was given to the Earl of Northumberland: the Earl of Strafford commanded under him. The opposing forces first tried their strength at Newburn upon Tyne, which may rather be called a rout than a battle. The English were panic-struck, fled, and were pursued by the victorious Scots to the borders of Yorkshire. The Scots met the King, who was arrived at York, with the most studied expressions of loyalty, duty, and submission; and even made apologies full of sorrow and contrition for their late victory. Another treaty was therefore concluded at Rippon, contrary to the advice of Strafford, who strongly urged Charles to put all to the hazard, rather than submit to such terms as he foresaw would be imposed on him. But such was the King's unhappy situation, that he thought no sacrifice too great to obtain peace.

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DEATH OF THE EARL OF STRAFFORD.

THE Earl of Strafford, who was considered as the prime-minister of Charles, had the misfortune to incur the hatred of all the three kingdoms. The Scots looked upon him as the principal enemy of their country: the Irish hated him on account of the vigour and vigilance of his government, during the time that he was there and he was an object of detestation to the English, only because he was the friend and favourite of his unhappy master. After the treaty at Rippon, a Parliament was again called; and, that they might strike a blow at once against the Court, they began with the impeachment of the Earl of Strafford.

The Earl made a noble and eloquent defence; but so strongly had party spirit seized upon his judges, that his reasoning gained no attention, and his pathetic appeal to their feelings produced no effect upon their sensibility. They were determined to find him guilty. A paper was produced by Pym, said to have been accidentally discovered by Sir Henry Vane, in which it was supposed that Strafford had advised the King to subdue THIS kingdom by means of an Irish army. Upon this frivolous and unjust accusation was this nobleman condemned by the Commons; and in order to extort a like sentence from the Lords, the house was surrounded by a frantic populace, who incessantly demanded the condemnation of the obnoxious minister. The King, who was tenderly attached to Strafford, did every thing in his power to soothe and gratify the irritated Commons; but all his exertions were in vain; the more strongly he pleaded, the more were the people determined to punish him, through his minister. Strafford himself, hearing of the King's perplexity, wrote, intreating him, for the sake of the public peace, to put an end to his unfortunate but innocent life; and to quiet the tumultuous people, by granting them the request for which they were so importunate. "To a willing mind," says he, "there can be no injury: and as, by God's grace, I forgive all the world, so, Sire, to you I can resign the life of this world, with all imaginable cheerfulness, in the just acknowledgment of your exceeding favours."

Harassed and perplexed with a variety of conflicting passions and feelings, Charles, in an unhappy moment, signed the death-warrant of his friend; and by this fatal act increased the mischiefs he meant to avoid, adding to his former perplexities the bitter reflections of self-reproach.* The unfortunate Earl was beheaded on Tower Hill, A. D. 1641.

* Charles at the same time gave his assent to a Bill still more fatal to his interests; viz. That the present Parliament should not be dissolved without their own consent.

INSURRECTION AND MASSACRE OF THE
PROTESTANTS IN IRELAND.

THE animosity of the old Irish, which had, by the prudent conduct of James, in a great measure been subdued, was not extinguished; and a pretext alone was wanting to make it blaze out fiercer than ever. The distractions in the sister kingdom seemed to offer a favourable opportunity; and Roger More, a gentleman descended from an ancient Irish family, but of small fortune, first formed the project of expelling the English, and of asserting the independence of his native country. He was joined by Lord Macguire and Sir Phelim O'Neale; and the insurgents hoped that the English of *the pale*, as they were called, the old English planters, being Catholics, would join their party.

An insurrection throughout all the provinces on one day was agreed upon by the conspirators. Macguire and More were to surprise the castle of Dublin, in which were arms for ten thousand men, and thirty-five pieces of cannon, with a proportionate quantity of ammunition. The castle was defended by a feeble guard of fifty men only. Succours from France were confidently expected, and every thing seemed to promise them complete success. An Irish Protestant, of the name of Connolly, disclosed the conspiracy the evening before it was to have been put in execution. Roger More escaped, but Macguire and Mahon were taken. The latter made a full discovery of the plot; but, unhappily, his disclosure was too late to prevent the intended insurrection. O'Neale and his confederates had already taken arms in Ulster; and a universal massacre commenced, attended with circumstances of unparalleled barbarity. No age, sex, or condition, was spared; all connexions were dissolved; and death was dealt by that hand from which protection was implored and expected. All the tortures which wanton cruelty could devise, all the lingering pains of body, the anguish of mind, the agonies of despair, could not

satiate revenge excited without injury, and cruelty derived from unrelenting bigotry. The stately buildings of the planters were consumed or laid low; and where the owners perished in their defence, together with their wives and children, a double triumph was afforded to their insulting foes. Such were the enormities committed by Sir Phelim O'Neale and the Irish in Ulster. More, when he heard of them, fled to repress them; but he found too late, that though his authority was sufficient to rouse them to rebellion, it was too feeble to restrain their atrocities. By the most moderate computation, forty thousand persons are said to have perished in this scene of horrors. The King, who was in Scotland when he heard of these outrages, in vain solicited assistance from the Scots to oppose the rebels, their detestation of Popery being inferior to their personal animosity to their sovereign. Nor were the English Parliament more virtuous or more liberal than their Scottish brethren: they indeed levied money under pretence of an expedition against Ireland, and took arms from the King's magazine, but kept them with a secret intention of employing them against himself.

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COMMENCEMENT OF THE CIVIL WARS.

THE spirit of republicanism had long been growing in the minds of men: and it now manifested itself so strongly in the Commons, that nothing less than the total abolition of monarchy could serve their turn. At the commencement of the sessions, they had, however, passed some excellent laws; but the lust of power increased in proportion to its success, and the redressors of wrongs became, in their turn, tyrannical aggressors, overturning those very laws they first undertook to defend. The conduct of the Parliament towards the King now became exceedingly unreasonable, unjust, and cruel. He had lately paid a visit to his Scottish subjects, to whom he had made great concessions. On his return, he was received by the

people with acclamations; but his joy was soon damped, by the Commons presenting to him a remonstrance they had drawn up, in which, after accusing him of abetting, if not supporting the Irish rebels, they demanded that every office of trust, and every command, should be given to them. Every branch of the prerogative was successively attacked. At length the nobility, who saw their own depression closely connected with that of the Crown, attempted to curb the encroachments of the Commons. But the Commons were not now to be intimidated by so feeble an opposition: they therefore boldly assumed the sovereignty. The bishops were exposed to the most dangerous insults, in their way to and from the House: in consequence of this, drawing up a protest against all business performed during their forced absence, they withdrew from the House. This act of weakness and imprudence was followed by others: the King gave orders to enter an accusation of high-treason against five of the ruling members of the popular party; and when the serjeant at arms demanded the accused members in the King's name, he was sent back without any positive answer. The next day the King himself entered the House of Commons alone, to seize the obnoxious members; but they had escaped. Disappointed and perplexed, not knowing on whom to rely, he next proceeded to the Common Council of the City, amidst the invectives of the populace. The Common Council answered his complaints by a contemptuous silence; and on his return, one of the populace, more insolent than the rest, cried, "To your tents, O Israel!"—a watch-word among the Jews, when they intended to abandon their princes.

The Commons were greatly irritated by the imprudence of the King: they pretended to be in the greatest terror, and unanimously voted that he had violated their privileges. Charles wrote to them from Windsor, making every concession, and promising every satisfaction in his power. The

Commons demanded that Hull, Portsmouth, and the fleet, should be entrusted to persons of their choosing. After some hesitation, this was granted. Fresh demands were then made; but Charles, finding that every concession did but increase their avidity, determined to yield no more. Upon their demanding powers to raise a militia, and to nominate the officers, under pretence of securing them against the Irish papists, he deferred giving a decisive answer. Not content with repeating the application, they then desired to have also the command of the army, for a limited time: the King, exasperated at their pertinacity, replied, "No, not for an hour!" This peremptory refusal broke off all further treaty, and both sides prepared for war.

Charles, accompanied by the Prince of Wales, retired to York, where he met with loyal support surpassing his expectations. He sent negotiators to the Parliament, to avert, if possible, the appeal to arms. Had the popular rulers been enlightened patriots, they might have now made a compact securing a free government. But the few whom just principles fitted for legislators, were outvoted by the fanatics, or awed by the republicans in power. Hypocrisy leagued with ambition, to seal ordinances for domestic slaughter in the name of Liberty. The submissions required of the King were a repulse to peace.

The city of London, and most of the great corporations, misled by the illusions of democracy, took part with the Parliament. Many new families, whom commerce had raised to opulence, dissatisfied in not ranking with the ancient gentry, aimed at distinction as movers of a new system. The more consistent nobility and gentry joined the King: though, at first, every disadvantage seemed to attend his cause. At Wellington, near Shrewsbury, Charles published military orders for repressing insurrection: and to contract reciprocal obligations, he solemnly declared, before his whole army, that he would

maintain the Protestant religion, as established by the Church of England; that he would govern according to the known statutes and customs of the kingdom; and, particularly, that he would observe inviolate the laws to which he had assented during this Parliament. The first blood spilled in this unhappy contest was before the gates of Worcester, where some of the Parliament's cavalry were defeated by Prince Rupert,* and their commander slain. The battle of Edge Hill was fought soon after: Charles gained, in the beginning, decisive advantages, which were lost by the impetuosity of his troops. Banbury, however, and Reading, fell into his hands. Approaching London, he dislodged two regiments of cavalry from Brentford, and took five hundred prisoners. This terminated the first campaign.

The Parliament, alarmed by their losses, sent commissioners to Oxford, to treat for peace; but unable to impose their own terms, soon recalled them. In the spring of 1643, their main army retook Reading. On the other hand, the Cornish royalists gained a brilliant victory at Stratton. To check their progress, Sir William Waller, a general in whom the Parliament confided, was dispatched with a complete army. The Cornish forces met him at Lansdown, near Bath. After an indecisive battle, they marched for Oxford, so much harassed, that at Devizes their cavalry separated from their infantry. Waller thought himself on the point of crushing them; when Lord Wilmot, coming up with a reinforcement sent by the King, totally routed him. Waller escaped with a few horse to Bristol, which was shortly after besieged and taken. It was now proposed, by part of the King's Council, to proceed immediately to London; when it was hoped, that, either by treaty or by victory, the citizens might be reduced, and the civil war at once terminated: but this advice was overruled, and the siege of Gloucester was undertaken. It was vigo-

* Son of the unfortunate Elector Palatine, and nephew to the King.

rously defended by Massey the governor, until relieved by Essex, who forced the King to raise the siege. Charles intercepted Essex on his return, and a desperate though indecisive battle was fought at Newbury. In the summer, Waller the poet, who sat in the Lower House, had formed a confederacy to resist the taxes illegally imposed by the Parliament: but this design being detected, he purchased his own safety by betraying his intimate friends, and by paying a fine of £10,000. Hitherto the war had been in favour of the Royal cause; but we are now to view a different picture. The greater field for aspiring men, on the popular side, had elicited able commanders, who might else have remained in obscurity. Among these, Sir Thomas Fairfax and Oliver Cromwell began to shew great military talents at the close of the last campaign, in the victories of Wakefield and Gainsborough. The year 1644 opened with reverses to the Royal cause. The Parliament had strengthened themselves by an alliance with the Scots. Charles drew from Ireland some reinforcements. Lord Biron, having taken several castles with the Irish army, laid siege to Nantwich in the depth of winter. A sudden thaw separating his forces, Sir Thomas Fairfax made one part prisoners; and the other hastily retreated. A counterpoise to this disaster was the relief of Newark; where Prince Rupert dissipated the numerous besieging corps. This active general also forced the Scottish and Parliamentary army to raise the siege of York; but giving battle at Marston Moor, was totally defeated. York then capitulated: Newcastle was soon after taken by storm. In 1645, overtures from Charles produced a negotiation at Oxford; but demands amounting to an abolition of monarchy, in return for his concessions, prevented any adjustment.* In Scotland, a diversion in his favour by the

* In this session of Parliament, Archbishop Laud, who had been impeached soon after Strafford, was, after a rigorous confinement of four years, brought to the block.

Earl of Montrose wore a promising aspect. With disproportionate means, this young nobleman achieved surprising successes: he defeated Lord Elcho near Perth; Lord Burley at Aberdeen: the Earl of Argyle at Inverlochy; and Baillie and Urrey near Inverness. Meanwhile Cromwell new modelled the Parliamentary army. Fanatic excitement was the grand engine by which he worked on the superstition of the people. The officers assumed the spiritual office, and united it with their military duties. The private soldier, seized with the same fervour, mistook the eloquence of zeal for Divine illumination: such an enthusiasm pervaded the army, that death in the field was accounted martyrdom. The Royalists, little aware of what it could effect, ridiculed the fanaticism of their antagonists; while, in their own licentious bands, military subordination was lost. Even the friends of monarchy were impatient to chastise their indiscriminate rapine.

In the fatal battle of Naseby, Charles lost five hundred officers and four thousand men, who were made prisoners, and all his artillery and ammunition. He first retired to Hereford, and then to Abergavenny. His garrisons rapidly fell. Prince Rupert had undertaken to defend Bristol for four months, yet surrendered it in a few days. The brave Montrose, after vanquishing the Covenanters at Kilsyth, was surprised and routed at Philip-haugh, by a Scottish detachment from England, under Leslie. Meanwhile the King compelled the Scots to raise the siege of Hereford; but, defeated in an attempt to relieve Chester, retired to Oxford, where he shut himself up during the winter.



THE SCOTS SELLING THE KING TO THE ENGLISH PARLIAMENT.

NOTHING could be more affecting than the situation of Charles after the defeat of his champion, the brave Montrose.

Fairfax was advancing with a victorious army to lay siege to Oxford. The King, rather than submit to be taken captive, and led in triumph by his insolent subjects, resolved to give himself to the Scots. Accompanied by Dr. Hudson and Mr. Ashburnham, he arrived at the Scottish camp before Newark, and discovered himself to Lord Leven, the general. The reception he met with was of a piece with their rebellious principles, equally destitute of honour and humanity. They immediately sent an account of his arrival to the English Parliament; and as quickly entered into a treaty for delivering the Royal prisoner into their hands. After various debates, it was agreed, that for the sum of £400,000 the Scots should deliver up the King to his enemies; and this was cheerfully complied with;—an act of infamy and dishonour, unparalleled in history, ancient or modern. The King was conducted by the English commissioners to Holdenby, in the county of Northampton, where he was rigorously confined; his attendants being dismissed, himself debarred from visits, and all communication cut off, both with his friends and family.



THE KING ESCAPING TO THE ISLE OF WIGHT.

THE civil war being over, the King absolved his followers from their allegiance; and the Parliament had now no other enemy to fear than their own troops. It was not long before they found themselves in the same unfortunate situation to which they had reduced the King. The majority of the House were Presbyterians: the majority of the army Independents, at the head of whom was the crafty and politic Cromwell, who secretly conducted all their measures. The Parliament, fearing the ascendancy of the army, passed a vote for disbanding a part of it, and sending another part to Ireland. Cromwell would not suffer this: he called a council of officers, and ordered two men out of every company to be elected by the soldiers.

These men were called the *Agitators*; and were appointed to inquire into the grievances of the army, and lay them before the Commons. Mutual recriminations passed between the army and the Parliament, the latter accusing the military of mutiny and sedition; who retorted the charge, alleging that the King had been deposed only to make way for the usurpations of the Parliament. Cromwell, in the mean time, resolved to seize the King's person; and accordingly he dispatched a party of five hundred horse, under the command Cornet Joyce, formerly a tailor, who conducted the King to the army at Newmarket. After this, Cromwell was received with acclamations, and immediately invested with the supreme command. His next measure was to march to London, and present laws to his employers. He accused of high-treason eleven members of the House of Commons, all of them leading speakers. The House endeavoured to protect them, but it was now too late. The citizens of London began to open their eyes: they beheld the Constitution effectually destroyed; their religion abolished; their King a captive; and a military despotism beginning to take place, instead of the kingly one of which they were formerly afraid.

The Common Council assembled the militia of the city, manned the works, and published a manifesto, aggravating the hostile intentions of the army. The Commons were divided in their sentiments; one party adhering to the citizens, the other to the army. The Speaker, with sixty members, quitted the House, threw himself on the protection of the army, and was received with loud shouts. The citizens seemed at first resolute to hold out; but on the appearance of Cromwell instantly submitted. The mayor, sheriff, and three aldermen were sent to the Tower: many of the citizens and officers of the militia were imprisoned, and the government of the Tower was given to Fairfax.

At this critical juncture both parties privately treated with the King, who was not without hope that, in the struggle for

power, he might be chosen mediator, and even restored to his rights. His domestics and chaplains were now allowed to converse with him, and he was permitted to receive his children. The meeting between them was so pathetic, that Cromwell himself, who was once present on the occasion, declared that he had never witnessed a scene so moving. But these instances of respect were of no long continuance. As soon as the army had acquired victory over the House of Commons, Charles was kept in continual alarm for his own personal safety. In consequence of this, he resolved to withdraw himself from the kingdom. Attended only by three of his courtiers, Sir John Berkeley, Ashburnham, and Leg, he privately left the castle, and travelled all night to the sea-coast, leaving behind him a letter to both Houses of Parliament. His usual bad fortune, however, still attended him. When he arrived at Southampton, no ship was in readiness to receive him: he resolved, therefore, to throw himself on the protection of the Governor of the Isle of Wight. This man, whose name was Hammond, was devoted to Cromwell: he made no promise of protection, but desired to be conducted to the King. Charles being obliged to follow him to Carisbrook Castle, was once more made prisoner, and treated by Hammond with only the external marks of respect.

Whilst Charles remained in this forlorn situation, Cromwell was on the point of losing the fruits of his former schemes, by having his own principles turned against him.

The Independents were for having no subordination in government. A set of men, called Levellers, declaimed against having any other head than Christ; and were for abolishing all distinctions of rank, and reducing all orders of the state to one level. Cromwell's usual vigour and promptitude saved him from the danger. Hearing that they were to meet at a certain place, he unexpectedly appeared among them, at the head of his red regiment, which had hitherto been invincible. He demanded, in the name of God, what they meant by their

murmuring; and receiving an insolent answer, he laid two of them dead at his feet, others he sent prisoners to the Tower, and some he hanged upon the spot; the rest were dispersed by the guards. This action greatly increased his authority, both in the City, the Parliament, and his camp. The King, still a prisoner in the Isle of Wight, continued to negotiate with the Parliament: frequent propositions passed between the captive monarch and the Commons; but the great obstacle to their agreeing, namely, the abolishing of episcopacy, was a point the King would not give up, though he consented to alter the Liturgy. For the convenience of communication, the King was removed to Windsor; to which place the victorious army marched, demanding vengeance against him. He was therefore transferred to Hurst Castle in Hampshire, opposite to the Isle of Wight. Cromwell sent a messenger to the House, saying he intended to pay them a visit the following day; and in the mean time ordered them to raise for him £40,000 on the city of London. The Commons, notwithstanding they had little hope of prevailing, had the courage to resist, and to endeavour to finish the treaty they had begun with the King; and after a violent debate of three days, it was carried in his favour, by a majority of 129 against 83, that his concessions were a foundation for the Houses to proceed upon in settling the affairs of the nation. This was the last attempt in favour of the King. The Scots, ashamed of the base part they had acted against their sovereign, had some time before taken up arms in his favour; but they were defeated by Cromwell at Preston, and their general, the Duke of Hamilton, made prisoner.

The Presbyterian party fell under the power of the Independent. Colonel Pride, at the head of two regiments, blockaded the Commons; and seizing, in the passage, one hundred and one members of the Presbyterian party, sent them to a low room belonging to the House, called *Hell*. Above one hundred and sixty more were excluded; and none were allowed to enter,

but the most furious of the Independents. These men voted that the transactions of the House, a few days before, were illegal; and that their general's conduct was just and necessary. Nothing now was wanting to finish the wickedness of the party but the murder of the King; and it was not long before they completed the catalogue of their crimes, and left their names to posterity, branded with the infamy of regicides.

DEFINITIONS.

Presbyterians.—A religious sect, who maintain that the Church should be governed by Presbyteries (that is, a council of elders), Synods, and General Assemblies.—*J. Evans.*

Independents or Congregationalists.—A religious sect, who deny not only the subordination of the Clergy, but also all dependency on other assemblies. This mode of church government is adopted by Dissenters in general.—*ib.*



DEATH OF THE KING.

IN an assembly composed of the most obscure citizens and officers of the army, arrogating to themselves the title of *Commons of England*, a committee was appointed to bring in a charge of treason against his Majesty. For form sake, they desired the concurrence of the few remaining Lords in the Upper House: but these had still virtue enough unanimously to reject it. The Commons, however, were not to be deterred from their purpose, and therefore voted, that the concurrence of the House of Lords was unnecessary, as the people were the origin of all just power.

Colonel Harrison, the son of a butcher, was commanded to conduct the King from Hurst Castle to Windsor, and from thence to London. His affectionate subjects ran to have a sight of their afflicted Sovereign, and were greatly shocked at the change that appeared in his person. He had permitted

his beard to grow, his hair was venerably grey, and his whole apparel bore marks of misfortune and decay. Sir Philip Warwick, an old and decrepit servant, who had long attended his unhappy master, could only deplore those miseries he was unable to alleviate. All the exterior symbols of authority were withdrawn; and the attendants of Charles had orders to serve him without ceremony. The King could not be persuaded that his enemies would bring him to a public trial, but he expected every moment to be dispatched by private assassination.

From the 6th to the 30th of January was spent in preparation for this extraordinary trial. The court of justice consisted of one hundred and thirty-three persons, named by the Commons; but of these, not more than seventy met upon the trial. The Court met in Westminster Hall. Bradshaw, a lawyer, was chosen president; Coke, solicitor for the people of England. When the King was brought into the Court, he was conducted by the mace-bearer to a chair placed within the bar. Though long detained a prisoner, and now produced as a criminal, he still maintained the dignity of a King. His charge was then read by the Solicitor, by which he was accused of being the cause of all the bloodshed since the commencement of the war.

The King, being told that the Court awaited his reply, began his defence by declining the authority of the Court. He represented, that having been engaged in a treaty with both Houses of Parliament, and having finished almost every article, he expected different treatment to what he now received. He perceived, he said, no appearance of an Upper House, which was necessary to constitute a just tribunal. He alleged, that he was himself the King, and fountain of law, and consequently could not be tried by laws to which he never had given his assent; that having been entrusted with the liberties of the people, he would not now betray them by recognizing a power founded in usurpation; that he was willing, before a

proper tribunal, to enter into the particulars of his defence ; but that he must decline any apology for his innocence, lest he should be considered as the betrayer of, and not a martyr for, the Constitution. The King was three times produced before the Court, and as often persisted in declining its jurisdiction. On being brought before this self-created tribunal for the fourth and last time, he was insulted by the soldiers and the mob, as he was proceeding thither, who cried out, "Justice ! justice ! execution ! execution !" but he continued undaunted. The behaviour of Charles, under all these instances of low-bred malice, was great, firm, and equal. The soldiers and rabble reviled him with the most bitter reproaches. Among other insults, one miscreant presumed to spit in the face of his Sovereign. He patiently bore their insolence : "Poor souls !" cried he, "they would treat their Generals in the same manner for sixpence." Those of the populace who still retained the feelings of humanity, expressed their sorrow in sighs and tears. A soldier, more compassionate than the rest, could not help imploring a blessing on his royal head. An officer overhearing him, struck the honest sentinel to the ground before the King, who could not help observing that the punishment exceeded the offence.

On his return to Whitehall, Charles desired permission of the House to see his children, and to be attended in his private devotions by Dr. Juxton, late Bishop of London. These requests were granted, and also three days to prepare for death. Every night between his sentence and execution the King slept as sound as usual, though the noise of the workmen employed in framing the scaffold actually resounded in his ears. The fatal morning being at last arrived, he rose early ; and calling one of his attendants, bade him employ more than usual care in dressing him, and preparing him for so great a solemnity. The street before Whitehall was the place destined for his execution, for it was intended that this should

increase the severity of his punishment. He was led through the Banqueting House to the scaffold adjoining to that edifice, attended by his friend and servant, Bishop Juxton, a man of the same mild and steady virtues as his master. The scaffold, which was covered with black, was guarded by a regiment of soldiers, under the command of Colonel Tomlinson; and on it appeared the block, the axe, and two executioners in masks. The people, in crowds, stood at a greater distance. The King surveyed all these solemn preparations with calm composure; and as he could not expect to be heard by the people at a distance, he addressed himself to the few persons who stood around him. He there justified his innocence in the late fatal wars. He observed, that he had not taken arms till Parliament had shewn him the example; and that he had no other object, in his warlike preparations, than to preserve that authority entire which had been transmitted to him by his ancestors. But though innocent towards his people, he acknowledged the equity of his execution in the eyes of his Maker: he owned that he was justly punished for having consented to the execution of an unjust sentence against the Earl of Strafford. He forgave all his enemies, exhorted the people to return to their obedience, acknowledged his son as his successor, and signified his attachment to the Protestant religion as professed by the Church of England. So strong was the impression made by his dying words on those who could hear him, that Colonel Tomlinson himself, to whose care he had been committed, acknowledged himself a convert. At one blow his head was severed from his body. The other executioner then holding up the head, exclaimed, "This is the head of a traitor."

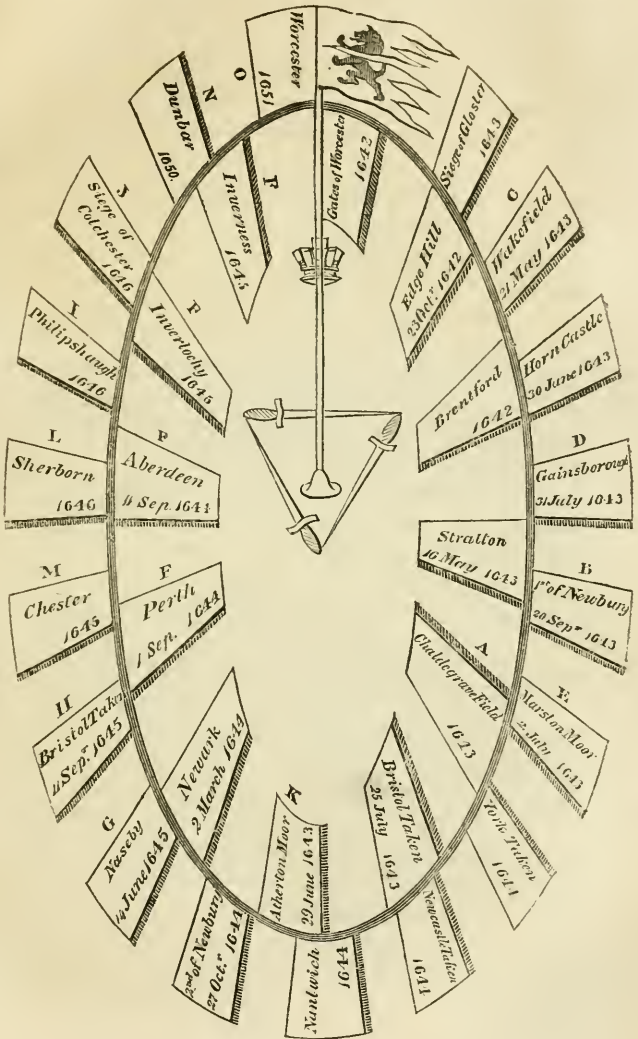
It is impossible to describe the grief, indignation, and astonishment which took place, not only among the spectators, who were overwhelmed with a flood of sorrow, but throughout the whole nation, as soon as the report of this fatal execution was conveyed to them. Each blamed himself, either with

active disloyalty to the King, or a passive compliance with his destroyers. The very pulpits, that used to resound with insolence and sedition, were now bedewed with tears of unfeigned repentance; and all united in their detestation of those dark hypocrites, who, to satisfy their own enmity, involved a whole nation in the guilt of treason. Charles was executed on the 30th of January, 1649, in the forty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign. He left six children: Charles, who succeeded him; James, Duke of York; Henry, Duke of Gloucester; Mary, married to the Prince of Orange; Elizabeth, who died of grief for the death of her father; and Henrietta, afterwards Duchess of Orleans.

PLATE XXIX.

THE CIVIL WARS.

In the centre is the symbol of the Commons, which has usurped the whole authority of the State. It is guarded by three swords, pointing in different directions, intimating that their power is founded on usurpation and tyranny, and only upheld by the sword. The standard of Rebellion issues from the top, and passing over the crown, waves triumphant above it. The labels within the circle record those battles and sieges that were favourable to the Royal cause; those beyond the circle are the victories gained by the Parliamentary Army.



THE CIVIL WARS.

ROYAL CIRCLE.

1. *Gates of Worcester*.—Here began the civil war between Charles and his Parliament. Prince Rupert, commanding a body of horse, routed a detachment of cavalry under Colonel Sandys, who was slain.

2. *Edge Hill*.—Both wings of the Parliamentary army were routed; the King's reserve unskilfully joined in the pursuit. The opposite reserve fell upon the uncovered centre, and nearly balanced the advantages of the day. Both parties passed the night under arms. Essex first retired; and the towns of Banbury and Reading soon after fell into the King's hands.

3. *Brentford*.—Charles attacked two regiments quartered in this town, and took 500 prisoners.

4. *Stratton*.—The Cornish royalists, invaded by the Parliamentary army from Devonshire, achieved a victory against very superior numbers, and took prisoner Major-General Chidley.

5. *Chaldegrave Field*.—Prince Rupert surprised the dispersed bodies of Essex's army. In an ineffectual attempt to repair this disgrace fell John Hampden, a man of virtue and talent but his opposition to ship-money was one of the leading causes of the Rebellion.

6. *Atherton Moor*.—Here Lord Fairfax sustained a signal defeat from the Royalists.

7. *Bristol taken*.—After a sanguinary assault, this city was surrendered to Prince Rupert by Fiennes the governor; for which he was condemned by a court-martial to lose his head: but the sentence was afterwards remitted.

8. *Battle of Newark*.—Newark, being besieged by Parliamentary troops, was relieved by Prince Rupert, who with an inferior force broke through the enemy, and totally dispersed their army.

9. *Perth*.—Here Montrose, with an inferior and ill-disciplined force, obtained a complete victory over Lord Elcho, who lost two thousand of his men.

10. *Aberdeen*.—Montrose defeated Lord Burley.
11. *Inverlochy*.—Montrose defeated the Earl of Argyle.
12. *Inverness*.—Montrose defeated Baillie and Urry.

PARLIAMENTARY CIRCLE.

1. *Siege of Gloucester*.—Charles undertook this siege immediately after reducing Bristol. The city was resolutely defended by Massey the governor, until the arrival of Essex, who compelled the King to raise the siege.

Had Charles, instead of besieging Gloucester, marched directly to London, it is probable he would have succeeded in crushing the rebellion, and have terminated the civil war.

2. *Wakefield*.—In defeating a detachment of Royalists here under General Goring, Sir Thomas Fairfax, son of Lord Fairfax, first distinguished himself in a separate command.

3. *Horn Castle*.—Here the Royalists were defeated by the Earl of Manchester, who had joined Cromwell and the younger Fairfax; both of whom greatly increased their military reputation.

4. *Gainsborough*.—In this action the celebrated Oliver Cromwell commanded, and defeated the gallant Cavendish, who fell.

5. *First Battle of Newbury*.—The King having intercepted Essex on his return from relieving Gloucester, a sanguinary conflict ensued, to which night put an end before victory was decided. Next morning, Essex continued his march to London, the King's horse making incursions on his rear. Charles lost in this action Lucius Cary Viscount Falkland, secretary of state. This great support and ornament of the royal cause was equally distinguished for his genius, and the generosity of his disposition. Though an ardent lover of liberty, he zealously defended the monarchical branch of the Constitution, when he found the democratical faction bent on destroying it. From the commencement of the war, his natural cheerfulness and vivacity became clouded; and among his intimate friends he would often, after a long silence, sigh deeply, and exclaim, "Peace!"

6. *Marston Moor*.—The Marquis of Newcastle, with 20,000 men, had forced the Parliamentary generals to raise the siege of York, and had been joined by Prince Rupert with his forces. Having effected two great objects, the Marquis endeavoured to persuade Rupert not to fight the pitched battle which the combined Scottish and Parliamentary armies offered. Rupert rashly disregarded this counsel, fought, and was routed; on which Newcastle withdrew in disgust from the Royal cause, which he considered desperate: he left the kingdom, and lived on the Continent till the Restoration.

7. *York taken*.—By Lord Fairfax.

8. *Newcastle taken by Storm*.—By the Earl of Manchester and Cromwell.

9. *Nantwich*.—The Royalists under Lord Biron, consisting chiefly of forces brought from Ireland, were defeated here by the younger Fairfax.

10. *Second Battle of Newbury*.—Charles, with his brave troops, encountered five of the Parliamentary armies, which had formed a junction under the Earl of Manchester. They were overpowered by numbers; but night saved them from a total overthrow.

11. *Battle of Naseby*.—In this well-disputed and memorable action, the main body was led on by the King in person, who displayed all the conduct of a prudent general, and valour of a soldier. He broke the enemy's centre; at the same time Rupert defeated their right wing, but urged the pursuit too far, and made an unavailing movement against some artillery. The royal left gave way before Cromwell, who turned upon the King's infantry. Rupert came back too late with his body of horse; and Charles was obliged to quit the field, leaving all his artillery, ammunition, and 4,500 prisoners, in the hands of the enemy.

12. *Bristol taken*.—This important place was surrendered by Prince Rupert as soon as Fairfax had forced his lines; an un-

expected event, which was little less fatal to the Royal cause than the defeat at Naseby.

13. *Battle of Chester.*—Charles, having marched to the relief of Chester, was completely defeated by Colonel Jones. This is the last action in which the unfortunate monarch was engaged.

14. *Battle of Sherborn.*—Lord Digby, who had attempted with 1200 horse to penetrate into Scotland, and join Montrose, was defeated by Colonel Copley, at Sherborn, in Yorkshire.

15. *Philipshaugh.*—By the negligence of his scouts, Montrose's army was surprised, and, after a sharp conflict, defeated. In 1650, he again appeared in arms, to support the pretensions of Charles II. He was again surprised and defeated, and escaped in the disguise of a peasant, but was perfidiously betrayed by a pretended friend; and after enduring every species of insult that lowminded malice could inflict, suffered an ignominious death at Edinburgh, in the thirty-eighth year of his age.

16. *Siege of Colchester.*—The garrison of Colchester, after suffering the extremities of famine, surrendered at discretion. Fairfax, at the instigation of Ireton, seized upon Sir Charles Lucas and Sir George Lisle, and put them to death. Lisle, thinking that the soldiers who were to execute him stood too far off, desired them to come nearer. One of the soldiers exclaimed, "Never fear, sir! we shall hit you:"—on which he replied, "My friends, you have been nearer, and yet missed me."

17. *Battle of Dunbar.*—The Scots, in some measure ashamed of their conduct to Charles I., had recalled his son, and determined to lead an army into England, to oppose Cromwell. At Dunbar, when Lesley, by acting on the defensive, had reduced Cromwell to great difficulties, the superstition of the Scottish clergy forced their general to engage. The Scots suffered a total defeat, 3,000 of them being slain, and 9,000 taken prisoners.

18. *Battle of Worcester.*—With the remains of the Scottish army routed at Dunbar, about 14,000 men, Charles advanced

into England. Cromwell, with an army of 40,000 men, overtook him at Worcester. Charles was completely defeated, and the whole Scottish army either killed or taken. This was the last of those sanguinary conflicts which deluged the country with blood, and filled the minds of men with gloom, distrust, or hypocrisy.

Note.—It is worthy of remark, that during these unhappy contests, when a divided people were supporting the most repugnant principles in religion and government by an appeal to the sword, fewer instances of cruelty or treachery are to be met with, than are to be found in any other nation similarly situated:—a circumstance that redounds greatly to the honour of our national character.

PLATE XXX.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

The symbol of the Commonwealth is three swords, in allusion to its military despotism.

Fig. 1.—DEFEAT OF THE SCOTS.

The Scots having set up the Royal banner, are defeated by Cromwell, whose standard is distinguished by the symbol of the Commonwealth.

Fig. 2.—BATTLE OF WORCESTER.

Charles concealing himself in the oak from the Parliamentary soldiers, who were in pursuit of him.

Fig. 3.—NAVAL WAR WITH THE DUTCH.

The anchors connected by the cables, indicates the resolute conduct of the combatants. The larger branch of laurel inclining above the letter E, shews England to be finally triumphant.

Fig. 4.—CROMWELL DISSOLVING THE PARLIAMENT.

The symbol of the Commonwealth is broken by Cromwell. The mace at his feet, shews that the power of the Parliament was annihilated.

Fig. 5.—AMBITION OF CROMWELL.

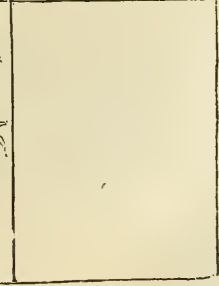
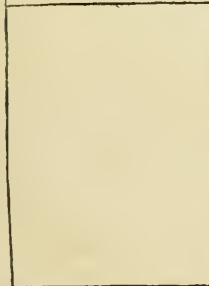
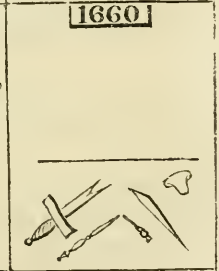
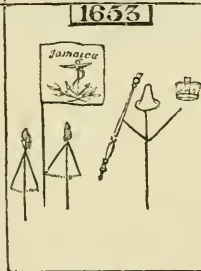
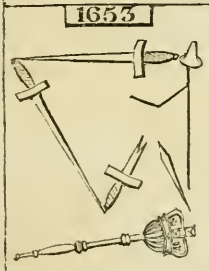
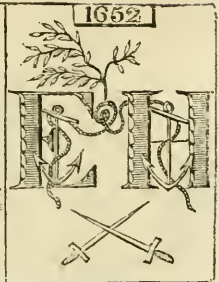
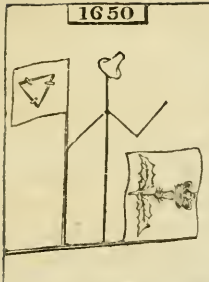
On the right, Cromwell is holding the sceptre, the emblem of power; the other hand points to the Crown, the object of his wishes. On the left, are Admirals Penn and Venables, bearing a standard, emblematical of the conquest of Jamaica. They are represented in chains, because they were thrown into prison for having failed in the principal object of their expedition.

Fig. 6.—DEATH OF CROMWELL.

The broken sword and sceptre shew the downfall of his power.

Fig. 7.—THE RESTORATION.

The symbol of the Constitution resting on a column, indicates the stability of the Restoration. On the other side are the symbols of peace and victory. On a scroll above is the name of "Monk," the restorer of the British Monarchy.



THE COMMONWEALTH.

OLIVER CROMWELL.

OLIVER CROMWELL, at the commencement of the Civil Wars, was in possession of an estate which he inherited from his uncle, Sir James Stuart: and was elected a member of the third Parliament, in the reign of Charles the First. His constitution was robust; his aspect manly, but vulgar; his disposition bold and resolute:—quick in deciding, and contemning all danger in pursuit of his object. It was, perhaps, the continual success which attended all his measures, that first prompted him to aim at sovereign power; and though the attainment of that power was only to be procured by the destruction of his Prince, he scrupled not at the means, but traitorously threw a stain on his country that can never be effaced.

He easily penetrated into the minds of others, but was himself impenetrable. His religion was gloomy and fanatical: with Pharisaical zeal he *talked of Godliness*, but his *works* were the works of iniquity.

By some authors, he is exalted to the highest rank among men: but *he* cannot be a great man, the foundation of whose greatness is laid in guilt.

When invested with sovereign power, Cromwell supported the dignity of the nation by the vigour of his administration: he added to its glory, but not to its strength: he extended its fame by conquest, but involved it in debt. He first took up arms to oppose the arbitrary power of Charles, yet himself exercised power with greater despotism than the sovereign he had destroyed. He hated monarchy while a subject; he despised liberty when in power. He was cruel and politic, but a great hypocrite; and owed the success of his schemes as much to his dissimulation as to his courage and capacity.

DEFINITION.

Commonwealth or Republic.—A popular state of government, where the chief power is vested in the hands of the people.

DEFEAT OF THE SCOTS.

IMMEDIATELY upon the death of the late King, the House of Lords was voted useless and dangerous, and was therefore abolished. It was made high-treason to acknowledge Charles Stuart, son of the late King, as successor to the throne:* and so fearful were the Commons of retaining any expressions in any way connected with Royalty, that the form of all public business was changed from being transacted in the King's name, to that of the *Keepers of the Liberties of England*:—nay, even the Court of King's Bench was called the Court of *Public Bench*. The Scots, having always been accustomed to monarchical government, were unwilling to annihilate it. The execution of many of their nobles for fidelity to the King, the insolence of the Independents, and, above all, their numerous victories, excited both the anger and the jealousy of the Scots. They determined, therefore, to acknowledge young Charles as their sovereign, and to invite him to Scotland, but, at the same time, to abridge his power as much as possible.

Commissioners were accordingly sent to treat with Charles: who, finding no likelihood of assistance from the French Court, whither he had fled for refuge, was glad to accept of any conditions. On entering the gates of Edinburgh, he had the mortification of beholding the mangled limbs of his faithful servant Montrose, whom the Covenanters had lately executed and quartered.

The young King soon found that he had only exchanged exile for imprisonment: he was surrounded, and incessantly importuned, by a set of fanatical clergy, who, having trampled upon Royalty, now resolved to keep it in a state of degradation. Charles pretended to listen to their discourses; but wearied by

* It is affirmed that the Commons intended to apprentice the Princess Elizabeth to a button-maker: but she died of grief, shortly after the death of her unhappy father.

their perpetual denunciations, he attempted to escape : he was, however, overtaken, and brought back.

During these transactions in the North, Cromwell was in Ireland ; from whence, after reducing nearly the whole of that kingdom to obedience, he was recalled by the Parliament, to oppose the Scots, who had raised a considerable army in support of the Royal cause, and put the whole under the command of General Leslie, an officer of great skill and courage.

Cromwell being declared Commander-in-chief of the Parliamentary forces, set out with alacrity to meet the enemy. Leslie had posted himself very advantageously, and, but for the folly and absurdity of the Scots' clergy, must have totally defeated Cromwell. Contrary to his better judgment, Leslie was forced to descend into the plain ; a battle was fought at Dunbar (*see Plate 29*) ; and though the Scots were double the number of the English, they were soon put to flight, and pursued with great slaughter.



BATTLE OF WORCESTER.

AFTER the defeat at Dunbar, Charles put himself at the head of the remainder of his army, which he further strengthened with those Royalists who had been excluded from his service by the Covenanters. He however soon found it impossible to maintain his army, being closely pressed by Cromwell. Resolved to put all to the hazard, and finding the way open to England, he boldly pressed forward, in the hope of being joined by all the Royalists in the kingdom ; but in this he was deceived : as the English, terrified at the name of his opponent, dreaded to join him. At Worcester he was overtaken by Cromwell, with an army of 40,000 men, who fell upon the town and took it. Charles's little army was annihilated ; almost all his men were killed or taken prisoners ; and Charles himself, having given many signal proofs of valour, was obliged

to fly. By the Earl of Derby's direction, he went to a lone house on the borders of Staffordshire, inhabited by one Penderell, a farmer. To this man Charles entrusted himself: and though death was denounced against all who concealed the King, and a great reward promised to any who should betray him, the farmer and his four brothers maintained an unshaken fidelity. Having clothed the King in a peasant's dress, they led him into a neighbouring wood, put a hatchet into his hand, and pretended to be employed in cutting fagots. The better to conceal himself, Charles took shelter in an oak; from whence he saw several soldiers pass by, and heard some of them express their earnest wish to seize him. When the heat of the pursuit began to abate, he, with imminent danger, after suffering hunger, fatigue, and pain, arrived at the house of Colonel Lane, a zealous royalist. Desirous of escaping into France, and Bristol being supposed the fittest port from whence to embark, he rode there with Mr. Lane's sister behind him, who was going, as was supposed, to visit a Mrs. Norton, a lady residing in that neighbourhood. In this journey he saw many faces that he knew, and at one time passed through a whole regiment of the enemy's cavalry. On his arrival at Mrs. Norton's, the King, after he had led his horse to the stable, was shewn into an apartment which Mrs. Lane had provided for him. The butler being sent to him with some refreshments, no sooner beheld his face, than he recollected his King and master; and falling upon his knees, exclaimed, "I am rejoiced to see your Majesty!" The King was alarmed; but the butler promised secrecy, and inviolably kept his word. Disappointed in his expectations of procuring a ship at Bristol, Charles went to the house of Colonel Wyndham, in Dorsetshire, where he was cordially received. The Colonel's mother, a venerable matron, seemed to think the end of her life nobly rewarded, in being enabled to protect her sovereign, though three of her sons and one grandson had fallen in his cause. Pursuing his journey to the seaside, he

had a narrow escape at a little inn where he put up for the night. A fanatical weaver was preaching against him in a little chapel fronting the house: the King, to avoid suspicion, joined the congregation. A smith, of the same principles with the preacher, interrupted him, saying that he knew, by the fashion of the horses' shoes, that one of the strangers came from the north. The preacher immediately affirmed it was Charles Stuart, and instantly went with a constable to search the inn: Charles, however, had time to escape.

At length a vessel was found at Shoreham, in Sussex, in which the King embarked. He was known to so many, that had he not set sail in that critical moment, it would have been impossible for him to have escaped. After forty-one days' concealment, he arrived safely at Feschamp in Normandy; not fewer than forty persons having, at different times, been privy to his escape.

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NAVAL WAR WITH THE DUTCH.

THE Parliament having reduced all parts of the British dominions to perfect subjection, next resolved to chastise the Dutch, who had given but very slight causes of complaint. When Dr. Dorislaus, one of the late King's judges, was sent by Parliament as their envoy to Holland, he was assassinated by some of the Royalists who had taken refuge there, and his murderers were not pursued with that rigour which the Parliament expected. Not long after, their ambassador, Mr. St. John, was insulted by the friends of the Prince of Orange. These causes were thought of sufficient importance to justify a declaration of war against the Dutch. The Parliament placed their chief dependance in the activity and courage of Admiral Blake; who though he had not embarked in naval command till late in life, yet surpassed all his predecessors in bravery, and in the promptitude of his measures. It was a saying of his,

that into what hands soever the Government might fall, it was still the duty of Englishmen to fight for their country. The Dutch opposed to him their famous Van Tromp, who has never yet been rivalled by any of his countrymen. Many engagements, with alternate success, took place between these justly celebrated commanders. The first battle was fought in the Downs, near Dover, whither the Dutch fleet had been driven by stress of weather. The fight was maintained for five hours with great bravery. Blake took one ship, and sunk another; but the approach of night parted the combatants, and the Dutch fleet retired to Holland. Another engagement took place on the coast of Kent, when the Dutch, under the command of De Witte and De Ruyter, were defeated: their rear-admiral's ship being boarded and taken, two other vessels sunk, and one was blown up. In a third engagement, near the Goodwin Sands, the Dutch had the advantage; but Blake again defeated them near the Isle of Rhé. This battle, which was most obstinately contested, lasted three days: the Dutch lost eleven ships of war, 2,000 men were slain, and 1,500 taken prisoners. The English had but one ship sunk, though many were very much shattered; and the number of men slain was not much inferior to that of the enemy. The Dutch suffered still more severely in their commerce, having lost above 1,600 vessels. They were therefore extremely desirous of peace; but the English Parliament, elated with their successes, were anxious to keep their navy on foot as long as possible, in order to counterbalance the power of Cromwell by land.

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CROMWELL DISSOLVING THE PARLIAMENT.

CROMWELL, perceiving the designs of the Parliament, and secure of the attachment of the army, persuaded the officers to present a petition for payment of arrears and redress of grievances. His orders were obeyed. The House was highly offended, and

appointed a Committee to prepare an Act, ordaining that all persons who presented such petitions in future should be deemed guilty of high-treason. To this the officers made a warm remonstrance, and the Parliament an angry reply. Cromwell, being informed of this altercation, started up in the utmost seeming fury, and addressing Major Vernon, "I am compelled," said he, "to do that which makes the very hair of my head to stand on end!" Then hastening to the House, accompanied by three hundred soldiers, he entered with marks of violent indignation in his countenance, took his seat, and for some time listened to the debates in silence. At length, suddenly rising, he poured forth a torrent of reproaches against the Parliament; accusing them of tyranny, ambition, oppression, and robbery of the public. Stamping with his foot, for the soldiers to enter, the place was instantly filled with armed men. Then addressing himself to the Members: "For shame!" said he, "get you gone, and give place to honest men! You are no longer a Parliament: I tell you, you are no longer a Parliament: the Lord has done with you." Sir Harry Vane exclaiming against this conduct: "Sir Harry!" says Cromwell, "Sir Harry Vane!—the Lord deliver me from Sir Harry Vane! It is you," continued he, "that have forced me upon this: I have besought the Lord, day and night, that he would rather slay me than put me upon this work." Then pointing to the mace, "Take away that bauble!" said he. After which, clearing the hall, he ordered the doors to be locked, and, putting the keys in his pocket, returned to Whitehall.

This bold transaction made Cromwell absolute sovereign of Great Britain: however, to amuse the people with the shadow of a Parliament, he selected one hundred and forty-four persons, in whom it was decreed the sovereign power should be vested. The persons pitched upon were the lowest, the meanest, and the most ignorant of the citizens, and the very dregs of the

fanatics. They took whole sentences of Scripture for surnames, which they rendered ridiculous by their misapplication. A canting leather-seller, whose name was *Praise-God Barebones*, gave his name to this odd assembly, which was called "Barebones' Parliament." The members were chiefly Antinomians, and Fifth-monarchy men. The former, after receiving the Spirit, supposed themselves incapable of error. The latter imagined that the time for Our Saviour's second coming was arrived, and therefore were every hour expecting him. Eight members were employed to seek the Lord in prayer; while the rest calmly sat down to deliberate upon the suppression of the Clergy, the Universities, and Courts of Justice; and instead of these, they proposed to substitute the Law of Moses. It was impossible for such a legislation as this to exist for any length of time. The most ignorant considered it as absurd; and Cromwell himself began to be ashamed of their follies. Some of the members were devoted to his interests, and these he commanded to dismiss the assembly. Accordingly they met, by agreement, at an earlier hour than usual; and observing to each other that the Parliament had sat long enough, they hastened to Cromwell, with Rose their Speaker at their head, and resigned their authority. Some of the members, however, continuing refractory, Cromwell ordered Colonel White to clear the House of such as remained there. Upon White's asking them what they were doing there, they replied, they were seeking the Lord:—"Then you may go elsewhere," said White; "for, to my certain knowledge, the Lord has not been here these many years."

DEFINITIONS.

Committee.—A certain number of members appointed by the House, for the examination of a bill or other important matters.

Universities.—Corporate establishments formed for the education of youth in the liberal arts and sciences, and authorized to admit such as

have studied in them to certain *degrees*, in different faculties, which not only serve as certificates in proficiency in science, but also confer on those who obtain them considerable privileges within the University, as well as some rank in the State without it.

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AMBITION OF CROMWELL.

THE appearance even of a Parliament being extinct, the Officers, by their own authority, elected Cromwell "Protector of the Commonwealth of England." The Mayor and Aldermen were sent for, to give solemnity to his appointment; and he was instituted into his office at Whitehall, the palace of the Kings of England. He was to be addressed by the title of Highness, and his power was proclaimed in London and in the other parts of the kingdom. A Council of twenty-one persons was appointed, who were to enjoy their offices for life or during good behaviour. The Protector was the supreme magistrate of the Commonwealth, and was vested with the same powers as the King had been possessed of. He was obliged to summon a Parliament once every three years, which was to continue sitting five months without adjournment; a standing army was appointed, consisting of 20,000 foot and 10,000 horse; and funds were assigned for their support. The Protector was to enjoy his office only for life; and his successor was to be nominated by the Council. Cromwell chose his Council from among his officers, and assigned to each of them a pension of £1,000 a year. The standing army was the greatest advantage to Cromwell; and as his chief dependence was upon the troops, he took care to have them liberally paid.

It being understood by his dependants, that the Protector was desirous of having the crown offered him, a motion to that effect was made in the House, and carried. Nothing was now wanting but Cromwell's own consent, to have his name enrolled amongst the Kings of England; but this he never gave;

he wished to be *compelled* to receive the name and insignia of King, though already in possession of more than kingly power, and exercising an authority as absolute as the most despotic Prince in Europe. He was feared at home, and respected abroad. The Dutch sued for peace, and were compelled to abandon the interests of the King; to pay £85,000 as an indemnification for former expenses; to restore to the English East-India Company a part of those dominions, of which they had been dispossessed by the Dutch in a former reign; and to pay respect to the British flag. The French Ministry cultivated the Protector's friendship, and induced him to lend 6,000 men for the attack of the Spanish dominions in the Netherlands, where they obtained a signal victory; and, as a reward for this service, Dunkirk was placed in the hands of the English. The Spaniards were humbled by the brave Admiral Blake, who also chastised the Algerines and Tunisians. Penn and Venables, two other Admirals, made an attempt on Hispaniola, but failing in this, they steered to Jamaica, which surrendered to them without a blow; yet so little was the Government acquainted with the importance of this conquest, that the two Admirals, on their return, were thrown into prison, for having failed in the principal object of their equipment.

DEFINITIONS.

Standing Army.—Regular troops, that are kept in constant pay, to be ready at all times to oppose an enemy, and to serve wherever it may be necessary to send them.

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DEATH OF CROMWELL.

THE great expense attending foreign wars and a standing army exhausted the Protector's revenue. To replenish his treasury, he had recourse to severe measures. One or two conspiracies entered into by the Royalists, and which were detected and punished, served him with a pretence for laying a

heavy tax on the whole of that party. The tenth penny of all their possessions was demanded; and in order to raise this oppressive imposition, ten Major-generals were appointed, who divided the whole kingdom into as many military jurisdictions. The nation had no protection against their exactions: the very mask of liberty was thrown aside, and all property was at the disposal of a military tribunal. The people becoming importunate for a free Parliament, Cromwell complied with their intreaties, but speedily dissolved it, when he found it intractable. At length he resolved to have a Parliament of his own choosing; and, lest any besides those of his own party should gain admittance, guards were stationed at the door, and none allowed to enter but such as had a warrant from his Council.

Cromwell now began to feel all the miseries attendant upon ill-gotten power; his arts of dissimulation were exhausted; he had rendered himself odious to all parties, and was suspected by every one; even those of his own principles disdaining him for the use to which he had converted his zeal and his professions. But what gave him most concern was the estrangement of his family. His eldest daughter, Mrs. Fleetwood, possessed such determined republican principles, that she could not without indignation behold him invested with unlimited power. His other daughters were no less in favour of the Royal party. Mrs. Claypole, his favourite, even on her death-bed, upbraided him with the crimes which had led him to trample on the throne. Various conspiracies were formed against him; and he was at last taught, upon reasoning principles, that his death was not only desirable, but that his assassination would be meritorious. Colonel Titus had formerly been attached to his cause; but he now published a book, entitled "Killing no Murder," which is said to have produced such an effect upon Cromwell, that he never smiled after perusing that spirited pamphlet. He was haunted with perpetual fears of assassination; he wore armour under his clothes, and always kept pistols

in his pockets; his aspect was clouded by a settled gloom, and he beheld every stranger with suspicion. He always travelled in a hurry, and never returned from any place by the road he went; never moving a step without guards, and seldom sleeping three nights together in the same chamber. A tertian ague at length delivered him from this life of horror and anxiety. He died September 3d, 1658, after having usurped the government nine years.

As Cromwell, when nearly speechless, had expressed a wish that his son Richard should succeed him in the Protectorship, the Council immediately recognized his succession. Fleetwood, in whose favour it was supposed Cromwell had formerly made a will, renounced all pretensions. Henry, Richard's brother, who, as Lord-lieutenant, governed Ireland with popularity, insured him the obedience of that kingdom. Monk proclaimed him in Scotland. The army and fleet acknowledged his title, and foreign ministers paid him the usual compliments. Richard, whose unambitious character would never have led him to contend for empire, was hereby tempted to accept of so flattering an invitation; but, as he wanted resolution, and possessed none of those arts which were proper to gain an enthusiastic army, he soon signed his own abdication.

Thus suddenly fell the family of the Cromwells! On the Restoration, Richard retired to Holland, but returned in 1680, and settled near Cheshunt, in Hertfordshire; where, secluded from public observation, and possessing a moderate estate, he extended his peaceful and quiet life to his eighty-sixth year, leaving several children, whose posterity still reside at the same place; his social virtues, more valuable than the greatest capacity, thus meeting with a recompense far preferable to noisy fame.*

* Henry Cromwell settled, as a farmer, at Soham in Cambridge-shire; where Charles II. once condescended to become his guest,

THE RESTORATION.

GEORGE MONK was the second son of an ancient and honourable family in Devonshire. In very early youth he embraced the profession of arms, and studied the military art on the Continent.

When the trumpet of Discord first sounded in England, he returned, joined the Royal standard, and was taken prisoner by Fairfax at the siege of Nantwich; after which he was sent to the Tower. During his confinement there, Charles I. sent him a present of one hundred guineas; and, until the entire subjugation of the Royal party, Monk remained inflexible to all the blandishments of Cromwell: who, sensible of his merit, did every thing in his power to gain him to his interest. At length he accepted a command against the Irish rebels, who were alike obnoxious to the King and to the Parliament.

At the time of Cromwell's death, Monk was at the head of a numerous and well-disciplined army in Scotland, whose affections he had gained by his humanity and equal temper. Upon the deposition of Richard Cromwell, he protested against the violence of that army which had expelled the Parliament, and declared his intention to vindicate their annulled privileges. He was, however, suspected to have deeper designs, but whether they related to his personal aggrandizement, or had for their object the restoration of his legitimate Sovereign, was equally a mystery; the attention of all men was fixed upon him, and every action watched with the keenest solicitude. So secret was he in his plans, that he would not trust his own brother, who came to treat with him from the King, because he had communicated his commission to another; although that other was a man in whom Monk himself placed the greatest confidence. All his operations were conducted with profound secrecy; he amused General Lambert, by whose intrigues and

when that Monarch was returning fatigued from a hunting-party, during his occasional residence at Newmarket.

violence the late Parliament had been dissolved, with evasive negotiations, but still continued his march towards London. In all the counties through which he passed, the principal gentry flocked to him, intreating him to use his influence for the restoration of peace, by calling a free Parliament. To their addresses Monk made no reply, but continued his march, and arrived, with but few interruptions, at St. Alban's, whence he sent a message to the Parliament, desiring them to remove those regiments which had lately offered them violence; with which requisition they complied, and Monk and his followers took up their quarters in Westminster.

When the thanks of the House were voted him for his eminent services, he replied, That he had done no more than his duty, and merited not such praise as they were pleased to honour him with. He urged the necessity of a free Parliament; and entered into a strict union with the citizens of London, for mutual support, in every enterprize for the happiness and settlement of the Commonwealth. The joy of the people on this occasion was unbounded; the secluded Members of the Rump Parliament were restored to their seats; and the majority being in their favour, most of the Independents left the House.

The first legislative Act of the restored Members was to renew this General's commission, and enlarge his power. They next fixed an assessment for the support of the fleet and the army; after which they dissolved themselves, issuing writs for the immediate assembling of a new Parliament.

Every thing seemed to announce the restoration of Monarchy, as the elections were every where in favour of the Royal party. Still, however, Monk was silent. A gentleman, named Morrice, was the only person with whom he deliberated concerning the great enterprize he projected.

Sir John Granville, who had a commission from the King, applied to Morrice for access to the General, but was desired to communicate his business to him. Granville however, though

importunately urged, refused to deliver his message to any one but Monk himself. Finding that he might trust him, Monk now admitted him to his presence, and opened to him his whole intentions. At length the Parliament met; and Monk, having sufficiently sounded their inclinations, informed them that Sir John Granville, a servant of the King's, had been sent over by his Majesty, and was now at the door of the House, with a letter addressed to the Commons. The loudest acclamations followed this communication: Granville was called in, the letter and the declaration were read, and a committee appointed to frame an answer. In the King's declaration, a general amnesty was offered, with liberty of conscience, and submission to Parliament.

As a prelude to the return of Monarchy, the Peers were reinstated in their ancient authority. The King was then proclaimed with great solemnity; a present of £50,000 was voted him; and a committee of Lords and Commons dispatched, to invite his Majesty to return, and take possession of the Government.

The King, on his landing at Dover, was met by Monk, whom he cordially embraced. Few subjects, indeed, ever deserved more from their King and country than he. In the space of a few months, without tumult, without violence, without bloodshed, he restored peace to three kingdoms, that had long been convulsed with civil broils and discord.

The King made his entry into London on his birth-day, May 29, 1660. His first measures were calculated to give universal satisfaction; he seemed anxious to efface the remembrance of past animosities, by uniting all parties in affection to their Prince and country. The most eminent men among the Presbyterians, as well as among the Royalists, were admitted to his Council; General Monk was created Duke of Albemarle; his friend Morrice made Secretary of State; and Sir Edward Hyde, afterwards Lord Clarendon, was Prime Minister and Chancellor.

PLATE XXXI.

CHARLES THE SECOND.

Fig. 1.—THE PLAGUE.

The city of London is represented by the city arms : a part of which being cut off by Death, indicates the dreadful ravages occasioned by the plague.

Fig. 2.—WAR WITH HOLLAND.

Grand naval engagement between the English and Dutch fleets. The anchor, typical of each country, is determined by the letter E or H ; the equality of prowess by the cable which unites them. The emblem of victory inclines towards the English.

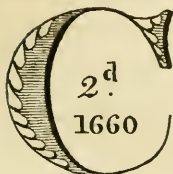
Fig. 3.—FIRE OF LONDON.

A phœnix rising from the flames, and bearing in her beak a plan of the city of London, intimates the renovation of the city, after its destruction by fire.

Fig. 4.—THE CABAL.*Fig. 5.*—THE HABEAS CORPUS ACT.

The standard, representing the body of the people, is reclining against a column, inscribed with the Habeas Corpus.

Fig. 6.—EXECUTION OF RUSSEL, SIDNEY, &c.



| | |
|-------------|-------------|
| <p>1665</p> | <p>1666</p> |
| <p>1666</p> | <p>1670</p> |
| <p>1679</p> | <p>1683</p> |

CHARLES THE SECOND.

CHARLES was thirty years of age when restored to the throne of his ancestors. His constitution was vigorous, his figure manly, and his manners uncommonly graceful and pleasing. In a private station, he would have been loved for his urbanity. His penetration was keen; his judgment clear; his conversation lively, entertaining, and witty. He is said to have been a civil husband, an affectionate father, and a good master; but these good qualities were overbalanced by his vices. A scoffer at religion, he believed all mankind to be false and perfidious; libertine in his morals, he ridiculed decency; incapable of friendship, and deaf to the calls of gratitude, he forgot the sacrifices his friends had made to serve himself and his family, and basely left them to end their days in poverty and obscurity. Adversity produced no good on a mind so frivolous; even during his exile, he gave himself up to effeminate pleasures; and, when on the throne, he neglected the important duties of his station, for the inglorious purposes of riot and dissipation.

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THE PLAGUE.

IN the year 1665, the most violent plague ever known in Britain made dreadful havoc in the city of London. The whole summer had been remarkably hot and sultry, and was at times suffocating, even to persons in confirmed health. At the close of the year 1664, two or three persons died suddenly in Westminster, with marks of the plague on their bodies. Some of the neighbours, alarmed for their safety, removed into the City; but their removal was alike fatal to themselves, and to those among whom they went to reside.

A severe winter in some measure checked the progress of the disease; but, about the middle of February, while a deep snow choked the streets, it again broke out, and increased gradually

until August, when the number of deaths in one week amounted to 3,817.

The pestilence continued to spread with such rapidity, that about the middle of September not fewer than 8,000 fell victims to its malignity in the course of a week. The streets were at that time extremely narrow, and as the houses were built with every additional story projecting some feet beyond the lower, the tops of the houses nearly met; by which means the fresh air was excluded from the streets below, and the confined air became daily more pestilential. The mortality raged so much, that the houses were shut up, the City was nearly deserted, and scarcely any thing was to be seen, but innumerable fires for purifying* the air, pest-carts, coffins, and crosses upon the doors, with the inscription of "Lord have mercy upon us!" whilst the melancholy cries of "Pray for us!" and "Bring out your dead!" were nearly the only sounds that interrupted the awful silence that now prevailed, instead of the busy hum of commerce:—

" When o'er the friendless bier no rites were read,
 " No dirge slow chaunted, and no pall outspread;
 " While Death and Night piled up the naked throng,
 " And Silence drove their ebon cars along.† "

All means of putting a stop to the infection were ineffectual. Multitudes fled into the country, and, in numerous instances,

* The excessive heat from so great a number of fires, it is said, contributed to increase the mortality.

† DARWIN.—The same writer states, that, "during the plague, one pit, to receive the dead, was dug in the Charter-house, forty feet long, sixteen wide, and twenty deep. During this dreadful calamity, there were instances of mothers carrying their own children to those public graves; and of people, delirious, or in despair from the loss of their friends, who threw themselves alive into these pits."

carried the infection with them. Many of the merchants retired to their ships near Greenwich and Woolwich, and, as the violence of the plague increased, they removed farther off; some even went quite out to sea. It is computed that 100,000 persons fell victims to this awful visitation!

—o—

WAR WITH HOLLAND.

THE Parliament, which had so vehemently opposed the late Monarch, now testified their contrition, acknowledged the guilt of their rebellion, and gratefully received his Majesty's gracious pardon and indemnity. Soon after this a proclamation was issued, declaring, that such of the late King's Judges as did not surrender within fourteen days, should receive no pardon. Nineteen surrendered, but ten only were doomed to destruction; and they were enthusiasts, who acted upon mistaken principles, and whose fortitude under their sufferings would have done honour to a better cause.

The next business was to settle the King's revenue. In this work, the Parliament was careful of the liberties of the people. Some oppressive imposts were abolished, and a permanent income of £1,200,000 was settled upon the King.

Charles now gave a loose to pleasure; the gloomy superstition of the Independents was banished: and, in its stead, riot and dissipation threatened to efface every appearance of religion and morality. The faithful followers of the Royal Family were left, not only unrewarded, but to pine in want and obscurity. In vain they petitioned and remonstrated: the King fled from their just expostulations, to scenes of folly and revelry; and it was truly remarked, that the Act of Indemnity was an act of *forgiveness* to his enemies, and of *oblivion* to his friends. The Scotch and English Parliaments, at this time, seemed to contend which should be most obsequious. The former, in the fullest and most positive terms, asserted the King's right to be

hereditary, divine, and indefeasible, and voted him an additional revenue of £40,000.

At length the intoxication of loyalty began to wear off: Charles's total neglect of business, his indolence and extravagance, excited the indignation of the country. To supply his necessities, he sold Dunkirk to the French for £40,000; and, contrary to the advice of his ministers, he married the Infanta of Portugal for the sake of her portion, which was £500,000 in money, together with the fortress of Tangier in Africa, and of Bombay in the East Indies.

His next step was to declare war against the Dutch. In this war the English took from the Dutch various settlements in Africa, and New York in America. A dreadful battle was fought between the principal fleets of each country. The English fleet, consisting of one hundred and fourteen sail, was commanded by the Duke of York, who manifested the greatest intrepidity. Victory at length declared for the English: the Dutch Admiral's ship blew up, and thirty of his ships were sunk or taken. The conquerors lost but one ship.

A few months after, the Dutch fleet was again at sea, under the command of De Ruyter. The Duke of Albemarle and Prince Rupert commanded the English fleet, which did not exceed seventy-four sail. Four successive days witnessed the skill and courage of the contending parties. The first day the Dutch Admiral Evertzen was killed by a cannon-ball, and one of his ships blown up; the English had three ships taken. The second day, sixteen fresh ships joined the Dutch, and the English were so shattered, as to be reduced to twenty-eight fighting ships. Upon retreating to their own coasts, the Dutch followed them, and a fresh engagement began, which was only interrupted by the approach of night. The third day, the English continued their retreat, and the Dutch their pursuit; but, before night, the former were joined by Prince Rupert, with sixteen ships. The engagement was renewed the next morn-

ing, and continued with great violence, till the contending fleets were parted by a mist. Both sides claimed the victory, though the advantage seems to have been on the side of the Dutch. Another combat, however, took place between these rival nations, in which the English were once more victorious. The Dutch, however, soon recovered from this defeat; and, while a treaty of peace was depending, sailed up the river Medway as far as Chatham, made themselves masters of Sheerness, and burnt several men of war, together with a magazine full of stores: thus spreading terror and consternation in the capital; but, unable to prosecute their projects, they returned to their own coasts.



FIRE OF LONDON.

THE City had hardly recovered from the desolation occasioned by the plague, when it was almost totally demolished by fire. It began on the 2d of September 1666, at a baker's shop in Pudding-lane, and continued to rage, with unabated violence, during the whole of four entire days and nights. The vast clouds of smoke so obscured the sun, that it appeared through it as red as blood. The flames rose to an immense height in the air, and their reflection through the smoke, which at night also seemed like flame, increased the horror of the scene. The atmosphere was illumined to so great an extent, that it is said to have been visible as far as Jedburgh in Scotland. Guildhall exhibited a singular spectacle: the oak with which it was built was so solid, that it would not flame, but burnt like charcoal, so that for several hours the building appeared like an enchanted palace of gold.

At length, on Wednesday morning, the fire began to abate, and on Thursday the flames were extinguished. This destructive fire destroyed 13,200 houses, eighty-seven churches, besides St. Paul's, the Royal Exchange, the Custom-house,

fifty-two Halls of Companies, four stone bridges, Newgate, &c. The value of property consumed was estimated at £10,689,000.

This calamity, though it reduced thousands to beggary, proved, in the end, both beneficial and ornamental to the City, which rose more beautiful from its ashes; care being taken to widen the streets, and improve the architecture of the houses.* A freer circulation of air was thus admitted, and all impurities carefully removed; so that the plague has never since appeared in England.

DEFINITIONS.

Royal Exchange.—A magnificent edifice in the city of London, the emporium of British commerce, where merchants from all parts of the world meet to transact business. It owed its origin to the munificence of Sir Thomas Gresham, a merchant, who erected it at his own expense. In 1666 it was consumed by fire, and was rebuilt, in its present form, by the united efforts of the Corporation of London, and the company of Mercers.

Custom House.—An office established by the King's authority in maritime cities, for the receipt of customs and duties of importation and exportation, imposed on merchandizes, and regulated by books of rates.

—O—

THE CABAL.

THE repeated misfortunes of the last two years excited great murmurs among the people. The Dutch war was com-

* The original plan for rebuilding the streets of the city in parallel lines, and of much greater width than at the present, as offered to Parliament by Sir Christopher Wren, is said to have been rejected, on account of the regard to private property. This is more to be lamented, when we yearly witness the sacrifices made by the City to accomplish in part what might have been so easily and completely effected. Sir Christopher was the architect of St. Paul's Cathedral, and many other magnificent buildings.

plained of as unnecessary and impolitic; and indeed Charles himself began to be weary of it, as he found that, instead of enriching himself by the Parliamentary supplies, he had involved himself in debt. A treaty was therefore concluded at Breda, in 1667. This treaty was little pleasing to the people: the blame of it, however, was thrown upon Lord Clarendon, the marriage of whose daughter with the Duke of York was also imputed to him as criminal. In consequence of this, the seals were taken from him; and the popular clamour continuing very strongly to pursue him, he retired to France.

The measures of the King now began to be extremely arbitrary, For the gratification of his pleasures, he resolved to stretch his prerogative to the utmost; and those ministers who best coalesced in his favourite measures, were the most in his confidence. Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale, the initials of whose names form the word "CABAL," an appellation given to this junto, from that circumstance, were eager to promote all his schemes, how inimical soever to the public good. By their advice, a secret alliance was formed with France, which caused a rupture with Holland. Amongst other arbitrary proclamations, was one full of menaces against those who should speak disrespectfully of his Majesty's proceedings; and even against those who should hear such discourses, unless they informed against the offenders.

On the 28th of May, 1672, the Duke of York was surprised by the Dutch in Southwold Bay. A severe engagement took place, which lasted from eight in the morning until night. The loss was nearly equal on both sides. The combined powers were more successful by land. Lewis XIV. crossed the Rhine, took all the frontier towns belonging to the Dutch, and threatened the republic with destruction. At length the murmurs of the English, on seeing this brave and industrious people, the supporters of the Protestant cause, nearly overwhelmed, were too loud not to reach the King, and he was

obliged to call a Parliament. The Parliament began by passing the Test Act, and by repressing some of the King's extraordinary stretches of prerogative: they declared their disapprobation of the Dutch war, and resolved to grant no further supplies. The King, indignant at these resolutions, determined to prorogue the Parliament. It happened that the Usher of the Black Rod, who was sent from the King, and the Speaker of the House of Commons, met at the door. A tumult ensued; the Speaker was forced into the chair, and the following resolutions were instantly passed:—That the alliance with France was a grievance; that the evil Counsellors of the King were a grievance; and that the Earl of Lauderdale was a grievance. The King therefore, finding it impossible to carry on the war, concluded a peace with the Dutch.

DEFINITIONS.

Test Act.—An Act passed against the Papists, which obliges all persons who hold offices under Government to take the Sacrament according to the Church of England.

Usher of the Black Rod.—The eldest of the Gentlemen Ushers daily waiters at Court, whose duty it is to bear the rod before the King, at the feast of St George, and other solemnities.

Speaker of the House of Commons.—A member of the House, elected by a majority of votes, to act as Chairman or President, in putting questions, reading briefs or bills, keeping order, reprimanding the refractory, adjourning the House, &c.

—O—

THE HABEAS-CORPUS ACT.

It was in vain the Court tried to pacify the murmurs of the people: the prepossession of Charles for the Court of France, the apprehensions of a Popish succession, an abandoned Court, a Parliament that had continued without a new election for the space of seven years, and an unsuccessful and expensive

war with Holland, all united to increase their fears and apprehensions; which were still further kept up by artful and designing men. In 1678, an account of a plot formed by the Papists, for destroying the King and the Protestant religion, was presented to the House of Commons by Titus Oates, a man of the most abandoned character, who had been dismissed the navy for bad conduct, and who had been once indicted for perjury. He named the Queen and Duke of York, as being accessaries to the plot; which, as it was supposed to be carried on by the Jesuits, was called the Jesuits' plot.

Several Jesuits, among whom was Coleman, the Duke of York's secretary, were executed, upon the information of this unprincipled villain; and so greatly were the minds of men inflamed against the Catholics, that an universal massacre of that unhappy sect was apprehended. During the time of this general uproar, Danby, the prime minister, was impeached, and sent to the Tower.

The House of Commons, having now sat without interruption for seven years, was dissolved, and a new one called. The new Members resolved to strike at the root of Popery; and brought in a Bill for excluding the Duke of York from the succession, which passed the Lower House by a majority of seventy-nine. They next voted the King's standing army to be illegal: and to this Parliament we are indebted for that celebrated statute called *The Habeas-Corpus Act*, which confirms the subject in an absolute security from oppressive power.

During these troubles the Duke of York retired to Brussels; but an indisposition of the King brought him back again; and having prevailed on Charles to disgrace his natural son, the Duke of Monmouth, he retired to Scotland.

The country party, as they were called, resolved to support the Duke of Monmouth against the Duke of York; and every artifice was employed to keep up the terrors of Popery, and alarm the Court. Party names, by which the spirit of conten-

tion might be kept alive, began about this time ; and the names of Whigs and Tories were used as terms of reproach.

DEFINITION.

Whigs and Tories.—Two distinguished political parties, each of which is subdivided into State and Moderates. The former, among the Whigs, is the remains of the party of the Long Parliament, who endeavoured to change monarchy into a commonwealth. The State Tories would have the King to be absolute, and therefore plead for passive obedience, non-resistance, and the hereditary right of the House of Stuart ; the Moderates of both parties very nearly assimilate to each other. The Whigs watch over the preservation of the liberties and properties of the people ; and the Tories, with equal vigilance, guard the rights and prerogatives of the Sovereign ; but without compromising the interests of the people.



EXECUTION OF RUSSEL, SIDNEY, &c.

CHARLES in vain endeavoured, by severer methods than his predecessors, to establish episcopacy in Scotland. The Presbyters, finding all remonstrances ineffectual, had recourse to arms, but were defeated at Pentland Hills by the Duke of Monmouth. The arbitrary measures of the King were violently opposed by the Parliament ; he therefore dissolved it, and called another. The new Parliament was no less refractory than the former : with all the inconsistency of party principle, they every day violated the law for preserving inviolate the liberty of the subject, which they had so recently enacted. The Exclusion Bill passed the House of Commons, but was rejected by the Peers ; which so incensed the former, that they voted, “ That till the Exclusion Bill was passed, they could not, consistent with the trust reposed in them, grant the King any further supplies.” They were therefore dissolved. The necessities of the King, however, obliged him to call another Parliament at Oxford.

He attempted to compromise the Exclusion Bill; but this also failed, and the Parliament was dissolved.

From this time the King ruled with despotic sway. Contrary to the natural inclination of his temper, he became cruel and suspicious. The citizens of London were deprived of their charter; and were obliged to give up the nomination of their own magistrates, to obtain its restoration. This was so mortifying a circumstance, that the corporation bodies of England, fearing the same treatment, were induced to surrender their charters to the King, from whom they were again purchased with large sums of money. These unjust and unconstitutional measures of Charles at length produced the Rye-House Plot. The principal conspirators were, Monmouth, Shaftesbury, Russel, Essex, Howard, Algernon Sidney, and John Hampden, grandson of that Hampden who made so conspicuous a figure in the commencement of the Civil Wars. Their proceedings had been planned in 1681. Monmouth, Charles's natural son, aspired to the crown. Russel and Hampden proposed only to exclude the Duke of York from the succession; but Sidney and Essex were desirous of restoring the republic.

These great men, feeling for the insults offered to the nation by the tyrannical conduct of the King and his ministers, sought to redress their grievances, and re-establish freedom: but the means they adopted were illegal; and if good intentions are to justify the use of unlawful measures, the fences of the law are broken down, and the safety of the nation lies at the mercy of any man, or set of men, who fancy they mean well, when they endeavour to overturn the existing Government.

A set of men, subordinate to those above-mentioned, projected more violent measures, and the assassination of the King, on his return from Newmarket, was the principal feature in their part of the plot. The caution of Lord Russel, who induced the Duke of Monmouth to put off the enterprize, saved the nation from the horrors of another civil war. The house oc-

cupied by the King at Newmarket accidentally taking fire, obliged him to leave that place sooner than was expected; and to this circumstance he owed his safety. Soon after this the plot was discovered. Russel and Sidney perished by the hands of the executioner. Essex put an end to his own life. Hampden paid a fine of £40,000. The Duke of Monmouth alone, though the most culpable, was pardoned.

The last transaction of this King was to marry his niece, the lady Anne, to Prince George of Denmark. He was shortly after seized with an apoplexy, and expired on the 6th of February, 1685, having lived fifty-five years, and reigned twenty-five.

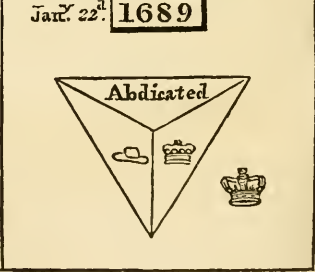
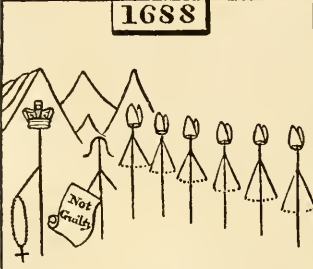
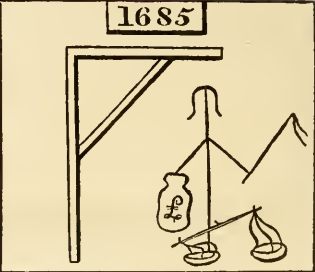
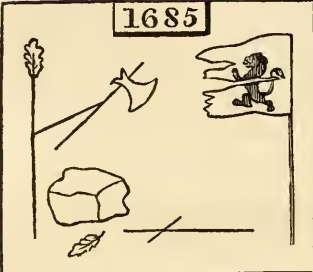
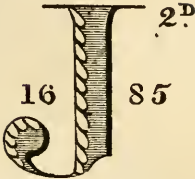


PLATE XXXII.

JAMES THE SECOND.

Fig. 1.—REBELLION AND DEATH OF THE DUKE OF MONMOUTH.

Fig. 2.—CONSEQUENCES OF MONMOUTH'S REBELLION.

Cruelties of Judge Jeffreys, who is represented as trampling upon the symbol of Justice. The implements of his cruelty are represented by the gallows and the whip; his extortion, by the bags of treasure he is grasping.

Fig. 3.—ACQUITTAL OF THE BISHOPS.

Fig. 4.—LANDING OF THE PRINCE OF ORANGE, WHOSE STANDARD IS SUPPORTED BY THE BRITISH PEOPLE.

Fig. 5.—FLIGHT OF JAMES.

Fig. 6.—THE ABDICATION.

JAMES THE SECOND.

JAMES II., before his accession to the Crown, was noted for his sincerity; and when, in his first address to his Privy Council, he professed his resolution to maintain the established Government both in Church and State, his discourse was received with universal applause, and unlimited confidence was placed in his honour. "We have now," it was said, "the word of a King, and a word never yet broken." It was a saying of John, King of France, "That though Truth were banished from the earth, she ought still to find an asylum in the breast of Kings." Did James think so? his very first act of power was a violation of his solemn professions. No King ever mounted the throne of England with greater advantages; the people seemed disposed, of themselves, to resign their liberties; and had he not made an attack upon their religion, he might have succeeded in establishing arbitrary power. Bred a Papist, he had all the bigotry of that sect in its most unenlightened periods; his zeal for making proselytes hurried him into measures that brought on his ruin; and the events of his reign prove, that it is highly dangerous for any Catholic Prince to reign over these kingdoms. His diligence in public business was exemplary; he was frugal in the expenditure of the public money; promoted trade and navigation; and bestowed particular attention on the navy, which he cherished and extended. In his domestic character, he was an affectionate husband, a tender parent, a kind master, and a sincere and steady friend; yet few have ever suffered more from the treachery of friends, and the ingratitude of his family, than James.

The greatest stain upon his character arises from the sanction which he gave to the atrocities of Jeffreys; for by the honours he conferred upon this unworthy Magistrate, this unjust Judge, he shares the obloquy of his crimes, and has branded his own name with cruelty and injustice.

REBELLION AND DEATH OF THE DUKE OF
MONMOUTH.

THE accession of James seemed to infuse universal pleasure; addresses from all quarters, expressive not only of duty, but of servile adulation, testified the joy of the nation; and James, intoxicated by the incense of flattery, conceived his power to be unlimited, and his will uncontrollable. Without deigning to await the generosity of Parliament, or even consulting them, he proceeded to levy all the customs, and the greater part of the excise, which had been awarded to Charles only during his life; but this stretch of prerogative was overlooked, and the Parliament, who were mostly Tories, unanimously voted him, during life, all the revenue enjoyed by the late King. In the midst of this internal tranquillity, a storm was gathering abroad. Monmouth, on being pardoned his last conspiracy, had retired to Holland, where he was received by the Prince of Orange with every mark of distinction. On the death of Charles, the Prince, not to give umbrage to James, dismissed Monmouth, though he still kept up a close correspondence with him, and even encouraged him to attempt to wrest the crown of England from the King. The Duke's resources were very slender; the sale of his own plate, and the generosity of a rich widow, who gave him £10,000, was all that he had to carry on the war. He purchased three vessels, loaded them with arms and ammunition, and entrusted them to the Earl of Argyle. The Earl landed in Scotland, published his manifestoes, and put himself at the head of 2,500 men; but his little army, terrified at the approach of the King's forces, fell off, and he himself, after being wounded, was taken standing up to his neck in water, carried to Edinburgh, treated with great indignity, and publicly executed. Monmouth landed in Dorsetshire with scarcely a hundred followers; yet such was his popularity, that in a short time he found himself at the head of 6,000 men. He affected to deride James's title to the crown; called him the

Duke of York ; and accused him of being a traitor, a tyrant, a murderer, and a Popish usurper ; affirming that he had occasioned the fire of London, and poisoned the late King. James was a little alarmed at this invasion, but dispatched 3,000 men, under the command of the Earl of Feversham and Lord Churchill, who met the rebels at Sedgemoor, near Bridgewater. The valour of Monmouth at first bore down all before him, and victory seemed on the point of declaring in his favour, when the cowardice of Lord Gray, who commanded the horse, threw every thing into confusion, and turned the fortune of the day. Monmouth fled above twenty miles from the field of battle, till his horse sunk under him : he then alighted, and, changing clothes with a shepherd, endeavoured to escape on foot, accompanied by a German Count ; but, exhausted with fatigue and hunger, he lay down in a field, and covered himself with fern, and in this miserable situation, by means of blood-hounds, he was discovered, with only a few raw pease in his pockets. Disappointment, fatigue, and want, so depressed the unhappy Monmouth, that, when seized by his enemies, he burst into tears, and made the most abject intreaties for his life. He wrote to the King, promising to make a full disclosure of all the conspirators. James sent Sheldon, one of the gentlemen of his bed-chamber, to converse with him : of whom Monmouth inquired who was chief in the King's confidence ; and being told it was the Earl of Sunderland, " Then, as I hope for salvation," he exclaimed, " he promised to meet me ! " Monmouth was soon after brought before the King. Sunderland artfully prevailed on the credulous Duke to deny all that he had communicated to Sheldon, and thus secured his death. The unfortunate Monmouth in vain pleaded for mercy. James told him " he was much affected by his misfortunes, but that his crime was too dangerous in its example to be left unpunished." In his last moments he resumed his former courage ; he spoke little, and made no confession to impeach or betray

his friends, but calmly submitted himself to the executioner. The first blow was so feeble and unsteady, that he was only wounded slightly on the shoulder; upon which Monmouth raised his head from the block, and looked the executioner full in the face, as if to reproach him for his mistake, and it was not until after repeated trials that the head was severed from the body.

Thus perished, in his thirty-sixth year, this ill-fated and misguided nobleman, whose courage and insinuating manners made him the darling of the people. His rebellion occasioned the ignominious death of numbers, who, but for his ambition, might have lived in peace.

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CONSEQUENCES OF MONMOUTH'S REBELLION.

THE miserable and deluded followers of Monmouth were punished with the utmost severity. Immediately after the battle of Sedgemoor, the Earl of Feversham hung above twenty prisoners; and, but for the interference of the Bishop of Bath and Wells, would have proceeded with his military executions. Nineteen were put to death in the same manner at Bridgewater, by Colonel Kirke, a man long practised in the arts of slaughter, and whose savage and bloody disposition took delight in acts of wanton barbarity. He would order a certain number to be hanged, whilst he drank the King's, the Queen's, or Judge Jeffreys' health; and observing their feet to quiver in the agonies of death, he exclaimed, "that he would give them music to their dancing;" and immediately ordered the drums to beat, and the trumpets to sound. He ravaged the whole country, sparing neither friend nor foe; and his own regiment, for their peculiar barbarity, were ironically called *Kirke's Lambs*. The inhuman Judge Jeffreys was sent down to try the delinquents. Exulting in the prospect of death and destruction, he seized the sword of Justice, but forgot her scales. Terror and consternation preceded him: misery and despair followed his

steps. Dorchester, Exeter, Taunton, and Wells, felt the full weight of his inhumanity. It is computed that, independent of those butchered by the military commanders, not fewer than two hundred and fifty-one, innocent as well as guilty, perished by the hands of the executioner, whilst many others suffered by fines and imprisonments. The executions of Lady Lisle and of Mrs. Gaunt were attended by circumstances peculiarly aggravating. The former was the widow of one of the regicides, and she was now prosecuted for harbouring two rebels the day after the battle of Sedgemoor. In vain the aged prisoner pleaded that she was ignorant of their being rebels; that though she might be obnoxious on account of her family, it was well known that her heart was loyal; that she had educated her son in the same principles; and that, at the very time, she had sent him to fight against those rebels she was now accused of harbouring. The Jury indeed seemed inclined to acquit her, but, terrified by the menaces of Jeffreys, they gave sentence against her, and she was hanged.

Mrs. Gaunt was a Baptist, noted for her benevolence and kindness. One of the rebels, knowing her humane temper, intreated her protection, and was concealed by her. Hearing of a proclamation which offered a reward to such as discovered criminals, he betrayed his benefactress, and bore evidence against her. *He* was pardoned, for his treachery and ingratitude; *she* was burned alive, for her charity.

Jeffreys, on his return, was created a Peer, and soon after vested with the dignity of Chancellor. In the succeeding reign, however, he was closely confined in the Tower, where he died.

DEFINITION.

Baptist.—One of that sect of religionists, who contend that the ordinance of baptism should be administered by immersion, and that only to adults, or those who are of age to make profession of their belief, and to avow their determination to live by its precepts.

ACQUITTAL OF THE BISHOPS.

AFTER the suppression of Monmouth's rebellion, James endeavoured openly to re-establish Popery and arbitrary power. He told the House of Commons that the militia were useless; that it was necessary to keep up a standing army; that he had employed a great many Catholic officers, in whose favour he had thought proper to dispense with the test required to be taken by all who were employed by the Crown. The Parliament shewing some dissatisfaction at these proceedings, James dissolved it. His next step was to introduce four Catholic Lords into the Privy Council; and the Duke of Ormond, who had long supported the Royal cause in Ireland with zeal and ability, was displaced for being a Protestant: and the Lord Tyrconnel, a violent Catholic, was appointed in his stead. The High Commission Court was revived, and a declaration of general indulgence issued, in which it was asserted, that non-conformity to the established religion was no longer penal. In Scotland, James ordered his Parliament to grant toleration only to Catholics. He next sent Lord Castlemaine ambassador to Rome, to reconcile his kingdoms to the Catholic Church. The rashness of this proceeding was apparent even to the Pope, who made no other return to the embassy, than by sending a Nuncio into England. Soon after this, the Catholic worship was exercised in the most public manner, and the Jesuits were permitted to erect colleges in different parts of the kingdom. The presidency of Magdalen College, Oxford, becoming vacant, the King sent a mandate in favour of a person named Farmer, a new convert, and a man of bad character. The Fellows of the College, in respectful terms, refused to admit him, and elected in his stead Dr. Hough, a man of learning, integrity, and resolution. The King then sent down a man of a more abandoned character than Farmer, but the Fellows still refused to receive him; at which James was so irritated, that he ejected them all, except two, from their benefices.

In 1686, a second declaration for liberty of conscience was published, and an order was given that it should be read by every divine, after the service. This the clergy refused; and the Bishops of St. Asaph, Bath and Wells, Ely, Chichester, Peterborough and Bristol, and Sancroft the Primate, drew up a remonstrance, in which, after expressing their zeal and duty, they respectfully declared they could not conscientiously comply with the terms of the proclamation.

The King, who was surprized and displeas'd at their address, summoned them before the Council, and on their refusing to give bail, they were committed to the Tower. The people were no sooner inform'd of the danger of the Bishops, than the whole City was in consternation. They went out in crowds to meet them, craving their blessing, and calling upon Heaven to protect them; even the soldiers, by whom they were guarded, fell on their knees, imploring their forgiveness.

The Crown lawyers had received orders to prosecute the Bishops for a seditious libel. The 29th of June, 1686, was fix'd on for this extraordinary trial, which lasted a day and a night. When the Jury brought in their verdict of "Not guilty," the whole city resounded with acclamations. The news quickly reach'd the camp at Hounslow, where the King then was at dinner, in Lord Feversham's tent. Hearing the exultations, James inquired into the cause; and being inform'd it was only the soldiers rejoicing for the acquittal of the Bishops, "Do you call that nothing?" replied he: "so much the worse for them!"

He immediately after this struck out the names of two of the Judges, and order'd all the clergymen to be prosecuted who had not read his proclamation. But hoping to find more obedience in the army, he order'd one of the regiments to be drawn out; when, desiring all those who were against his late declaration to lay down their arms, he was surpris'd and mortified to see the whole battalion, except two, obey his commands.

DEFINITIONS.

Nuncio, an ambassador from the Pope.

Jesuits, a celebrated religious order of the Romish Church, founded by Ignatius Lozola in 1440. The Jesuits are celebrated for their profound and artful policy.

Liberty of Conscience, liberty to worship God according to the dictates of conscience, without incurring any penalty or prosecution for differing from the Established Church.

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LANDING OF THE PRINCE OF ORANGE.

A FEW days previous to the acquittal of the Bishops, the Queen was delivered of a son. This circumstance, had James possessed any prudence, might have been fortunate for him; but so obnoxious was he now become to the people, that he was accused of imposing a suppositious child upon the public. Despising such rash unfounded assertions, he had too much pride to enter into any justification, and scorned to take any precautions to refute the calumny.

The Prince of Orange * had long been desirous of gaining the English Crown, and had planned his schemes with infinite address. Having all the King's servants in his pay, he was regularly informed of all his measures; he watched every movement, and took advantage of every error. He had the art to persuade the Pope, the King of Spain, and the Emperor of Austria, to join his schemes, out of enmity to France, and to assist him, a professed Protestant, in dethroning a Roman Catholic Prince. Seeing the national discontent was now extreme, he sent over an envoy, named Dykevelt, with orders to insinuate himself with every religious sect, and to win over every party in England to his interest. In consequence of these intrigues, he received invitations from most of the considerable

* He was nephew as well as son-in-law to James, having married the Princess Mary.

men in the kingdom. Admirals Herbert and Russel, and Henry Sydney, uncle to the Earl of Sunderland, went over to him, and assured him of a general combination in his favour. Soon after, the Bishop of London, and many of the chief nobility, joined him; and the people, though long divided between Whig and Tory, now united against their misguided Sovereign, as against a common enemy. William therefore determined to accede to their wishes, and had a fleet ready to sail, and troops fitted for action, before the beginning of June 1688.

Lewis XIV., who at this time reigned in France, was the first to inform James of his danger, and to offer his assistance; but the infatuated Monarch, relying with implicit confidence on his traitorous minister, the Earl of Sunderland, denied the possibility of an invasion, and affirmed that the Dutch armament was destined to act against France.

At length his minister in Holland informed him, that an invasion was not only projected, but avowed. James now saw himself on the brink of destruction, and knew not to whom to apply for protection. He endeavoured, by concession, to conciliate the people; but it was now too late: his sincerity was doubted, his word was no longer relied on.

In the mean time, William set sail from Helvoetsluys with a fleet of five hundred vessels, and an army of more than 14,000 men. At first he was driven back by a storm; but he soon refitted his fleet, and landed at Torbay on the 5th of November 1688. The recollection of the severities consequent upon Monmouth's rebellion for some days prevented any one from joining the Prince's standard, and he was actually deliberating about re-embarking his forces, when Major Burrington went over. In a few days more he was joined by all the principal people in the counties of Devon and Dorset. The army soon after followed, and so general was the defection, that the unhappy Monarch found himself deserted, not only by his servants and dependants, but even by his own children. His

favourite daughter Anne, married to George Prince of Denmark, cruelly resolved to take part with his enemies. James, when informed of this last stroke, stung with the keenest anguish at the ingratitude and baseness of mankind, exclaimed, in an agony of grief, "God help me! even my own children have deserted me!"



FLIGHT OF JAMES.

It was the policy of the Prince of Orange to work upon the King's fears and apprehensions, to induce him to quit the kingdom. When, therefore, James sent three of his noblemen to treat with the Prince, he for some time refused them an audience: and when he did admit them, he gave them no satisfactory answer. James, not knowing whom to trust, forsaken by his dependants, abandoned by his family, impelled by his own fears (which recalled to his memory the fate of his father), and by the alarm of the Queen for the safety of herself and infant son, precipitately resolved on escaping to France. The Queen and Prince were first sent over. In a wet and stormy day they crossed the river at Whitehall, and, protected by the Count de Limousin, proceeded to Gravesend, from whence a yacht conveyed them in safety to Calais. The King prepared to follow them; and, the more effectually to involve every thing in confusion, he threw the great seal into the river, and left no one with any authority to act during his absence, in the vain hope that his affairs might be retrieved by anarchy and confusion.

Attended only by Sir Edward Hales, he withdrew, about midnight, on the 6th of December, and made the best of his way to a ship that was waiting for him; but being obliged to put back, to take in more ballast, he was seized by some fishermen, who, supposing him to be a Papist endeavouring to make his escape, cruelly insulted him. At length a sailor, who had

formerly served under him, when he commanded the fleet, knew him, and melted into tears. James also wept, which so affected the other fishermen, that they threw themselves on their knees, implored his forgiveness, formed a guard around him, and vowed that not a hair of his head should be touched. In the mean time Sir James Oxendon, under pretence of guarding him from the rabble, came with the militia to prevent his escape. The soldiers, following the example of their officers, treated him with harshness and insult; and a letter, which he intended to send to London for a change of linen and some money, was stopped by those who pretended to protect his person. At length a poor countryman brought an open letter from the unhappy King: it had no superscription, and was addressed to no one; it contained only one sentence, making known his deplorable situation. The humble messenger long waited at the door of the Council Chamber, without being able to draw any one's attention. At length the Earl of Musgrave listened to his narrative, and introduced him to the Council. His description of the sufferings of the fallen Monarch awakened their compassion, and they sent the Earl of Feversham with two hundred of the guards to his relief, with orders to conduct him, if he wished it, to the sea-side; he chose, however, to return to London. The Prince had dispatched a messenger, ordering him not to advance beyond Rochester, but he arrived too late. No sooner was it known that the King was once more in his capital, than the flame of loyalty seemed to rekindle in every breast; shouts of joy rent the air, bonfires blazed in every street, and the bells rang to announce his return. Had he possessed any firmness or spirit, he would shortly have been reinstated in his former dignity: but feeble, timorous, and precipitate, he fell into the snares of his enemies; he trembled at the menaces of his son-in-law, and rejected the spirited counsels of his friends. "Give me your commission," said the brave Dundee, "and I will gather 10,000 of your

troops: I will carry your standard at their head through England, and drive before you the Dutch and their Prince." But this had no effect upon James: he privately quitted the kingdom, and landed at Ambleteuse in France, December the 25th, 1688, where he was received by Lewis with every mark of sympathy and regard: a conduct which reflects greater lustre on this Monarch than his most signal victories.

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THE ABDICATION.

WHILST James was intent upon making his escape, the Prince of Orange was endeavouring to secure, by prudence, that which he had acquired from the imbecility of the King, and his own policy. He re-assembled the disbanded army, ordered the Secretary at War to bring him a list of the King's troops, commanded Lord Churchill to collect the horse-guards, and sent the Duke of Grafton to take possession, in his name, of Tilbury Fort. It was the aim of the Prince to force James to relinquish the throne. His measures were crowned with success: James abandoned his kingdom, and left the Prince of Orange undisputed master of his dominions. By the advice of the House of Lords, the only branch of the Legislature remaining, William was requested to summon a Parliament by circular letters; but, unwilling to act upon so imperfect an authority, he convened all the Members who had sat in the House of Commons during any Parliament of Charles II. To these were added the Mayor, Aldermen, and fifty of the Common Council of London. Thus supported, he summoned a new Parliament.

The Parliament met on the 22d of February 1689; and the Members being mostly of the Whig party, thanks were given to the Prince of Orange for the deliverance he had brought them. A vote soon after passed both Houses, that King James, having endeavoured to subvert the Constitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between the King and his people;

and having, by the advice of Jesuits and other wicked persons, violated the fundamental laws, and withdrawn himself out of the kingdom, he had thereby abdicated the government, and left the throne vacant.

James being thus formally dethroned, it was at first proposed to appoint a Regent, or to vest the regal power in the Princess of Orange; but to this William replied, that if they chose to have a Regent, he thought it incumbent upon him to declare that he would not be that Regent; that he would not accept of the Crown under the Princess his wife, how highly soever he estimated her merits.

Upon this a long debate ensued in both Houses, and at length a majority of two voices declared in favour of a new Sovereign. It was agreed that the Prince and Princess of Orange should reign jointly as King and Queen of England, while the administration should be placed in the hands of the King only. The Marquis of Halifax, as Speaker of the House of Lords, made a solemn tender of the Crown to their Highnesses, in the name of the Peers and Commons of England. The Prince accepted their offer: and that very day, February 13th, 1689, William and Mary were proclaimed King and Queen of England.



1689

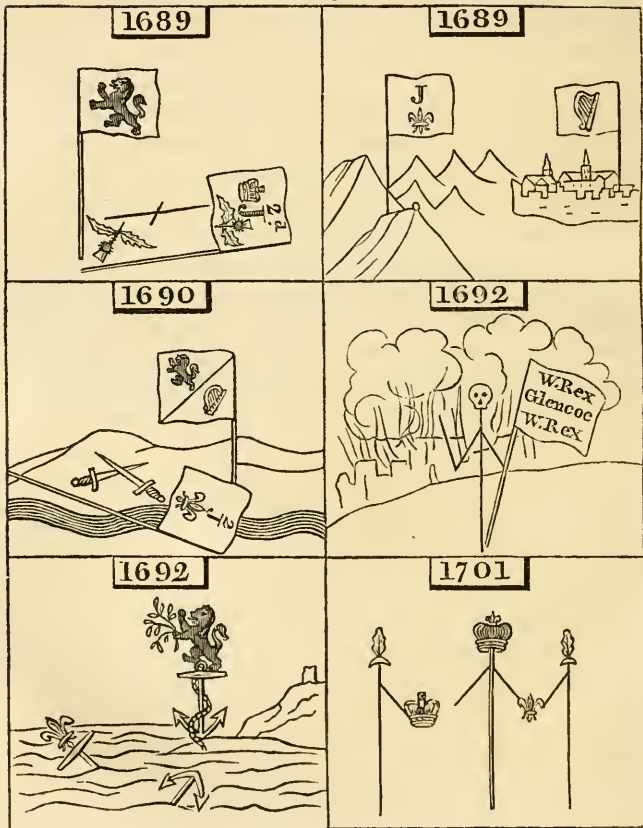


PLATE XXXIII.

WILLIAM THE THIRD.

Fig. 1.—DEATH OF DUNDEE, AT THE BATTLE OF KILLICRANKY.

Fig. 2.—SIEGE OF LONDONDERRY.

The standard of James displays the fleur-de-lis, his cause being supported by a French army.

Fig. 3.—BATTLE OF THE BOYNE.

Fig. 4.—MASSACRE AT GLENCOE.

Fig. 5.—BATTLE OF LA HOGUE.

Fig. 6.—DEATH OF KING JAMES.

Lewis XIV. acknowledging the son of James, Prince of Wales; and promising, on the death of his father, to assert his pretensions to the Crown.

WILLIAM THE THIRD.

IN person, William was of the middle stature, but thin; his countenance, like his manners, was harsh and severe; his conversation cold, uninteresting, and inelegant. Delighting in war, he devoted himself to military pursuits, and was esteemed skilful in fortification and mathematics. In battle alone he threw aside his habitual reserve, and became free, animated, and daring: and, it is said, that in courage, fortitude, or equanimity, he has never been surpassed. He was temperate, religious, and just, when his justice was not likely to interfere with his ruling passion—ambition, to which he sacrificed the social ties of kindred. He taught his wife to view with apathy the misfortunes of her father, and to ascend his throne with apparent indifference. Whatever might have been the errors of James as a King, he undoubtedly merited the affection of his children, nor can state policy exonerate William and Mary from the reproach of ingratitude.

The education of William had been much neglected, and to that perhaps may be attributed his want of taste for literature and the polite arts. He was ambitious of being the arbiter of Europe, and, without scruple, sacrificed the interests of that people, to whom he was indebted for his Crown, in the vain endeavour to adjust the balance of power on the Continent. He hesitated not to employ corruption, to attain his ends. He first procured a standing army. He began the national debt. In a word, a narrow system of politics seems to have absorbed every liberal and generous feeling of his heart: for he was an unkind relation, an ungracious Prince, and an imperious Sovereign.

DEFINITION.

National Debt.—The sum owing by Government to individuals, who have advanced money for public purposes.

DEATH OF DUNDEE, AT THE BATTLE OF
KILLICRANKY.

THE first act of the new King was to issue a proclamation, that all Protestants who had been in place on the first of December preceding should continue in office. He then fixed his Privy Council, which consisted of such persons as had been most active in raising him to the throne. His Dutch friends too were not forgotten; but these instances of gratitude, though necessary, and even laudable in William, were nevertheless displeasing to the generality of the people. The King had been bred a Calvinist; and being naturally averse from persecution, he endeavoured to repeal those laws that enjoined uniformity of worship: and though he did not entirely succeed in his design, yet he procured a toleration for such Dissenters as took the oaths of allegiance; and even the Papists felt the influence of his mild administration. The kingdom of Scotland did not at first recognize the authority of William. The brave Dundee still remained the champion of James. Apprehending a plot to assassinate him, he left Edinburgh, attended only by fifty horse. As he passed the castle walls, he scrambled up the precipice on which it was built, to confer with the Duke of Gordon its governor; and having informed him of his designs, and urged him to hold out as long as possible, he rode off with all speed.

In the mean time, the Convention that favoured the cause of William and Mary determined that James had *forefaulted* his right to the crown; by which was meant, that he had perpetually excluded himself and his immediate posterity from the Crown, which was thereby become vacant. This being approved, another resolution was drawn up for raising William and Mary to the vacant throne; and they were, in consequence, proclaimed at Edinburgh in 1689.

The Duke of Gordon long maintained the Castle of Edinburgh for James; but being pressed by a siege, and despairing of success, he at length surrendered upon honourable terms.

James's adherents were greatly dispirited by this misfortune ; but Dundee, though strongly urged, refused to acknowledge fealty to William, and was in consequence declared an outlaw and a rebel. General Mackay, with four regiments of foot and one of horse, was sent to oppose him. Dundee induced many of the Highlanders to join his standard, and for some time kept his ground, notwithstanding the exertions of the English general. At length, on the 17th of July, an engagement took place at Killcranky. The Scots had no more than forty pounds of powder for the supply of the whole army ; but the active spirit of their general, who was enthusiastically beloved, supplied all deficiencies. The Highlanders were victorious. Two thousand of Mackay's men were lost, either in the field or in the pursuit. But the victory was dearly purchased : for the Dundee was mortally wounded, and with him perished all the hopes of James in Scotland. The Highlanders soon after, displeased with their new commander, dispersed themselves in disgust ; and the war at length terminated favourably for William.



SIEGE OF LONDONDERRY.

IRELAND was now the only part of James's former dominions that still acknowledged his authority. The Catholics, who espoused his cause, greatly outnumbered the Protestants who adhered to William. James therefore determined to make one effort more to wrest his dominions from his son-in-law ; and, assisted by Lewis, he landed at Kinsale, where he was received with the utmost demonstrations of joy. James's whole force consisted of fourteen ships of war, six frigates, and three fire-ships, 1,200 of his native subjects in the pay of France, and one hundred French officers. On his way to Dublin, however, he was joined by such numbers, that he was forced to dismiss a great many of them. On his arrival at Dublin, he was received with an appearance of universal joy. On the 8th of July he

quitted it, and laid siege to Londonderry. This town was invested the 20th of April by the French general Rosenne, who, enraged at the obstinate resistance he met with, threatened to rase the town to its foundation, and destroy all the inhabitants, without distinction of age or sex, unless they would submit themselves to their lawful sovereign. The governor, however, treated these menaces with contempt; although the inhabitants had now consumed the last remains of their provision, and were reduced to feed on the flesh of horses, cats, dogs, rats, &c. Rosenne, finding them deaf to all his proposals, stripped all the Protestants for thirty miles round, and, without distinction of age, sex, or condition, drove above 4,000 of them under the walls to perish. The besieged were so exasperated at this act of inhumanity, that they resolved rather to die than submit to such a barbarian. They erected a gibbet in sight of the enemy, and threatened to hang all the prisoners they had taken during the siege, unless the unhappy Protestants should be dismissed immediately. In consequence of this menace, they were released, after remaining three days without food. Some hundreds perished with famine and fatigue, and many were murdered by straggling parties of the enemy. At length Colonel Kirke made a desperate endeavour to relieve the town, which was now reduced to the last extremity. One of his ships broke the boom that impeded the navigation of the river, and arrived in safety at the town, to the inexpressible joy of the inhabitants. The army of James was so dispirited by the success of this enterprise, that they precipitately abandoned the siege, after having lost 9,000 men before the place.

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BATTLE OF THE BOYNE.

JAMES was now surrounded with difficulties; and being in total want of money, he, with the advice of his Council, issued a new copper coinage, which was to be received for silver.

This satisfied the army; and the people acceded to it in the hope of being repaid when the affairs of the nation were in a more favourable situation. To add to the perplexities of James, an English army of 10,000 men, under the command of the Duke of Schomberg, landed at Donaghadee. Having refreshed his troops at Belfast, he invaded Carrickfergus, which was bravely defended; but the garrison having expended their powder to the last barrel, capitulated, and marched out with all the honours of war.

Schomberg's soldiers, however, broke the capitulation; they disarmed and stripped the inhabitants, and treated them with the greatest cruelty and insult, without regard to sex, age, or condition. The English soldiers, being encamped on low and moist ground, became very sickly, and many died of fevers and other disorders. The enemy suffered nearly as much, so that they both retired into winter-quarters.

Early in the following summer, William went in person to the relief of his Protestant subjects; and a severe engagement took place on the banks of the Boyne, where James occupied a very advantageous post. The day before the battle, whilst William was reconnoitring the enemy, a field-piece was pointed at him; a soldier and two horses were killed by his side, and he was himself slightly wounded in the shoulder.

The battle commenced at six o'clock the next morning; the soldiers of William wearing green boughs in their hats during the action, to distinguish them from their enemies. William passed the river in three places, and the battle began with great vigour. He led on his troops in person. James, whose natural bravery seems to have forsaken him from the time he became a King, surrounded with some squadrons of horse, viewed the action from the Hill of Dunmore; and when he saw his own troops repelling those of the enemy, he exclaimed, "Oh, spare my English subjects!" His forces behaved with great resolution, but were at last defeated, with the loss of 1,500 men. The

Protestants lost about one third that number ; but among them was their brave general, the Duke of Schomberg. Before the battle was decided, James quitted his station, and fled to Dublin ; where advising the magistrates to make the best terms they could with the victor, he set out for Waterford, and thence embarked for France. When it was first perceived that he had deserted his troops, O'Regan, an old Irish Captain, observed, " If the English will exchange generals, we'll fight the battle over again !" The friends of James, however, again rallied, but were defeated at the battle of Aughrim. Limerick, a strong city in the south of Ireland, made a brave defence, but at length capitulated. Fourteen thousand Catholics, who had fought for James, had permission to go over to France, and transports were provided them by Government. Those who remained were allowed the free exercise of their religion, as had been granted during the reign of Charles II.

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MASSACRE AT GLENCOE.

THE commencement of the year 1692 was disgraced by an act of unexampled barbarity. A pacification having taken place with the Highlanders, a proclamation was issued in August, granting an indemnity to all such insurgents as should take the oaths of fealty to the King and Queen on or before the last day of December. The chiefs, who had borne arms in favour of King James, complied, all except Macdonald of Glencoe, who, from some accidental circumstances and misfortunes, was prevented from tendering his duty so soon as the others ; yet so eager was he to make his submission, and take the oaths before the limited time should expire, that he would not stop to visit his family, though his house lay only half-a-mile from the road. The way to Inverary, whither he was going, lay through almost impassable mountains ; the season was rigorous to the extreme ; and the whole country was

covered with a deep snow. At length he surmounted the difficulties that opposed him; he arrived in safety at Inverary, and hastened to make his submission. The sheriff hesitated, for the time was elapsed: at length, however, the tears and importunities of Macdonald prevailed: notwithstanding which, Sir John Dalrymple, afterwards Earl of Stair, procured from the King a warrant of military execution against him and his whole tribe. The warrant was signed, both above and below, with the King's own hand. Campbell of Glenlyon, with two subalterns and one hundred and fifty men, were commanded to repair to Glencoe on the 1st of February. Campbell, who was uncle to young Macdonald's wife, was received with friendly and affectionate hospitality; and until the 15th of the month, the troops lived in good humour and familiarity with the people. On that fatal night the soldiers' quarters had been changed, lest pity for their hosts should withhold their hands from slaughter. The officers spent the evening at Macdonald's, and played at cards with the unsuspecting family. In the dead of the night, with words of friendly import, Lieutenant Lindsay and a party of soldiers gained admittance: the mask was thrown off, and the ungrateful guests began the work of death. Macdonald was shot through the head, and fell down dead in the arms of his wife, who expired the next day, distracted by the horror of her husband's fate. The slaughter was general: women, defending their children, fell beneath the stroke of the assassin; boys, imploring mercy, were shot by the officers, to whose knees they clung for safety. In Campbell's own quarters, nine men were first bound by the soldiers, and then shot at intervals, one by one. Thirty-eight persons fell in this massacre, most of whom were murdered in their beds. Those who escaped the sword, perished in the mountains by famine and the inclemency of the weather. This barbarous massacre answered the immediate purpose of the Court, by striking terror into the hearts of the Jacobites: but

it produced such an aversion from the person and government of William as all the arts of ministry could never effectually surmount. The King, alarmed at the outcry which this outrage produced, ordered an inquiry to be made; but as he did not severely punish those who had made his authority subservient to their revenge, the imputation of cruelty and treachery will always be attached to his character.

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BATTLE OF LA HOGUE.

KING James, notwithstanding his defeat in Ireland, and the dispersion and extermination of the Highland chieftains who favoured his cause, resolved to make another attempt to regain his crown. He had still many adherents in England; and the French King resolved to make a vigorous effort in his favour, and to attempt in invasion of England, whilst William was absent in Holland.

The army destined for this enterprise consisted of some French troops, some English and Scotch refugees, and some Irish regiments which had been transported into France from Limerick, and were now become excellent soldiers, from long discipline and severe duty. This army was commanded by James in person. Above three hundred vessels were appointed to transport them to the opposite coast; and Tourville, the French admiral, at the head of sixty-three ships of the line, was to favour the descent. His orders were, at all events to attack the enemy, should they attempt to oppose him. These preparations of the French were soon known at the English court; and the Queen, in the absence of her husband, took the most prompt and effective means to avert the threatened danger. Admiral Russel was ordered to put to sea with all possible expedition; and he soon appeared with ninety-nine ships of the line, besides frigates and fire-ships

At the head of this formidable fleet, he set sail for the coast of France. He discovered the enemy near Cape La Hogue. The engagement began with great fury between the two admirals. The rest of the fleet soon followed their example; and after ten hours' hard fighting, victory declared for the English. The French fled for Conquêt Road, having lost four ships in the first day's action. Three French ships of the line were taken the next day: and eighteen more, that had taken refuge in the bay of La Hogue, were burnt on the following day by Sir George Rooke.

Thus perished all the hopes of James. And so decisive was the blow given to the French marine, that France from this time seems to have relinquished the sovereignty of the ocean.

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DEATH OF KING JAMES.

ON the death of John Sobieski, King of Poland, James was offered the vacant crown; which he declined, saying, that he would accept of no crown which was not actually his due; for that would, indeed, be to acknowledge an abdication of the one he considered as his right.

In an interview between Lewis XIV, and William, the latter agreed to acknowledge the Prince of Wales, James's son, as his successor: but to this James would not consent, alledging, "That the Prince of Wales, by succeeding to the Prince of Orange, would yield his sole right, which was that of his father." James henceforth relinquished all hope of regaining his kingdom; and resigned himself entirely to the austerities of religious enthusiasm. At length his constitution gave way; he fell into a lethargy; and expired at St. Germain's, September the 6th, 1701.

Lewis, during his sickness, frequently visited him: and having determined to acknowledge his son, the Prince of Wales, as King of England after his father's decease, he

entered the chamber of the dying King; and commanding that no one should leave the room, he thus addressed him: " I come to acquaint you, Sire, that when God shall please to call your Majesty from this world, I shall take your family into my protection; and shall acknowledge, as he will then certainly be, your son as King of Great Britain and Ireland.

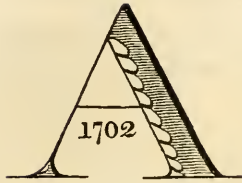
William did not long survive his father-in-law. The want of a common enemy produced dissensions among the people: and the uneasiness he felt at the refractory disposition of his subjects, was not a little increased by the death of his Queen, who fell a victim to the small-pox. Notwithstanding the coldness and apparent indifference of William's temper, he was tenderly attached to her. He fainted away when first informed of his loss; and for some weeks was incapable of attending to business. At length, his old habits began to resume their influence; and the adjustment of the balance of power in Europe again engaged his whole attention. His ruling principle was to humble the power of France; and his chief motive for accepting the crown of England was to engage this country more deeply in the concerns of Europe. But whilst he devoted his attention to forming alliances abroad, he neglected the internal policy of his government at home, and heard the complaints of his English subjects with phlegmatic indifference. Party spirit increased; the practice of bribing a majority in Parliament became universal; and patriotism was ridiculed, or considered as an ideal virtue. Morals and decency were gradually banished; talents lay uncultivated and neglected; whilst ignorance and profligacy were received into favour.

The war with France continued during the greater part of this reign; but was at length terminated by the Peace of Ryswick: and the only equivalent Britain received for all the blood that had been shed, and the treasure which had been lavished, was an acknowledgment of William's title to the crown. It

was not long, however, before he began to make fresh preparations for a war with France; but before his plans were completed, death overtook him.

His constitution had been always feeble, and he endeavoured to repair it by exercise. Riding one day from Kensington to Hampton Court, his horse fell under him, by which accident he broke his collar-bone. A fever succeeded, and terminated his life, in the fifty-second year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign.





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|-------------|-------------|---------------------|--|
| <p>1702</p> | <p>1702</p> | <p>1702 to 1706</p> | |
| <p>1704</p> | <p>1707</p> | <p>1709 to 1711</p> | |
| <p>1713</p> | | | |

PLATE XXXIV.

ANNE.

Fig. 1.—FRENCH WAR.

The French standards are reversed, in token of defeat. In the centre is the British Lion, bearing a laurel branch, the emblem of victory.

Fig. 2.—VICTORY AND DEATH OF ADMIRAL BENBOW.

The Admiral is reclining on an anchor, on which are entwined the laurel and the oak. Two of his dastardly officers lie dead in the fore-ground, having been shot for cowardice. The enemy's fleet is retiring in the distance.

Fig. 3.—VICTORIES OF MARLBOROUGH.

In the centre is the Duke, surrounded by standards, inscribed with his principal battles. Above is a crown of laurel, in token of victory.

Fig. 4.—GIBRALTAR TAKEN BY SIR GEORGE ROOKE.

On the summit of the rock, is the English standard; beneath, is that of Spain, which is recumbent, in token of defeat. On the left is the French fleet, with the fleur-de-lis.

Fig. 5.—THE UNION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

Within a circle, the emblem of continuity, is the British Lion bearing the thistle. The circle is composed of the oak and thistle entwined.

Fig. 6.—VICTORIES OF MARLBOROUGH.*Fig. 7.*—PEACE OF UTRECHT.

ANNE.

ANNE, the daughter of James the Second by his first wife Anne Stuart, expressively styled "The good Queen Anne," was beloved by her subjects with a warmth of affection that even the prejudice of party could not abate. Her person was of the middle size, and well proportioned; her hair dark; her complexion blooming; and her countenance pleasing. Her voice was so peculiarly melodious, that it was commonly observed, "Her very speech was music." She was married to Prince George of Denmark, and is said to have been a pattern of conjugal love and fidelity. As a parent, she was tender and affectionate; but had the misfortune to survive all her children. She was a munificent patroness; and her reign was distinguished by men of genius and learning. Her disposition was charitable; her temper mild and merciful. During her life, no one suffered for treason. Like her predecessors of the line of Stuart, she was more amiable than great,—more beloved than admired; better fitted to grace domestic life by the display of social virtues, than to adorn a throne by the energies of a great and powerful mind. She was happy in the choice of her ministers and generals; and the brilliant achievements of Marlborough raised the military reputation of the English to the summit of glory and renown.

This Queen was in the full vigour of her age when she ascended the throne; and her accession was hailed with testimonies of unfeigned joy. She had experienced strange vicissitudes of fortune; in consequence of her father's expulsion from the throne; and sustained a variety of mortifications in the last reign; but had conducted herself with so much prudence, that little or no pretence was left for censure or resentment.

FRENCH WAR.

THE warlike preparations of the late King were continued by the new queen, who determined to fulfil those engagements with the allies which had been entered into by her predecessor. She communicated her intentions to the House of Commons, by whom it was approved; and war with France was accordingly proclaimed. This declaration of war on the part of England was seconded by similar declarations by the Dutch and Germans, all on the same day. Lewis XIV. whose power had been greatly circumscribed by William, and whose ruling passion was the lust of dominion, had flattered himself that the death of that prince would leave him at liberty to make new conquests. He was therefore not a little surprised at seeing such a combination against him: but his resentment chiefly fell on the Dutch, of whom he one day said, with great emotion: "That as for those gentlemen pedlars, they should repent their insolence and presumption, in declaring war against a prince whose power they had formerly felt and dreaded."

The Earl of Marlborough, general of the British forces, was chosen, by the Dutch, Generalissimo of the allied army. This nobleman learned the first rudiments of war under the celebrated Marshal Turenne, in whose army he served as a volunteer; and by that general his future greatness was predicted.

Contrary to the usual practice, Marlborough made a point of advancing merit, in whatever situation he found it: and thus the upper ranks of commanders in his army were rather remarkable for skill and talents, than for age and experience.

At the opening of the first campaign, July, 1702, he repaired to the camp at Nimeguen; where he found himself at the head of 60,000 men, well provided with necessaries, and long disciplined by the best officers of the age. His ostensible opponent, on the part of France, was the Duke of Burgundy, a young man of very little experience in war; but the acting general was Marshal Boufflers, an officer of courage and activity.

The superior genius of Marlborough, however, obliged his enemies to retreat before him. Boufflers retired to Brabant; and Marlborough finished the campaign, by taking the city of Liege, in which was found an immense sum of money, and a great number of prisoners.



VICTORY AND DEATH OF ADMIRAL BENBOW.

THE victories of Marlborough on the Continent were for some time counterbalanced by losses at sea. Sir John Munden suffered a squadron of fourteen ships to escape him, for which he was dismissed the service. An attempt upon Cadiz, both by sea and land, also miscarried. Brilliant success, however, attended the expedition to Vigo. The French, having taken refuge in that bay, seeing the English fleet advancing, set fire to their ships, in order to prevent them from falling into the hands of their enemies. Eight ships were thus burned and run ashore: but ten ships of war were taken, besides eleven Spanish galleons, and above a million of money in silver. This expedition was conducted by Sir George Rooke. Admiral Benbow, with ten ships, was stationed in the West Indies, to distress the enemy's trade; and hearing that Du Casse, the French Admiral was in the neighbourhood of Hispaniola, with a force equal to his own, he resolved to follow the same course. On the 19th of August he came up with the enemy's squadron, formed the line of battle, and began the engagement; but he was very ill supported by some of his captains, who, disgusted with his blunt and boisterous manner, took this dishonourable and traitorous method of testifying their displeasure. They basely left him to sustain, almost alone, the whole force of the enemy: nevertheless, this intrepid seaman, assisted only by one ship, pursued and fought the French for four successive days. The last day, alone and unsupported, he engaged the whole French squadron, and in the action, had his leg shot off. His

death, which happened shortly after, was hastened by the grief he felt at the misconduct of his officers; two of whom, on their return home, were shot for cowardice.



VICTORIES OF MARLBOROUGH.

THE eminent services of Marlborough, in his first campaign, procured him, on his return home, the thanks of the House of Commons, and the title of Duke, with a pension of £5,000 per annum during his natural life.

In the beginning of April 1703, he returned to the Continent, and, assembling the allied army, opened the campaign with the siege of Bonn, which he shortly reduced. The garrison of Huy, after a vigorous resistance, surrendered prisoners of war. Limburgh next fell into his hands, which concluded the campaign of 1703. The French King finding Boufflers unequal to contend with Marlborough, appointed the Marshal de Villeroy to command in his place. But Marlborough, like Hannibal of old, was remarkable for studying the character of his opponent; and having no fears of Villeroy, he flew to assist the Emperor, who was at this time much pressed by the French forces. Accompanied by about 13,000 British troops, he advanced by hasty marches to the banks of the Danube; defeated a body of French and Bavarian forces, that were sent to oppose him; crossed the river, and laid the Dukedom of Bavaria under contribution. Villeroy, who attempted to follow him, was not apprized of the route he had taken, till informed of his successes. Marshal Tallard, with an army of 30,000 men, which was soon after augmented by 30,000 Bavarians, attempted to obstruct Marlborough's return. The Duke was joined by Prince Eugene, with a considerable force; and after various marches and counter-marches, the two armies met at Blenheim. The French were 60,000 strong; the allied army 52,000. The battle began about nine in the morning,

and continued till one in the afternoon. About noon, the English and Hessians attacked the village of Blenheim with great vigour, but were repulsed after three successive attempts. The fire from the French infantry was tremendous, and occasioned some slight disorder in the line; but the confederates returning to the charge with redoubled vigour, routed the French horse: their battalions being therefore exposed, abandoned their position, and were cut in pieces. The Duke of Marlborough rode through the hottest of the fire, with the calmest intrepidity, giving his orders with that presence of mind and deliberation, which so particularly marked his character. Tallard was surrounded and taken prisoner, together with the Marquis of Montpirriez, general of the horse, and many other officers of distinction. The Prince of Holssteinbeck was overpowered by numbers, mortally wounded, and taken prisoner; and the troops posted at Blenheim, seeing themselves cut off from any communication with the main body, laid down their arms. By this decisive victory, (the most glorious and complete ever obtained) a country of a hundred leagues in extent fell into the hands of the conquerors. 10,000 French and Bavarians perished in the field of battle, 13,000 were made prisoners, one hundred pieces of cannon, and twenty-four mortars were taken: one hundred and twenty-nine colours, one hundred and seventy-one standards, besides tents, &c. The allies lost about 4,500 men killed, and 8,000 wounded or taken. The day after the battle, Marlborough visited the Marshal Tallard, who congratulated him on having vanquished the best troops in the world: to which the Duke replied, he hoped the Marshal would except those by whom they were beaten.

The Duke having finished the campaign, repaired to Berlin, and procuring a reinforcement of 8,000 Prussians, to serve in Italy under Prince Eugene, he proceeded to negotiate for succours for Hanover; after which he returned to England, where he was received with every demonstration of unbounded joy.

GIBRALTAR TAKEN BY SIR GEORGE ROOKE.

WHILST the armies of Britain were acquiring laurels on the Continent, her brave sons of the ocean were adding to her dominions and to her strength. Gibraltar, a strong fortification commanding the entrance to the Mediterranean, was taken by the Prince of Hesse, and Sir George Rooke, from the Spaniards: and when the conquerors entered it, they were astonished at the success of their attempt; for so strongly is it defended by nature as well as art, that with fifty men it might be maintained against a numerous army: but so little was the value of the conquest at that time understood in England, that it was thought unworthy of national gratitude. Soon afterwards, the British fleet, amounting to fifty-three ships of the line, engaged the French fleet, consisting of fifty-two ships, commanded by the Count of Thoulouse, near the coast of Malaga. The engagement began at ten in the morning, and continued with great fury for six hours, when the van of the French began to give way! but, notwithstanding, the fight continued until night, when the enemy bore away to leeward. For two days the British admiral attempted to renew the engagement; but this was declined by the French, who nevertheless claimed the victory, though the consequences that ensued were entirely in favour of Britain.

In the midst of these victories, the Archduke Charles, son of the Emperor of Germany, landed in England. This young Prince had been appointed to succeed to the crown of Spain, by the late King's will; but Philip V. grandson of Lewis XIV. had taken possession of the throne, with the joyful concurrence of the greater part of the Spanish people. The former, however, determined to assert his rights, and compel his rival to resign his newly-acquired dominions. Charles was received with great kindness by Queen Anne, who furnished him with two hundred transports, thirty ships of war, and 9,000 men. This force was put under the conduct of the Earl of Peter-

borough, a man of remarkable bravery, whose single service was reckoned equivalent to an army.

The first campaign was eminently successful. Victory followed in the train of the British general, who entered Madrid in triumph, and there proclaimed Charles, King of Spain, without opposition. However, in the year 1707, the battle of Almanza again placed Philip on the throne of Spain.

The Duke of Marlborough in the mean time continued to gain fresh victories in Germany. In 1706 he defeated the French under Marshal Villeroy, near the village of Ramilies. This victory was almost as complete as that of Blenheim; and the whole country of Brabant was the reward of the victors.

Lewis, who had long been a favoured child of fortune, was now so much humbled as almost to excite pity in his enemies: he sued for peace, but in vain; so that even the inhabitants of Paris began to fear the approach of the conquerors.



THE UNION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

THIS important event, which had baffled the attempts of preceding Monarchs, forms one of the most interesting occurrences of this active reign. Ever since the time of James I., the two countries had been governed by the same Sovereign, but their Parliaments were independent of each other; hence it not unfrequently happened, that the English and Scotch politics were in opposition, and having a separate interest, the safety of the whole was sometimes endangered. The advocates for this union of strength and interest were not very numerous, and the opposition ran very high in both kingdoms. The English exclaimed, that the union with so poor a nation would involve them in equal necessities: and deemed it unjust, that, while Scotland was granted an eighth part of the Legislature, it should contribute only a fortieth part of the supplies.

The Scots objected, that the independence of their country was lost, the dignity of their crown betrayed; and that the privilege of trading to the English plantations in America, was a trifling compensation for the certain disadvantages of increased taxes upon the necessaries of life, and the vast number of duties, taxes, and restrictions laid upon trade. The most violent disputes took place in their Parliament, almost every article of the treaty was the subject of a protest; and addresses against it were presented from trading companies, counties, boroughs, towns, and parishes: all parties uniting in their detestation of the treaty. The Duke of Queensberry, who was the chief promoter of the Union in Scotland, though guarded by double lines of horse and foot, was obliged to pass through the streets of Edinburgh at full gallop. The people pursued him with curses and imprecations, pelted his guards, and even wounded some of his friends who were with him in the coach. At length, however, the Ministry triumphed over all opposition, this desirable event was completed, and the island took the name of the "United Kingdom of Great Britain."

The Queen expressed the highest satisfaction when it received the royal assent: and said, "She did not doubt but that it would be remembered and spoken of, hereafter, to the honour of those who had been instrumental in bringing it to such a happy conclusion." Scotland was henceforward no longer to have a Parliament, but to send sixteen Peers, chosen from the body of their nobility, and forty-five Commoners; and all the subjects of both countries were, from this time, to enjoy a communication of privileges and advantages.



VICTORIES OF MARLBOROUGH.

AFTER the battle of Ramilies, the French King offered to give up either Spain and its dominions or the kingdom of Naples and Sicily, to Charles of Austria, and to give a barrier to

the Dutch in the Netherlands. But these terms were rejected, and the two armies once more met at Oudenarde. The French forces greatly exceeded those of the allies, but their generals were divided, their men ill-disposed, and dispirited by repeated defeats. Victory therefore again declared for the allies.*

Lisle, the strongest town in Flanders, next surrendered, and, shortly after, the whole country fell under the power of the victors.

In the campaign of 1709, Tournay capitulated, after a terrible siege of twenty-one days; and a memorable battle was fought not long after at Malplaquet, in which the French were again defeated, though their position was so strongly fortified as to appear inaccessible. The campaign of 1611 was the last in which Marlborough commanded, and in this he is said to have excelled all his former exploits. He contrived his measures so well, that, by marching and countermarching, he induced the enemy, without striking a blow, to quit a strong line of entrenchment, which he afterwards took possession of.

The taking of Bouchain was the last act of this great General, who, during the nine years that the war continued, never retreated before his enemies, nor lost an advantage he had obtained over them. He most frequently gained their posts without fighting; but, where he was obliged to attack, no fortifications were able to resist him. He never besieged a city which he did not take, nor engaged in a battle from which he did not return victorious.

During his absence, a great change took place in the administration at home. The petulant and haughty conduct of the Duchess of Marlborough, who had hitherto possessed an unbounded influence over the Queen, at length became so offensive to her Majesty, that she withdrew her confidence, and

* In this battle the Electoral Prince of Hanover, afterwards George II., greatly distinguished himself.

received into her favour a Mrs. Masham, who was entirely devoted to Lord Oxford. The Tory interest now began to prevail : and the disputes concerning Dr. Sacheverell,* proved the majority of the people to incline to them. The war had been promoted by the Whigs, and the people were for a time intoxicated with the splendour of those victories, which placed the national character so high on the list of Fame ; but at length they grew tired of conquest, and ardently longed for peace. An entire change therefore took place in the administration. Harley, Earl of Oxford, was made Treasurer, and the Earl of Rochester, President of the Council. The Duke of Marlborough, being an object of their dislike, and an obstacle to their designs, was, on his return home, dismissed from all his employments. He was accused of having taken a bribe of £6,000 from a Jew, who had contracted to supply the army with bread.



PEACE OF UTRECHT.

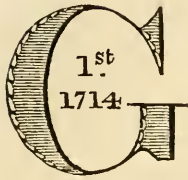
THE Duke of Ormond, who succeeded Marlborough in the command abroad, had orders not to act offensively, conse-

* Dr. Sacheverell, a man of narrow intellect and heated imagination, had not only preached, but published a violent philippic against toleration and the Dissenters, and warmly defended the doctrine of non-resistance. For this he was impeached by the Commons. The Tories took up his cause, and declared that the Church was in danger. The people being alarmed, destroyed the Meeting-houses, and plundered the dwellings of the Dissenters. After much dispute, Sacheverell was found guilty, he was prohibited from preaching for two years, and the obnoxious sermons were condemned to be burned by the common hangman. The Tories considered the mildness of this sentence in a favourable point of view.

quently the war languished, and, in 1713, a peace was concluded at Utrecht. In this treaty it was stipulated, that Philip, now King of Spain, should renounce all rights to the Crown of France; and that the Duke of Berry, the presumptive heir to the French Crown after the death of the Dauphin, should renounce all claim to the throne of Spain: it being deemed incompatible with the general liberties of Europe, that two such powerful kingdoms should be governed by the same Monarch. The Duke of Savoy had the island of Sicily, with the title of King; and the Dutch had that barrier granted them, which they had so long desired, together with some of the strongest towns in Flanders. Spain gave up Gibraltar and Minorca to Britain; and France resigned Hudson's Bay, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland. The Emperor was to possess the kingdom of Naples, the duchy of Milan, and the Spanish Netherlands; and the King of Prussia was to have Upper Gueldres. But, amongst all the articles of this famous treaty, none was more truly honourable to Britain than that which stipulated, that all the French Protestants who had been confined in the galleys and prisons for their religious principles, should be set at liberty!

The year following, July the 28th, the Queen fell into a lethargic insensibility. On the 30th, she seemed to be somewhat relieved by medicines; but was shortly after seized with an apoplexy, and expired the following morning, having lived forty-nine years, and reigned upwards of twelve.

In her ended the line of Stuart: a family, whose misfortunes and misconduct afford a striking lesson to succeeding Sovereigns.



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| <p style="text-align: center;">1715</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Riot Act</i></p> | <p style="text-align: center;">1715</p> |
| <p style="text-align: center;">1715</p> | <p style="text-align: center;">1716</p> |
| <p style="text-align: center;">1718</p> <p style="text-align: center;">E F G H</p> | <p style="text-align: center;">1720</p> |

PLATE XXXV.

GEORGE THE FIRST.

Fig. 1.—THE RIOT ACT PASSED.*Fig. 2.*—THE PRETENDER'S STANDARD ERECTED IN SCOTLAND.*Fig. 3.*—DEFEAT OF THE PRETENDER AT PRESTON.*Fig. 4.*—CRUEL TREATMENT OF THE REBELS.

The fetters and chains refer to imprisonments. The axe to decapitation. The ship is a transport, bound to Nova Scotia, with condemned rebels.

Fig. 5.—THE QUADRUPLE ALLIANCE BETWEEN ENGLAND,
FRANCE, GERMANY, AND HOLLAND.*Fig. 6.*—THE SOUTH SEA BUBBLE.

GEORGE THE FIRST.

GEORGE I. was the son of Ernestus, Elector of Hanover, the representative of the House of Brunswick, Hanover, &c., and of Sophia, grand-daughter of James I. He ascended the throne of Great Britain in the fiftieth year of his age, with the reputation of a circumspect general, a wise politician, and a just and merciful prince. Unfortunately he was a stranger to the language of the people he came to govern, so that he was misled by a venal ministry, who prejudiced him against all those who were not of their own party. He had declared, that he would govern his new subjects as their common father; and was heard to say, "My maxim is, never to abandon my friends, to do justice to all the world, and to fear no man." But, on his arrival in this kingdom, the Whigs only were considered as his children: the others were beheld with mistrust and dislike, as aliens and disaffected.

In his person, George was handsome, but below the middle size. His disposition was merciful: he loved peace, was temperate, just, and liberal. He was beloved by his Hanoverian subjects, and respected by the English: who looked forward with hope to that happy period, when the illustrious House of Brunswick, proud of swaying the sceptre of a free people, should feel they were natives of a land of freedom, and glory in the name of Britons!

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THE RIOT ACT PASSED.

IMMEDIATELY after the death of the late Queen, the Privy Council met. Orders were immediately issued for proclaiming George, Elector of Hanover, King of England, Scotland, and Ireland; and the Earl of Dorset was appointed to carry him the intimation of his accession, and to attend him in his journey to England. The King first landed at Greenwich, where he was received by the Duke of Northumberland, Captain of the Life-Guards, and by the Lords of the Treasury. On retiring

to his bedchamber, he sent for such of the nobility as had distinguished themselves by their zeal for his succession; but the Tories found themselves excluded from the royal favour. The Whigs used all their arts to confirm their interest with the new King; and an instantaneous change was made in all places of trust, honour, and advantage. The appellation of Whigs and Tories was changed for that of Hanoverians and Jacobites. The former were desirous of being governed by a Protestant King, even though he were a foreigner: the latter were for having a monarch of their own country, though a Papist. The Pretender meanwhile continued a calm spectator on the Continent; and contented himself with dispersing useless manifestoes, which only tended to mislead the unwary. In March 1714, a new Parliament was called; which being chiefly composed of Whigs, the most violent measures were resolved upon, against the late ministry. Henry Lord Viscount Bolingbroke was impeached of high-treason by Mr. Walpole: upon which Lord Conynsby standing up, "The worthy Chairman," said he, "has impeached the hand; but I impeach the head:—he has impeached the scholar, and I the master. I impeach Robert earl of Oxford, and the Earl Mortimer, of high-treason, and of other crimes and misdemeanours."—Mr. Auditor Harley, the earl's brother, replied, "that Lord Oxford had done nothing but by the immediate command of his sovereign;—that the peace was a good peace, and approved of as such by the two Houses of Parliament; and that if the sanction of Parliament was not sufficient to protect a Minister from the vengeance of his enemies, he could have no security." Notwithstanding this spirited defence, the earl was sent to the Tower. The people loudly expressing their disapprobation of such vindictive proceedings, an act was therefore passed, declaring, that if any persons to the number of twelve, unlawfully assembled, should continue together one hour after hearing the Act against Riots read in public, they should be deemed guilty of felony without benefit of clergy.

DEFINITION.

Manifestoes.—Public declarations made by a prince in writing, shewing his intentions to begin a war, or other enterprize, with the motives that induce him to it, and the reasons on which he founds his rights and pretensions.

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THE PRETENDER'S STANDARD ERECTED IN SCOTLAND.

THE impolitic partiality of the new King for the Whigs was deeply felt by the Tory party, many of whom joined the Jacobite* faction, whose hopes in favour of the Pretender were not a little stimulated by the dissensions amongst the people. The Scots, in general, were attached to the Pretender's cause. The Earl of Mar assembled three hundred of his vassals in the Highlands, and proclaimed the Pretender at Castleton. Two vessels from France arrived with arms, ammunition, and a number of officers, with assurances to the earl that the Pretender would shortly come over to head his own forces. The earl therefore soon found himself at the head of 10,000 men, well armed and provided. He quickly made himself master of the whole province of Fife, and all the sea coast on that side the Frith of Forth; and was soon after joined by General Gordon, an officer of great experience, who had signalized himself in the Russian service.

The Duke of Argyle, who on this occasion was appointed Commander-in-chief of all the royal forces in North Britain, was sent to oppose the earl; and resolved to give him battle in the neighbourhood of Dumblaine, though his forces did not amount to half the number of the enemy. The Duke of

* The Jacobites were chiefly Roman-Catholics, who considered the Pretender as the lawful inheritor of the British throne.

Argyle, who in person commanded the right wing of the royal army, attacked the left of the enemy, routed them, and drove them over the River Allan. Returning to the field of battle, he was not a little mortified to find that the left wing of his own army, commanded by General Witham, was entirely defeated by the rebels, who were patiently awaiting a renewal of the combat. Both armies, however, continued to gaze at each other in silence. In the evening they withdrew, and both sides claimed the victory. The Earl of Mar, however, soon after had the mortification to discover that delay to him was equivalent to a defeat: his losses and disappointments daily increased; and many of the clans, seeing no probability of a second engagement, returned to their homes.



DEFEAT OF THE PRETENDER AT PRESTON.

IN October, 1715, the Earl of Derwentwater and Mr. Foster took the field with a body of horse, and, being joined by a few gentlemen from Scotland, proclaimed the Pretender. In the hope of avoiding an engagement with General Carpenter, who, with nine hundred men, was sent to oppose them, they took the route to Jedburgh, and continued their march to Penrith: from whence they proceeded, by way of Kendal and Lancaster, to Preston; which they took, without any resistance. Here they were attacked by General Wills; who being reinforced by General Carpenter, the town was invested on all sides. In this deplorable situation, to which their own rashness had reduced them, Foster hoped to capitulate: but in this he was disappointed, and forced to surrender at discretion. All the noblemen and leaders were secured. A few of the officers were tried for deserting from the royal army, and shot, by order of a court-martial. The common men were imprisoned at Chester and Liverpool. The noblemen and principal officers were sent to London; and, in order to strike terror into their

party, were led through the streets, pinioned and bound together, like common malefactors.

Notwithstanding the ill success which had hitherto attended the Pretender's party, he now resolved to go over into Scotland. Passing through France in disguise, he embarked in a small vessel at Dunkirk, and in six days arrived in Scotland with only six gentlemen in his train. At Aberdeen he was met by the Earl of Mar, and about thirty noblemen and gentlemen of distinction. There he was solemnly proclaimed; made a public entry at Dundee, intending to have the ceremony of his coronation performed at Scone; and, without the smallest share of power, went through all the ceremonies of royalty. At length, after some time spent in useless parade, he assembled his grand council, and deplored that he was obliged to leave them, having neither money, arms, nor ammunition, to undertake a campaign. He therefore once more embarked on board a small French ship, accompanied by several lords, his adherents; and in five days arrived at Gravelines.



CRUEL TREATMENT OF THE REBELS.

THE rebellion being ended, the law was put in force with all its terrors; and the prisons of London were crowded with those deluded persons, whom the Ministry seemed resolved not to pardon. The Earls of Derwentwater, Nithsdale, Carnwath, and Wintown, the Lords Widrington, Kenmuir, and Nairne, were impeached; and upon pleading guilty, all, but Lord Wintown, received sentence of death. No entreaties could prevail on the ministry to spare these unhappy men. The Countess of Nithsdale and Lady Nairne threw themselves at the King's feet, as he passed through the apartments of the palace, and implored his clemency in behalf of their husbands: but their tears and entreaties were in vain. The House of Lords even presented an address to the throne for mercy, but without

effect: the King only answered, that on this, as on all other occasions, he would act as he thought most consistent with the dignity of the crown, and the safety of the people. Orders were therefore despatched for executing, immediately, the Lords Derwentwater, Nithsdale, and Kenmuir. Nithsdale escaped the night before the execution, in woman's apparel furnished him by his mother. Derwentwater and Kenmuir were executed on Tower Hill. The former was a young man of the most amiable manners,—brave, open, generous, and humane: his fate drew tears from the spectators; whilst, among his poor tenants in Scotland, the widow and the orphan who had been sustained by his bounty deplored with heartfelt anguish the loss of their benefactor. Kenmuir, also, was a nobleman of distinguished virtue; calm, sensible, resolute, and resigned. An act of Parliament was next made for trying the private persons in London, and not in Lancashire, where they were taken in arms. This was considered by some of the best lawyers as an infringement of the Constitution.* In the beginning of April, bills were found against Mr. Macintosh, Mr. Foster, and about twenty of their confederates. Foster, Macintosh and some others, escaped: four or five were hanged, drawn, and quartered, at Tyburn: at Liverpool, a considerable number were found guilty of high-treason: twenty-two were executed at Preston; and about 1,000 were transported to North America.

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THE QUADRUPLE ALLIANCE BETWEEN ENGLAND, FRANCE, GERMANY, AND HOLLAND.

AMONG the many treaties for which this reign was remarkable, was that called the *Quadruple Alliance*. This was a treaty

* It is a fundamental law, that all persons taken in arms shall be tried in the country where the offence was committed.

between the Emperor of Germany, France, Holland, and Britain; in which it was agreed, that the Emperor should renounce all pretensions to the crown of Spain, and exchange Sardinia for Sicily with the Duke of Savoy; and that the succession to the duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Placentia, should be settled on the Queen of Spain's eldest son, in case the present possessors should die without male issue. This treaty, however, was by no means agreeable to the King of Spain: a war ensued between that monarch and the Emperor, in which England also was obliged to take part. A squadron of twenty-two ships was therefore equipped with all expedition, and the command given to Sir George Byng; who coming unexpectedly upon the Spanish fleet, near Cape Faro, took all their ships, except three. Sir George Byng shewed such prudence and resolution on this occasion, that the King wrote him a letter with his own hand, testifying his approbation of his conduct.

The rupture with Spain being thought favourable to the interests of the Pretender, a fleet of ten ships of war, and transports, having on board 6,000 regular troops, and arms for 12,000 more, were furnished by the court of Spain: and the Duke of Ormond was fixed upon to conduct the expedition. But fortune was still unpropitious: at Cape Finisterre they encountered a violent storm, which disabled the fleet, and frustrated the expedition. This misfortune, and the bad success of his arms in other parts, induced Philip to wish for peace. He at last consented to sign the Quadruple Alliance, by which peace was again restored to Europe.

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THE SOUTH-SEA BUBBLE.

EVER since the Revolution under King William, the Government, not having sufficient supplies granted by Parliament, were obliged to borrow money from several different companies of merchants, and, among the rest, from that company which

traded to the South Sea. In the year 1716, Government was indebted to this company about £9,500,000; for which they granted at the rate of 6 per cent. interest. As this company was not the only one to which Government was indebted, Sir Robert Walpole formed a design of lessening the national debt; giving the several companies an alternative, either of accepting a lower interest, or of being paid the principal. The different companies chose rather to accept of the diminished interest, than to be paid the principal. The South-Sea Company in particular, having augmented their loan to £10,000,000, were contented to receive £500,000 annually, instead of £600,000. In the same manner, all the other companies were contented to receive a diminished annual interest for their respective loans, all of which greatly lessened the national debt.

In this situation of things, Sir J. Blount proposed to the ministry, in the name of the South-Sea Company, to buy up all the debts of the different companies, and thus become the sole creditors of the state. The terms he offered to Government were extremely advantageous: they were content to be allowed by Government 5 per cent. for six years; after which the interest was to be reduced to 4 per cent; and might at any time be redeemable by Parliament. As the Directors of the South-Sea Company could not of themselves be supposed to possess money sufficient to buy up all the debts of the nation, they were empowered to raise it by opening a subscription to an imaginary scheme for trading to the South Seas. All the creditors therefore were invited to come in, and exchange their securities, namely, the security of Government, for that of the South-Sea Company. The Directors' books were no sooner opened, than thousands came to make the exchange of Government stock for South-Sea stock! The delusion was artfully spread; and in a few days, subscriptions sold for double the price at which they had been bought. The whole nation

seemed infected with a spirit of avaricious enterprise, so that the scheme succeeded beyond the projector's most sanguine expectations. In a few months, however, the delusion passed away; and the people awoke from the dreams of imaginary riches, to feel all the horrors of real poverty and distress. Thousands of families were involved in one common ruin; whilst a few of the unprincipled Directors amassed immense fortunes by the credulity of the people. Parliament, indignant at such nefarious conduct, resolved to strip those unjust plunderers of their spoil. All who possessed any places under Government were dismissed; the estates of the principal delinquents were seized; and a bill was prepared in Parliament for repairing the late sufferings as far as the inspection of the Legislature could extend. In the mean time, petitions from all parts of the kingdom were presented to the House, demanding justice; and the nation seemed exasperated to the highest degree. The bank was drawn upon faster than it could supply: and nothing was heard but the ravings of disappointment, and the cries of despair.

By degrees, however, the effect of this terrible calamity wore off. A new war with Spain commenced. Admiral Hosier was sent to South America, to intercept the Spanish galleons; but the expedition failed entirely. The Spaniards, having intimation of the design, re-landed their treasure. The British seamen, from the malignity of the climate, were cut off in great numbers; and the admiral himself died, it is said, of a broken heart. The Spaniards in the mean time undertook the siege of Gibraltar, but with as little success on their side. Through the mediation of France, a temporary peace ensued, both sides only wanting an opportunity to renew hostilities with advantage.

In the year 1727, the King resolved to visit his Electoral dominions of Hanover. Having appointed a regency in his absence, he embarked for Holland, and in a few days arrived

at Delden, to all appearance in good health. The next morning early he continued his journey, but soon after ordered his coach to stop. His attendant Fabrice, perceiving that one of the King's hands lay motionless, attempted to quicken the circulation by rubbing it; but finding this ineffectual, he called the surgeon to his assistance. The King's tongue, however, began to swell; and he had just strength enough to bid them hasten to Osnaburgh, where he expired the next morning, in the 68th year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign.

George I. married Sophia Dorothy, only child of his uncle George William, Duke of Zell, by whom he had one son, George Augustus, who succeeded him on the throne; and one daughter, Sophia Dorothy, who in 1706 married Frederic William, afterwards King of Prussia.

PLATE XXXVI.

GEORGE THE SECOND.

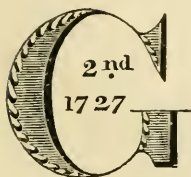
Fig. 1.—THE TWELVE YEARS' PEACE.*Fig. 2.*—WAR WITH SPAIN AND FRANCE.*Fig. 3.*—FINAL EFFORTS OF THE HOUSE OF STUART TO REGAIN THE THRONE.

The Defeat of the Pretender, Charles Edward Stuart, both in England and Scotland, is shewn by the Standards under each Crown being reversed. The broken sword, Thistle, and Oak, shew the utter abolition of his party.

Fig. 4.—VICTORIES AT SEA.*Fig. 5.*—DEATH OF ADMIRAL BYNG.*Fig. 6.*—VICTORIES IN INDIA.

India is represented by a Hindoo Temple or Pagoda. On either side is an Elephant; the head of that animal being to be found in every Indian temple. On the right is the Standard of the East-India Company, on which is hung the Wreath of Conquest; Lord Clive being in the immediate service of the Company. On the opposite side is the Standard of England.

Fig. 7.—QUEBEC TAKEN.—DEATH OF GENERAL WOLFE.



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| A circular wreath of leaves and branches. In the center, the text reads: <p>From 1727 PEACE to 1739</p> | <p>1739</p> Two crossed swords with hilts, a fleur-de-lis symbol, and a shield with a lion. | <p>1745</p> <p>P</p> A large monogram 'E' with a crown above it. Two crossed swords and two flags with the letter 'F' are also present. |
| <p>1747</p> An anchor with a banner across it that reads 'WARREN FOX-HOLE'. Two crossed swords are positioned on either side of the anchor. | <p>1757</p> A flag with a lion rampant, a cross, and two crossed swords. | <p>1758</p> A multi-tiered tower or fortification with two flags and two crossed swords in front of it. |
| | <p>1759</p> A flag with a lion rampant and a flag that says 'Quebec taken'. | |

GEORGE THE SECOND.

GEORGE II. succeeded his father in 1727. His person was of the middle size, and well shaped; his eyes remarkably prominent, and his complexion fair. In his temper he was hasty, but forgiving; humane, temperate, and remarkably methodical. Fond of military pomp and parade, he loved war as a soldier, studied it as a science, and corresponded on this subject with some of the greatest officers of the German school. Like his predecessor, he was strongly attached to his native country; and too frequently manifested his predilection in favour of Hanover, to the prejudice of his British subjects, whose blood and treasure were lavished in the support of Continental wars, in which they had no personal interest.

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THE TWELVE YEARS' PEACE.

A LONG cessation from foreign war was succeeded by a war of words. The national debt, which at this time amounted to £30,000,000, and a standing army, were the objects of perpetual controversy. The two great parties, into which the nation had so long been divided, again changed their names, and were now called the *Court and Country Parties*. In vain the Country party resisted the demands of the new supplies, which were made every Session: the Court party was constantly victorious: and every demand was granted, not only with cheerfulness, but profusion.

The demon of avarice seems at this time to have taken strong possession of the minds of some of the leading men of the day. Not fewer than six members of Parliament were expelled the House of Commons for the most sordid acts of knavery. A society of men, under the name of "The Charitable Corporation," had formed themselves into a company, to lend money at legal interest to the poor, upon small pledges, and to persons of higher rank upon proper securities. This

company had continued for more than twenty years; when the cashier, John Robinson, the member for Marlow, and John Thompson the warehouse-keeper, disappeared in one day; and £500,000 of the capital was found to be sunk or embezzled, by means which the proprietors could not discover. A secret committee was appointed to examine into this grievance; when a most iniquitous scene of fraud was discovered, in the guilt and infamy of which many persons of rank and quality were concerned.

In 1731, the minister, Sir Robert Walpole, proposed an excise upon tobacco; but the measure was so extremely unpopular, that it was dropped. The miscarriage of the bill was celebrated with public rejoicings in London, and the minister burned in effigy.

An unsuccessful attempt was made about this time to repeal the Septennial Act,* as it was called, and to bring back triennial Parliaments. A new Parliament was however summoned, and fresh subjects of controversy were every day presented. A convention entered into by the ministry with Spain became an object of warm altercation. The ministry were, as usual, victorious; and the Country party, finding themselves outnumbered and out-voted in every debate, resolved to withdraw. Walpole, being thus left without opposition, took the opportunity of their absence to pass several useful laws, in order to render the opposite party contemptible.

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WAR WITH SPAIN AND FRANCE.

IN 1739, war was begun with Spain, on the following occasion. The English claimed a right of cutting logwood

* The Septennial Act was an act made by Parliament in the year 1716, repealing that by which they were to be dissolved every third year, and extending the term of their duration to seven years.

in the Bay of Campeachy, which gave them frequent opportunities of introducing contraband goods upon the Spanish continent. To remedy this inconvenience, the Spaniards not only refused to allow them to continue cutting logwood, but sent many British subjects to dig in the mines of Potosi. Repeated remonstrances were made to the Court of Madrid; to which only illusory promises of redress were returned. War was therefore declared in form; and an expedition was undertaken against the Spanish settlements in America. The command of this expedition was given to Admiral Vernon, who, with six ships only, attacked and took Porto Bello, and destroyed all its fortifications, without losing a man.

Another squadron, under the command of Commodore Anson, was ordered to act against the enemy on the coasts of Chili and Peru, and occasionally to co-operate with Admiral Vernon across the Isthmus of Darien; but it was so late in the season before the expedition sailed, that the squadron was exposed to the most terrible storms in the South Seas. After encountering innumerable difficulties, Commodore Anson, with only a few soldiers, attacked the City of Païta by night, which he took, plundered, and burned. His fleet was soon after reduced to only two ships; the remainder having either put back to England, or been wrecked by the tempest. The Commodore, unable to follow up the original plan, placed all his hopes on taking one of those rich Spanish galleons, only one or two of which pass annually from one continent to the other. On the 9th of June, the object he so ardently longed for appeared: it was of immense size, and adapted for war as well as merchandize, mounting forty guns, and having on board six hundred men. The Commodore's ship, the *Centurion*, was the only one which remained of his fleet, and his men did not exceed three hundred; nevertheless, the Spanish ship became the prize of the English, and the brave Commodore returned home laden with riches. He was greeted

with all the honour which his prudence and perseverance deserved; he soon became the oracle consulted in all naval deliberations; was made first Lord of the Admiralty; and raised by the King to the dignity of the Peerage.

The other expedition, under Admiral Vernon, proved very unfortunate. The armament consisted of twenty-nine ships of the line, and almost as many frigates, furnished with all kinds of warlike stores, about 15,000 seamen, and as many land forces. The most sanguine hopes of success were entertained; but the unaccountable delays of the ministry frustrated the whole plan. The season for action in America was almost over before the expedition arrived at Carthagena: nevertheless, the forts which defended the harbour were speedily taken; but, on attempting to scale those which more immediately defended the City, a series of misfortunes palsied the efforts of the soldiers. Their guides had been slain; the troops mistook their way; and instead of attacking the weakest parts of the enemy's fortifications, they assailed the strongest. To increase their distress, the scaling ladders were found to be too short. For some hours they supported a dreadful fire with undaunted resolution; but at length retreated, leaving six hundred men dead under the walls. To these calamities were added disease and discord: the sea and land commanders mutually blamed each other; in one point only they agreed, viz. to embark the troops, and withdraw with all speed.

The people at home had long been indignant at the inactivity of the navy. The Spanish privateers had plundered the British merchants with impunity; and loud remonstrances had been made to the Minister on the subject, but without effect. This, together with the failure of the expedition against America, produced a universal outcry against him; the opposition increased daily, and Walpole had the mortification of finding the majority against him in every measure. The Parliament

was therefore adjourned; and, in the interim, Sir Robert being created Earl of Orford, resigned all his employments.

The new Ministry, notwithstanding their clamour against their predecessors, continued to pursue the same plans. The people, weary of the disgraceful failures by sea, ardently longed for a renewal of their victories on the Continent: they dwelt with delight on the brilliant achievements of a Marlborough, and fondly anticipated a renewal of their former fame. The King, joining in the same wish, an army of 16,000 foot, from which brilliant triumphs were expected, was despatched into Flanders to assist the Queen of Hungary.

This Queen, on her accession to the throne, found herself attacked by France, Saxony, Bavaria, and Prussia. Britain was the only ally that seemed willing to assist her. Sixteen thousand Hanoverians joined the British, in order to make a diversion in her favour in the Netherlands. This object was happily effected, the Queen was relieved, and the scale of victory began to turn in her favour. The British and Hanoverian army, under the Earl of Stair, in their endeavour to effect a junction with Prince Charles of Lorraine,* encountered the French near the village of Dettingen, whom they defeated with the loss of 5,000 men.

The French now imagined, from the violence of Parliamentary disputes in England, that the country was ripe for a revolution: an invasion was therefore actually projected. The Duke de Roquefeuille, with twenty ships, having on board 15,000 troops, commanded by the famous Count Saxe, actually put to sea; but the appearance of Sir John Norris, with a superior fleet, disconcerted the project: the French fleet put back, and a hard gale of wind damaged their transports beyond the

* Prince Charles of Lorraine was General of the Queen of Hungary's troops.

power of redress. The rejoicings for this success were considerably damped by the failure of Admirals Matthews and Lestock, who, through a personal misunderstanding, suffered another French fleet of thirty-four sail to escape them. In the Netherlands, Count Saxe defeated the allies at the battle of Fontenoy; the latter lost nearly 25,000 men, and the former almost as many. In America, however, the English were more successful. The fortress of Louisbourg, in the island of Cape Breton, surrendered to General Pepperell; and two days afterwards, two French East-India ships, and a Spanish ship from Peru, laden with treasure, put into the harbour, supposing it still belonged to the French, and were taken.

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FINAL EFFORTS OF THE HOUSE OF STUART TO REGAIN THE THRONE.

THE son of the Chevalier St. George (the courteous appellation of James II. after his abdication), animated with the hope of ascending the throne of his ancestors, resolved to make one grand effort for that purpose.

Being furnished with a sum of money, and a supply of arms, on his own credit, he embarked on board a small frigate, accompanied by the Marquis of Tullibardine, Sir Thomas Sheridan, and a few others; and in eighteen days landed in Scotland, at Borodale, on the confines of Lochmannock. At Perth and at Dundee he was proclaimed King of Great Britain, and soon after made himself master of Edinburgh. During these transitions, Sir John Cope, with 3,000 men, began his march to Edinburgh, in order to give battle to the enemy. At Preston-Pans he was met by the Pretender, at the head of 2,500 Highlanders, half armed, where, in less than ten minutes after the action began, the King's troops were broken, and totally routed. All the infantry were killed or taken, and the colours, artillery, tents, baggage, and military chests, fell into the hands of

the victor, who returned in triumph to Edinburgh. Prince Charles bore his good fortune with moderation, and treated the wounded officers and soldiers with tenderness and humanity. By this victory he reaped great and important advantages. Possessed of arms, ammunition, artillery, and money, he saw himself master of the whole of Scotland, except the fortresses. The number of his partisans daily increased. The Earl of Kilmarnock, and the Lords Elcho, Balmerino, Ogilvy, and Pitsligo, went over to him. Preparations were made to invade England, where he expected to be joined by all the Catholics, and the secret adherents of his family. The Ministry of England, in the mean time, took every possible measure to retard his progress. Several powerful Scottish chiefs armed their vassals in defence of the Royal cause; amongst whom, Duncan Forbes, President of the College of Justice at Edinburgh, stands foremost. By his industry and address he prevented the insurrection of 10,000 Highlanders, who would otherwise have joined the Pretender. Admiral Vernon was appointed to observe the motions of the enemy by sea; and his cruizers took several ships, with soldiers, officers, and ammunition, destined for the service of the Pretender in Scotland.

On the 6th of November Prince Charles invested Carlisle, which surrendered in less than three days. Leaving a small garrison there, he advanced to Penrith, marching on foot, in the Highland garb, at the head of his forces, and continued his route, through Lancaster and Preston, to Manchester, where he established his head-quarters: the inhabitants receiving him with marks of affection, and celebrating his arrival by public rejoicings. From thence, proceeding through Macclesfield and Congleton, he entered the town of Derby on the 4th of December. He was now within a hundred miles of the capital, which was filled with terror and confusion. General Wade, who had been dispatched to arrest his progress, still lingered in Yorkshire; and the Duke of Cumberland, who had been re-

called from Flanders, was at the head of another army in the neighbourhood of Litchfield. Both these armies the Pretender had dexterously avoided: and had he proceeded with the same expedition which he had hitherto used, the consequences might have been decidedly in his favour. But the dissensions in his army, and the disappointment which he met with, in not being joined by the Jacobite faction as he expected, induced him to return again into Scotland; accordingly, he left Derby on the 6th, and in fifteen days reached Carlisle. Having reinforced the garrison of this place, Charles crossed the rivers Eden and Solway into Scotland: thus successfully accomplishing one of the most surprising retreats on record.

The Duke of Cumberland pursued him with vigour, and invested Carlisle with his whole army on the 21st, which shortly after surrendered. Charles meanwhile advanced with his army to Glasgow, upon which he levied a severe contribution, and then laid siege to Stirling. At Falkirk he was met by General Hawley, whom he entirely defeated, taking from him his tents and artillery.

The Duke of Cumberland, with 14,000 men, advanced to Aberdeen, where he was joined by several of the nobility who were attached to the House of Hanover. The Spey, a deep and rapid river, offered to the rebels a favourable opportunity for encountering the Royal troops; but, distracted by dissensions, they neglected to dispute this important passage, and suffered the Duke to pass it unmolested. At length the two armies met on the plains of Culloden, near Inverness. This memorable engagement decided the fate of the House of Stuart; the Pretender's army was completely defeated; 1,200 of his men were slain, or wounded on the field; and he owed his own safety to flight. To the torturing reflections arising from blasted ambition, were superadded the pains of hunger, thirst, and fatigue. Surrounded on all sides by armed troops, dreading to find a foe at every turn, Charles sometimes lurked in

caves and cottages, without attendants, or any other support but such as the poorest peasant could supply; sometimes he appeared in a woman's dress, and at other times assumed the appearance of a travelling mountaineer. He was known to above fifty persons of the lowest order; and though £30,000 was offered to whomsoever should discover him, they nobly scorned to betray an afflicted Prince for the sake of gain. Worn down with fatigue and want, he at length escaped in a privateer from St. Maloes, procured for him by young Sheridan. His appearance at once told the severity of his sufferings: his eyes were hollow, his visage pale and wan, his figure emaciated, and his constitution greatly impaired by the fatigues he had undergone. A thick fog concealed his vessel from the English fleet, and he luckily arrived in safety at Morlaix in Bretagne, after having been, for the space of five months, a wretched and solitary fugitive.

His unhappy adherents were, in the mean while, given up to all the rigours of the law. Several of the officers suffered by military execution, and numbers of the common men were imprisoned in the holds of ships, where many perished for want of necessaries, air, and exercise. In the month of May, the Duke of Cumberland encamped with his army near Fort Augustus, in the Highlands, whence he sent off detachments to hunt down the fugitives, and lay all waste with fire and sword; and so alert were the ministers of vengeance in the execution of their office, that in a few days all around was ruin, silence, and desolation.

Why are the hero's laurels stained with blood? When Justice draws the sword, let Mercy plead for the vanquished; let the tears of pity and compassion efface the crimson dye of conquest, and sheath the warrior's steel, unstained by cruelty.

VICTORIES AT SEA.

SOON after the battle of Culloden the Duke of Cumberland returned to Flanders, where he resumed the command of the allied army. The French, however, carried every thing before them; and the taking of Bergen-op-Zoom, the strongest fortification in Brabant, reduced the Dutch to a state of desperation. Meanwhile the British flag again waved triumphantly on the ocean; nine French ships, destined to attack our possessions in the East, were taken by Anson and Warren; shortly after, Commodore Fox, with six ships of war, took above forty French merchant-ships, richly laden, from St. Domingo; and Admiral Hawke defeated the French fleet, taking from them seven ships of the line, and several frigates. At length the contending Powers became anxious for peace; and, in 1748, a Congress was held at Aix la Chapelle, the conditions of which were by no means honourable to Britain. It was stipulated, that the King should send two noblemen as hostages to France, until the restitution of Cape Breton, and of all other British conquests made during the war. No mention was made of the searching British vessels, the original cause of the war; nor was any thing determined upon relative to their respective possessions in North America.

In 1756, war was renewed, and soon after spread with terrible devastation over every part of the globe. The possession of Nova Scotia, a cold and barren country, was deemed necessary to defend the English colonists in the north. The French had long been settled in the back parts of the country, when fresh colonies from Britain established themselves on the coast; they therefore determined to dispossess the new comers, and spirited up the Indians to begin hostilities. All endeavours to procure an amicable settlement between the principals failed of success: mutual accusations and recriminations served but to increase their animosity. In 1756, four operations were undertaken by the British in America at one time; Colonel

Monckton was successful in driving the French from their encroachments in Nova Scotia; and General Johnson, though he failed in the expedition against Crown Point, defeated the enemy, who attacked his camp; but General Shirley's expedition against Fort du Quesne entirely failed, and General Braddock fell into an ambuscade. Braddock's rashness and presumption occasioned this disaster, from which his personal bravery could not extricate him: his army was defeated, and himself killed.

DEFINITION.

Congress.—An assembly of commissioners, envoys, deputies, &c. from several courts, meeting to concert measures for their common good,



DEATH OF ADMIRAL BYNG.

FRESH successes at sea compensated, in some measure, for the misfortunes of our land forces in America. The French navy was so much reduced, as to be unable to recover its vigour during the remainder of the war. Britain was indeed threatened with an invasion, but it was never put in execution. A French army landed in Minorca, and invested the citadel of St. Philip, which, though reckoned one of the strongest in Europe, was unprovided with the means of sustaining a vigorous siege. Admiral Byng was dispatched with a squadron of eighteen ships of war, with orders to relieve Minorca, and at any rate to throw a body of troops into the garrison. Thinking this too hazardous an undertaking, he did not even attempt it. A French fleet, nearly of equal force with his own, soon afterwards appearèd, and a slight engagement ensued with part of the English fleet; after which, the French slowly sailed away, and no other opportunity offerèd of bringing them to a fresh engagement. For this conduct Admiral Byng was brought home under an arrest, tried, and sentenced to death, for not having done his utmost to defeat the enemy. This harsh sen-

tence was put in execution on board *Le Monarque*, on the 14th of March. He suffered with the greatest resolution and intrepidity, after delivering a paper, filled with protestations of his innocence as to any treacherous intention.



VICTORIES IN INDIA.

AFTER the conquest of Minorca, the French declared that they would revenge all injuries which they might sustain in their colonies, on the King of Britain's dominions in Hanover. The Court of London, alarmed at this threat, entered into an alliance with Russia; and engaged a body of Russians in their service, to assist in the defence of Hanover, should it be attacked by the French. This treaty was opposed by the King of Prussia, with whom a new one was formed; and this celebrated warrior, whose only ally was Great Britain, was at this time opposed by the most potent States of Europe. For a time his affairs wore so unpromising an aspect, that the British Ministry began to entertain some thoughts of abandoning him to his fate. From this, however, they were diverted by his Prussian Majesty's spirited remonstrances, whose exploits astonished and claimed the admiration of all Europe. The British arms were still unsuccessful on the Continent. The Duke of Cumberland, who commanded 3,800 men, was obliged, by superior French force, to retreat from place to place; till at length he was driven into a situation whence he could neither retire nor advance, and was, with his whole army, obliged to capitulate at Closter Severn.

It was in Asia that success once more began to dawn upon us. On the coasts of Hindostan, the English, French, and several other Powers of Europe, had built forts with the original consent of the Mogul, who claimed the sovereignty of the whole empire. The native Governors and Nabobs, who were originally of his appointment, rendered themselves inde-

pendent. These Princes therefore, in their contests with each other, instead of having recourse to the Mogul for redress, applied to the European Powers for assistance. The war between England and France, in these remote regions, began by each Power taking a part with two contending Nabobs; and, by degrees, from auxiliaries they became principals in the dispute. For some time the success of either party seemed doubtful, till at length the courage and conduct of Mr. Clive gave the English the ascendancy. This gentleman first entered the Company's service as a clerk, but very soon evinced the superiority of his talents for war. By his vigilance and activity, the Nabob of Arcot was restored to his government; soon after which, the French, sensible of their inferiority, concluded a convention, by which it was agreed that, for the future, neither party should interfere in the differences between the native Princes. In the short space of a few months, however, hostilities were renewed; the Viceroy of Bengal declared against the English, and laid siege to Calcutta, which, being unprovided with means of resistance, was taken by assault, and the garrison, to the number of one hundred and forty-six persons, were crammed into a narrow prison, called the *Black Hole*, only eighteen feet square. The want of fresh air, the heat of the climate, which was made intolerable by the exhalations arising from the numbers confined in so small a space, soon rendered the little air that did circulate pestilential and fatal. Cries, groans, and shrieks, for some time announced the anguish and despair of the sufferers: and to this succeeded the horrid silence of desolation. In the space of a few hours twenty-three persons only were found alive; and, of these, many died of putrid fevers soon after their release.

In December 1756, Mr. Clive and Admiral Watson retook Calcutta, possessed themselves of the principal parts on the banks of the Ganges, and shortly after took Hoogly, a city of great trade. The Viceroy of Bengal, incensed at these losses,

assembled a numerous army, with the fixed determination of expelling the English from the Peninsula; but he was defeated, and soon after deposed and put to death, by Ali Cawn, his prime-minister. This Prince being indebted to the English for his success, liberally granted all their demands, satisfied their avarice, and took every opportunity to demonstrate his pride in their alliance.

Colonel Clive, assisted by Admirals Watson and Pococke, continued to gain victory after victory; and, in one campaign, the English became possessed of an immense tract of country, superior in wealth, fertility, extent, and number of inhabitants, to many of the kingdoms of Europe. Above two millions sterling were paid to the Company and sufferers at Calcutta; the soldiers and seamen shared £600,000; and the English forces became so formidable, that there was no probability of further resistance from the native Powers.

These successes against the French settlements in India alarmed the French Ministry, who immediately sent out a considerable reinforcement, under the command of General Lally, an Irishman by birth, but bred up in the French service. Under him the French arms for a time revived; and he even prepared to lay siege to Madras, the principal settlement of the East-India Company on the Coromandel coast; but in this enterprize he entirely failed: which so dispirited his army, that from that time the French interest declined both by land and sea. Colonel Coote, a man of great prudence and bravery, took from the French Wandewash, Carangoly, Arcot, and Pondicherry. This last city was the capital of the French Indian power, and the strongest, largest, and most beautiful of their settlements; and, in the days of its prosperity, it exceeded all other European colonies, in trade, opulence, and splendour. By this conquest the whole trade of Hindostan, from the Indus to the Ganges, acknowledged the power of Britain; and the native Princes feared to oppose a force, the strength of which

they had been taught to feel. In reviewing our Indian conquests, the heart of the historian will glow with ardour, whilst recording the brilliant achievements of his countrymen; but the philanthropist must weep at the recollection of those crimes which have swelled the wreath of British fame;—he fancies he discerns the angry rod of retribution arising, and trembles for the event.



QUEBEC TAKEN.—DEATH OF GENERAL WOLFE.

THE want of success against the French in America, and the imbecility of the plans hitherto pursued, roused the indignation of the people; and addresses to the King, praying for a change of ministry, were presented from all parts of the kingdom. A coalition was therefore formed, and some of the opposition members admitted into the administration; of whom the principal were Mr. Pitt and Mr. Legge. The former was appointed Secretary of State; the latter Chancellor of the Exchequer: but in a few months the old ministry regained their influence with the King; in consequence of which Mr. Pitt was obliged to resign the seals, and Mr. Legge was dismissed. But their disgrace was of short duration; they possessed the confidence of the nation; and, in compliance with the general solicitations, they were restored. The most vigorous measures were pursued by the new ministry; and the success which attended their plans was the best comment on the wisdom of their designs. Cape Breton, an island of great importance to our trade, was taken by Lord Amherst, and Fort du Quesne surrendered to General Forbes. In the succeeding campaign, Ticonderago and Crown Point, which had hitherto held out against the most determined attacks of our troops, were deserted by the French, and fell into the hands of the English, without resistance. The fort of Niagara, a place of great importance, as it commanded all the commu-

nications between the Northern and French Settlements, was taken by General Johnson. Nothing was now wanting to put the English in possession of all North America, but the taking of Quebec: a handsome, flourishing, and populous city.

General Wolfe, a young and gallant officer, whose merit alone had advanced him thus high in his profession, was appointed to command the land forces destined to act against Quebec. The naval part of the expedition was commanded by Admiral Saunders.

So many and so great were the obstacles to be overcome, that but faint hopes of success were entertained. The city of Quebec was well fortified, secured with a numerous garrison, and plentifully supplied with provision and ammunition. General Wolfe having succeeded in taking Point Levi, erected a mortar battery, which in a little time considerably damaged the upper town, and reduced the lower town to a heap of rubbish. On the 12th of September, at one in the morning, the English resolved to attempt ascending the Heights of Abraham, in which they happily succeeded. Montcalm, the French general, perceiving that the English now commanded the weakest part of the town, resolved to hazard a battle. General Wolfe early in the action received a wound in the wrist; but he wrapped his handkerchief round it, to stop the effusion of blood, and advanced with unconcern. A second shot proved fatal: it entered his breast, and he fell on the shoulder of a soldier who was near him. When in the agonies of death, hearing some one exclaim, "*They run!*" he anxiously inquired who ran? Being informed it was the French, he faintly exclaimed, "Then I die happy!" and expired.

The death of General Wolfe was a national loss: he was universally lamented. Brave, generous, gentle, and complacent, he was an example to the officers, and the darling of the soldier. In consequence of this victory, Quebec surrendered.

Place after place was taken: and in a short time, not only Canada, but all North America, fell under the power of Britain.

After the capitulation of Closter Seven, between the Duke of Cumberland and the Duke of Richelieu, both sides began to complain of infractions. The French oppressed the Hanoverians, whom they accused of insurrection: they resolved therefore once more to take up arms. Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick placed himself at their head: and the British Ministry, hoping to put an end to the Continental war by vigorous measures, sent over several detachments of troops to second his efforts. Victory succeeded victory; but empty fame was all the English acquired.

In the midst of these successes, the King unexpectedly expired. He had risen at his usual hour, and walked in the gardens of Kensington Palace, where he then resided; and on his return, being left alone, he was shortly after heard to fall. On his attendants entering the room, an attempt was made to bleed him, but without effect: he expired in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and the thirty-third of his reign.

His Majesty had married Caroline, daughter of the Marquis of Brandenburgh Anspach. His eldest son, Frederic, Prince of Wales, died of a pleurisy in 1751, greatly regretted by the people, whose affections he had won by his urbanity and amiable disposition. A misunderstanding had long subsisted between him and his royal father, whose animosity was kept alive by those whose interest it was to keep the Prince from Court.

PLATE XXXVII.

GEORGE THE THIRD.

Fig. 1.—ENGLAND VICTORIOUS BY LAND AND SEA.

Expressed by the letter E, formed of naval and military symbols, entwined with laurels.

Fig. 2.—AFFAIRS CONCERNING MR. WILKES.*Fig. 3.*—PRIMITIVE STATE OF THE COLONIES IN AMERICA.

The letter A, signifying America, within the letter E, formed of oak, shews the protection afforded to the Colonies.

Fig. 4.—CAUSES OF THE WAR WITH AMERICA.

The American symbol, withdrawn from the protection of the Parent State, is formed of warlike weapons. The taxes; the original causes of the war, have pointed the swords against the standard of England.

Fig. 5.—WAR WITH AMERICA.

Thirteen colonies having become united under one head, they are represented by a standard with thirteen stars. The French and Spanish standards, on either side, shew the support which those countries afforded to America.

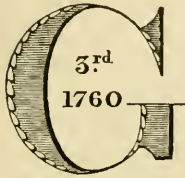
Fig. 6.—THE FRENCH DEFEATED IN INDIA, AND THE SPANIARDS AT GIBRALTAR.*Fig. 7.*—RESULT OF THE AMERICAN WAR.

Represented by the band which united England with America being separated by the sword.

Fig. 8.—ENGLAND AT PEACE WITH ALL THE WORLD.

In the centre is the British Lion, holding out the olive to Europe, Asia, Africa, and America.

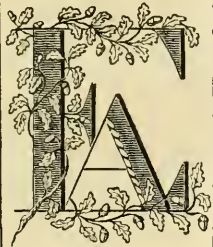
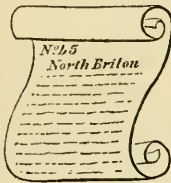
Fig. 9.—ABOLITION OF THE SLAVE TRADE.



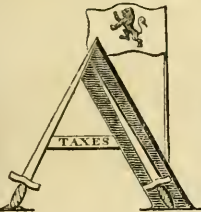
1760



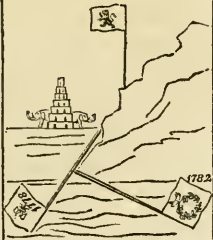
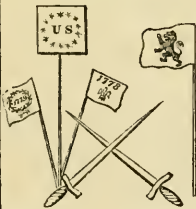
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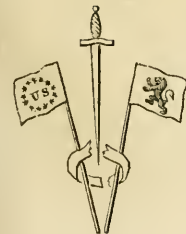
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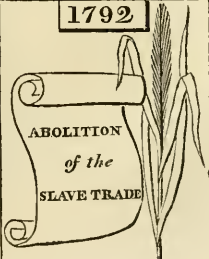
1783



1783



1792





GEORGE THE THIRD.

GEORGE THE THIRD, the eldest son of Frederick Prince of Wales, succeeded his grandfather George the Second, in 1760. In person he was rather above the middle size; of an open, manly, and benevolent countenance; he was remarkably temperate, just, charitable, chaste and pious; beloved enthusiastically by those around him, and setting a pattern to his people of every virtue that could adorn humanity.* He possessed in an eminent degree that noble presence of mind, which is the result of innate rectitude. Steady in his friendship, tender and affectionate in his family, kind and condescending to the meanest of his subjects, he was at once the liberal benefactor, the friend and the father of his people.

The prejudices of party may have called in question the propriety of some of his political measures: but it would be difficult even for the most perfect ruler, completely to satisfy the discordant views of opposing interest. The enemies which George III. may have had were entirely political: he could have no personal ones; for, whatever may have been his failings, they were those of the head alone; whilst his virtues, emanating from the heart, entitled him to the praise of good men, and were calculated to elevate their possessor from an earthly to a heavenly throne.

From the year 1810, a dispensation of the most awful and afflicting nature, compelled this excellent monarch to withdraw from his public avocations. Too great abstemiousness, and too much devotedness to the discharge of the important duties

* The elegant author of *Lacon*, speaking of the influence which the conduct of a sovereign has upon his subjects, thus characterizes George III. He was a gentlemanly prince in public, and a princely gentleman in private; he set an example of liberality in sentiment, of integrity in principle, and of purity in life, which may have been imitated by some of his subjects, but which has been surpassed by none.

which he had to perform, together with the exquisite anguish he is represented to have felt, for the loss of a beloved and most amiable daughter, are conjectured to have been the leading causes of a calamity, deeply felt and sincerely deplored by the whole nation. The respect which attended his virtues, and the delicate nature of his situation, infused into the hearts of his people a veneration almost sacred, and it is perhaps in a considerable degree owing to this feeling, that, amidst the dreadful shock of nations, by which Europe was nearly desolated, England alone was enabled to maintain her integrity.



ENGLAND VICTORIOUS BY LAND AND SEA.

AT the commencement of the present reign, the efforts of Britain in every quarter of the globe were truly astonishing. The extensive peninsula of India was controlled by an English force; another army, of 20,000 men, secured our possessions in North America; 30,000 British soldiers in Germany added fresh lustre to her fame; whilst the achievements of the navy surpassed every thing that had hitherto preceded. Neither superior force, number, nor even the terrors of a tempest, could appal the hearts of our seamen: for amidst storms and darkness, and in the neighbourhood of a rocky shore, Admiral Hawke gained a complete victory over an equal number of French ships in Quiberon Bay. At length victory itself began to tire; and the people, fatigued with conquest, once more desired to taste the blessings of peace. In 1761, proposals of peace were offered; but the want of sincerity in the French Court prevented its conclusion. Mr. Pitt, the then Prime Minister, a man of quick penetration and sound judgment, convinced of the sinister designs of Spain, proposed to declare war against that kingdom; but his proposals being rejected, he resigned his employment of Secretary of State. The title of Earl of Chatham, together with a pension of £3,000 a year

for three lives, was given him, as a testimony of respect for the eminent services his country had derived from the wisdom and vigour of his administration.

It was, however, soon discovered that Mr. Pitt was in the right, and war was declared between Britain and Spain. The Spaniards endeavoured to draw Portugal into the design against Britain; but in vain: she remained faithful to her ally. The Spaniards, in consequence, invaded Portugal with a numerous army, in three different quarters; and the Portuguese, being unprovided with means of defence, saw their towns fall, one after the other, into the hands of the enemy. At length, however, the Spaniards met with such a repulse from Brigadier-general Burgoyne and Colonel Lee, that they were entirely driven out of Portugal.

In America, the British arms were no less successful; the islands of Martinico, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Grenada, were taken from the French; and the strong fortress of Havannah, in the island of Cuba, was wrested from the Spaniards. The acquisition of this place united in itself all the advantages that can be acquired in war; many of their ships were taken and destroyed, and the plunder, in money and merchandize, did not fall short of £3,000,000 sterling, a sum equal to the produce of a national subsidy. In the East Indies, the Philippine Islands were reduced; and a rich Manilla galleon, valued at half a million, was taken by two English frigates. At this time the glory of Britain was thought to have been in its zenith. The French and Spaniards, alarmed at her conquests, now became anxious for peace; and at length a definitive treaty was signed at Paris, by the Duke of Bedford, as plenipotentiary for Britain, and by the Duke of Praslin and the Marquis of Grimaldi, on the part of France and Spain. By this treaty the French gave up all Canada, the neutral islands, and the fort of Senegal; but were allowed the privilege of fishing on the coast of Newfoundland, and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, at a certain dis-

tance from the shore. Spain also gave up the extensive country of Florida.

Thus ended a war, in which England added much to her glory, but little to her real strength.

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AFFAIRS CONCERNING MR. WILKES.

THE spirit of discord did not cease with the war. A long and expensive contest had drained the national treasure, and greatly increased the public debt. A tax upon cider excited a general cry of dissatisfaction; and virulent libels, far exceeding in audacity any thing known in former times, daily issued from the press. About this time the Earl of Bute, who had been preceptor to the King, unexpectedly resigned his situation of First Lord of the Treasury, and was succeeded by Lord Grenville, a man of approved integrity, understanding, and experience; but as the Earl was supposed, notwithstanding his resignation, still to influence the cabinet, he continued no less obnoxious to the Opposition than when in power. Mr. John Wilkes, member for Aylesbury, and editor of a periodical paper called "The North Briton," having asserted, in his forty-fifth number, that the King's speech contained a falsehood, a general warrant was issued for his apprehension, and he was committed to the Tower: from whence, in a few days, he was brought to Westminster Hall, by habeas corpus, and released by Lord Chief-Justice Pratt, as being a member of Parliament. An information was then filed against him in the Court of King's Bench, for being the author of No. XLV of "The North Briton:" and the Parliament condemned the obnoxious paper to be burned by the common hangman. Various tumults took place in consequence; the half-burnt paper was rescued from the flames by the mob, whose displeasure was kept alive by the machinations of the Opposition. In consequence of these outrages, Mr. Wilkes was expelled the House of Com-

mons: after which he retired to the Continent. One advantage, however, resulted from this contention: general warrants were pronounced to be illegal, and the seizure of papers in consequence of such warrants is no longer practised. In 1768, though he had incurred a sentence of outlawry, Mr. Wilkes returned to England just before the general election, and offered himself to represent the city of London. Failing in this, he declared himself a candidate for Middlesex. The tumults and riots which now took place were innumerable; the military were called in, and many persons were killed and wounded in different frays. Mr. Wilkes had not yet taken his seat in the House, when he published a letter that fell into his hands, from Lord Weymouth to the Chairman of the Surrey Quarter Sessions. This he affected to consider as the immediate cause of the casualties in St. George's Fields. He was once more expelled the House of Commons, and again returned by the Middlesex electors. The House nevertheless refused him his seat. A new writ was issued, and Mr. Luttrell, his opponent, declared to be duly elected in his stead. Mr. Wilkes was some time afterwards made Alderman of the city of London, and having again incurred the displeasure of the House, was ordered to attend the bar; which he refused, alleging, that he was a member of Parliament, and would obey no orders that were not given him in that capacity. The Commons, at a loss what means to pursue, ordered him to attend on the 8th of April, and adjourned the House to the 9th. This weak and impolitic conduct betrayed the fears of the Ministry, and was a prelude to their downfall.

DEFINITION.

General Warrants are warrants to apprehend all persons suspected of crimes, without particularly describing or naming any person specially.

PRIMITIVE STATE OF THE COLONIES IN AMERICA.

SINCE the time that America was first discovered, various colonies from England had settled on the western coast of the Northern continent, and, during their infancy, had been supported and protected by the parent state. At the close of the war of 1763, the colonies were in a most flourishing condition, and in arts, arms, and commerce, were little inferior to the most civilized kingdoms of Europe. Sensible of their growing strength, they began to entertain very high notions of their value and importance to Britain; they indeed acknowledged her supremacy, but, jealous of her authority, they determined to limit it, whenever any favourable opportunity should offer.

The French, the ever-active enemies of Britain, viewed with envy and apprehension the flourishing state of her colonies, and secretly encouraged those jealousies which they perceived rankling in the hearts of the Americans. Their short-sighted policy saw not the distant danger arising to themselves. In America, the French imbibed those republican sentiments, which, at a future period, overturned their government, and levelled to the ground one of the most ancient and despotic monarchies in Europe.

DEFINITION.

Colonies.—A colony is a company of persons transplanted into a remote country or province, in order to cultivate and inhabit it.

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CAUSES OF THE WAR WITH AMERICA.

It being judged expedient, by the Ministry at home, that the Americans should contribute their quota towards defraying the expenses of Government, a bill was passed, imposing heavy duties on goods imported into the colonies from such islands as did not belong to Great Britain, which duties were to be paid into the Exchequer in specie. This excited great discontent

amongst the colonists; but the passing of the Stamp Act enraged them beyond all forbearance. They denied the right of Great Britain to tax them at all, without their own consent; and the celebrated Dr. Franklin was sent over to England, to remonstrate with the Ministry upon the impolicy and injustice of their proceedings. After a long debate, the Stamp Act was repealed, under the administration of the Marquis of Rockingham. Upon Lord North's coming into power, the plan of taxing the colonies was revived, and a bill passed, for imposing a duty on tea, paper, painters' colours, and glass. This excited a greater ferment than even the Stamp Act had done: and the people of Massachusetts Bay, having discovered that a scheme of coercion was in agitation against them, were fired with indignation; and when the cargoes of tea, &c. arrived, and were about to be landed in Boston harbour, the mob arose, boarded the ships, and threw their cargoes into the sea. It was proposed that the town of Boston should be compelled to make compensation for the tea destroyed by the populace. This was opposed at home, by a petition from the Lord Mayor of London, in the name of the natives and inhabitants of North America at that time resident in London; and the petition concluded with this emphatic observation, "that American loyalty could not survive the justice of Britain." The Americans ceased not to remonstrate, whilst any hope remained that their remonstrances might be attended to: and, at the same time, they were not backward in making preparations to resist any attempt to reduce them by force. The principal members of the Legislative Assembly issued proposals for a general Congress to meet at Philadelphia. Hitherto the discontented party had confined themselves to the publication of resolutions, and the assertion of their claims on the justice of Great Britain; but the arrival of troops from Ireland and other places, and the report that a regiment had been posted at Boston-neck, in

order to compel the inhabitants into submission, determined them to oppose force to force.

The first blood shed in this unhappy quarrel was at Lexington, where an engagement took place, in which sixty-five of the King's troops were killed, and above two hundred wounded and taken prisoners. Whilst these transactions were going on in America, Lord Chatham, who from severe illness had long been unable to attend the House, appeared in his place, to reprobate the measures against America, and to propose a plan for conciliation before it should be too late. But the Ministry were determined not to relax; and a second effort of his Lordship was equally unsuccessful, though supported by all that strength of argument, justness of comprehension, and powerful eloquence, for which he was so justly celebrated.*



WAR WITH AMERICA.

WAR being now inevitable between the mother country and her colonies, both parties made vigorous preparations to obtain their ends. The one determined not only to chastise, but to subdue her rebellious children; the other, to justify their disobedience, by the accomplishment of their designs.

Early in the spring of 1775, a small body of the Americans

* This venerable and able statesman, Lord Chatham, closed his valuable life in the active discharge of his duty. Whilst in the act of replying to a motion, made by the Duke of Richmond, for withdrawing our troops from America, he was seized with a fainting fit, which, in a few days, terminated fatally. His loss was severely felt by all ranks of men. He loved his country with all the ardour of a noble mind, and served it with fidelity. In him we behold, what is so rarely to be met with in the political world, incorruptible integrity, united to the most brilliant talents!—in a word, a Patriot Minister.

surprized and took, without bloodshed, Tieonderago, Crown Point, and some other fortresses, which commanded the passes between the British colonies and Canada. In May, General Gage, the British Governor, received considerable reinforcements, commanded by Generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton; upon which the Congress resolved, that no bills or drafts should be negotiated with the officers of the British army, nor any necessaries disposed of to them. In the hope of counteracting this harsh resolution, General Gage offered the King's pardon to all who would lay down their arms, excepting Messrs. Hancock and Adams, who were considered as ringleaders of a rebellion. This being construed by the colonists as a declaration of war, they immediately elected Hancock President of the Congress; and, shortly after, an engagement took place on Bunker's Hill, in which the King's troops, though they succeeded in their object, namely, the destruction of some forts erected by the Americans, lost above 1,000 men, of whom more than two hundred were officers.

In July, the Congress drew up another declaration; in which they observed, that their internal resources were great; and that, if necessary, *foreign assistance* was undoubtedly attainable. This observation was unheeded at the time, but subsequent events proved that it was not an unfounded assertion.

The Congress appointed George Washington General and Commander-in-chief of all the American forces. This gentleman was not only inviolably attached to the cause of the colonists, but possessed considerable military skill, and an unblemished character. The colonists, determined no longer to act upon the defensive, formed the bold design of reducing Canada; but in this they were unsuccessful, and lost one of their Generals. In Virginia, several skirmishes took place; and the town of Norfolk was reduced to ashes, by the fleet under the command of Lord Dunmore. An Act of Confederation and perpetual Union was passed by the associated colonies, for

their common defence, for the security of their liberty and property, and their mutual and general safety and welfare. The campaign of 1776 was little favourable to the colonists, yet their spirit was unsubdued. At a time when the British army was double that of the Americans, and at a moment the most pregnant with danger, the Congress published their famous Declaration of Independence. New York was, from its advantageous situation, of the utmost importance to the contending Powers. Admiral Lord Howe, and his brother, were appointed to conduct the expedition against this place: their army amounted to 30,000 men; the Americans did not exceed 18,000. Proclamations were issued by the English Commanders, intimating that they were empowered to grant pardon to all those who, though they had deviated from their allegiance, were willing to return to their duty. To this the Americans replied, that those who had committed no fault required no pardon. General Washington, sensible he could not maintain his post against such numerous forces, made a most masterly retreat, and New York fell into the hands of the British.

Emboldened by this success, they determined to follow up their late victories, and Lord Cornwallis was sent to attack Fort Lee, the garrison of which precipitately retired, leaving their artillery and stores. Lord Cornwallis pursued General Washington across the Delaware River, took Rhode Island, blocked up a squadron under the command of Commodore Hopkins, and took General Lee prisoner at Broken-bridge. The situation of the colonists now seemed desperate, but their courage was invincible. General Washington was reinforced, crossed the Delaware, attacked the British by surprise, nine hundred of whom, after a sanguinary engagement, were taken prisoners; and shortly after he defeated three British regiments at Prince Town.

In the campaign of 1777, the Americans received a supply of ammunition from France; and the Marquis de la Fayette,

a volunteer in the American cause, distinguished himself in the action of Chad's Fort. The British were successful in almost every engagement; but the great purpose of the war was still frustrated by the spirited resistance of the Americans, and by the system of protraction which General Washington had adopted. In Canada, the army under General Burgoyne met with various success. It was deemed an object of considerable importance to form a line of communication between New York and Canada. On his approach to Albany, General Burgoyne sent a detachment of six hundred men to seize a magazine of stores and provisions: but they were nearly all cut off by the New-Hampshire militia. This success inspired the Americans with confidence, and depressed the King's troops: who were shortly after surrounded, and the whole army obliged to capitulate. The troops were allowed to march off with the honours of war, leaving their arms and artillery; and a free passage was granted them to England, on condition of not serving again in North America. The hostile disposition of the Courts of France and Spain now became so apparent, that it was resolved to declare war against both these powers. The French fleet, consisting of twelve ships of the line and four frigates, under the command of the Count D'Estaing, appeared on the coast of America in the beginning of the summer of 1778; but, though much superior to the English force, he did not venture to attack them. D'Estaing made an unsuccessful attack upon Rhode Island; soon after which, Sir Henry Clinton sent a detachment to Bedford, which destroyed seventy sail of shipping, together with magazines and stores to a great amount. This, and some other losses of a similar kind, and particularly the taking of Savannah, the capital of Georgia, greatly depressed the Americans. Their hopes and expectations had been raised very high on the arrival of the French fleet, but nothing had been performed to fulfil those expectations.

In 1779, the English lost Stony Point, on North River; and

the garrison of Powles Hook, near New York, was taken by surprise. In Georgia the British were eminently successful; they also took the island of St. Lucia; but, towards the end of the year, the French made themselves masters of the islands of St. Vincent, Grenada, and Dominica.



THE FRENCH DEFEATED IN INDIA, AND THE SPANIARDS AT GIBRALTAR.

THE first engagement that took place between the English and French fleets, during this war, occurred on the 27th of July 1778, off Brest. The French fleet consisted of thirty-two sail of the line: the British of thirty. The battle lasted for three hours; the French were defeated with considerable loss; and, had it not been for a misunderstanding between the English Admirals, the result would have been still more glorious to the British arms. In the East Indies, Pondicherry, which had been restored to the French in 1763, was again taken from them, by the united efforts of Major-general Munro, commander of the East-India Company's forces, and Sir Edward Vernon, who commanded the English fleet. At the commencement of the year 1780, Sir George Rodney was sent with a fleet to relieve Gibraltar, at that time besieged by the Spaniards. In his voyage he fell in with twenty-two sail of Spanish merchantmen, protected by seven ships of war, and in three hours made himself master of the whole. A few days after, he engaged another fleet, consisting of eleven ships, of which he took six; two of these were driven on shore, one of which was lost, but the other was recovered; one ship blew up, four only escaped, and those were very much shattered. In April he again engaged a French fleet near the Leeward Islands; but the battle was undecided, and both parties claimed the victory.

The fortress of Gibraltar had remained in possession of the English, from the period of its first conquest by Admiral Rooke

to the present time. The Spaniards had made two unsuccessful attempts to re-take it, previous to the grand siege, which began in July 1779, and lasted three years. On the 13th of September 1782, a grand attack was made by the Spaniards with floating batteries. The battle began about ten in the morning. The fire was heavy on both sides; but the red-hot shot from the garrison was directed with such precision, that early in the afternoon the Spanish Admiral's ship was on fire, and, by one in the morning, the whole was a scene of confusion, horror, and despair! The sea itself appeared to be on fire, and numbers of men were seen amidst the flames, some on pieces of wood, and some in the burning ships, imploring assistance. The English, at the hazard of their lives, made every exertion to relieve them, and by their intrepidity succeeded in saving thirteen Spanish officers, and three hundred and forty-four men!

From this time the Spaniards seem to have relinquished all hope of again possessing this important fortress.



RESULT OF THE AMERICAN WAR.

THE year 1780 was rendered remarkable by several striking incidents. Charlestown, the capital of South Carolina, was taken by Sir Henry Clinton; after which he proceeded to York Town, leaving 4,000 men for the southern service, under the command of Lord Cornwallis. The Americans, when repeatedly defeated, were not subdued, although in the north every thing seemed to conspire their ruin. General Arnold, who had so often fought and bled in the cause of American independence, stipulated, for a certain sum, to betray into the hands of the British an important fortress, the keeping of which he had solicited. Major André, an English officer of great spirit and bravery, was appointed to negotiate the business; but, being surprised by some of the American scouts, he was taken,

his papers seized, and the treachery of Arnold discovered. The General was lucky enough to escape, but the unfortunate André was hanged by the Americans as a spy.

The last campaign of this memorable but fatal war seemed to begin auspiciously for the mother country; but it was only an illusive gleam of success. A very great part of the American army in the Pennsylvanian line revolted, marched out of their camp, posted themselves advantageously, and elected officers from among themselves. Sir Henry Clinton, hearing of this, hoped to induce them to return to their allegiance; but they rejected all his offers with disdain, delivering up the messengers, who were sent to treat with them, to Congress, by whom they were tried, condemned, and executed. Soon afterwards, a detachment under General Tarleton was defeated by the Americans, with the loss of three hundred killed or wounded, and five hundred prisoners. Lord Cornwallis, anxious to form a junction with Lord Leslie, marched through North Carolina with great speed, and set up the King's standard at Hillsborough. The American General Greene, having levied a body of troops in Virginia, resolved to attack his Lordship. A sharp encounter took place at Guildford, where the King's troops with some difficulty gained the victory. Greene, however, received a severer check from Lord Rawdon, at Cambden. Towards the end of August, Sir Samuel Hood and Admiral Graves arrived in the Chesapeake bay, where they met the French Admiral De Grasse, with twenty-four ships of the line. The British squadron consisted of nineteen ships only. An engagement ensued, but victory was undecided. The British then retired to New York. The combined armies of France and America, amounting together to 20,000 men, now resolved to attack Lord Cornwallis, who was then in York Town, Virginia, which he had fortified as well as he was able: the French fleet, at the same time, taking such a position, as to prevent his

Lordship from escaping by water. The French troops were commanded by the Count de Rochambeau, but General Washington was commander-in-chief. In six days after the operations began, the English fortifications were so much damaged, that they could hardly shew a gun; all hopes of escape, as well as of successful resistance, had vanished; and, on the 19th of October 1781, Lord Cornwallis surrendered himself, and his whole army, prisoners to the combined armies of France and America. The number of men who surrendered prisoners of war exceeded 7,000; but the sick were so numerous, that not above half that number were able to bear arms. Thus ended the war in North America, by which the United Colonies were for ever separated from the mother country.

The joy of the Americans on this occasion was extreme; the independence they had so hardly contended for seemed now assured; and, in proportion as their hopes became elevated, those of the English were depressed.

Hostilities however still continued with France and Spain; and in this year also, 1781, war was declared against the Dutch, from whom we took the island of St. Eustatius; it was, however, retaken by the French before the close of the year. The Dutch and English fleets had a severe action off the Doggerbank; and, after four hours' hard fighting, the Dutch bore away for the Texel, and the English were too much disabled to follow them. At the commencement of the year the French had made an attempt to take the island of Jersey; but they were defeated by Major Pierson, who fell in the moment of victory. They then made themselves masters of several of the West-India islands, though their fleet, under the Count de Grasse, sustained a defeat from Sir Samuel Hood; shortly afterwards, they were again defeated by Admiral Rodney. This memorable battle lasted from seven in the morning till half-past six in the evening. On their return home, the gallant Admi-

rals, Rodney and Hood, received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament, and were advanced to the Peerage.

In America, the Spaniards reduced all our settlements on the Mississippi, entirely conquered the province of West Florida, and took the city of Pensacola. In Europe they successfully attacked Minorca, which surrendered after a siege of one hundred and seventy-one days.

In India, General Coote defeated Hyder Ally in two or three engagements. Negapatam and Trincomalee were taken from the Dutch. The English were, however, worsted in their turn, by Tippoo Saib, who cut off a detachment of the enemy's troops, under Colonel Brathwaite. Shortly after, peace was concluded with the Mahrattas; and the death of Hyder Ally, which happened this year, relieved the English from one of the most intrepid and inveterate enemies they had ever encountered in India.



ENGLAND AT PEACE WITH ALL THE WORLD.

TOWARDS the conclusion of the American war, the administration of Lord North met with great opposition. The leading members of that party were, Mr. Edmund Burke, a gentleman of great talents and eloquence; Mr. Fox; and Mr. William Pitt, second son of the late Earl Chatham, whose virtues and abilities seemed to revive in his son.

The misfortunes in Virginia had made a deep impression throughout the kingdom, and a change of ministry was anxiously and earnestly desired. About the middle of March 1782, an entire change in the administration took place, and the principal members of the Opposition were chosen to fill their places. The Marquis of Rockingham was appointed First Lord of the Treasury; but his death, which happened shortly after, occasioned another change, and, after some fluctuation of

parties, the Duke of Portland was made First Lord of the Treasury; Lord North and Mr. Fox, Principal Secretaries of State; Lord George Cavendish, Chancellor of the Exchequer; Lord Keppel, First Lord of the Admiralty; Lord Stormont, President of the Council; and the Earl of Carlisle, Keeper of the Privy Seal.

Peace was the great object that first engaged the attention of the new Ministry. No hope of conquering the Americans now remained; and though the navy had been victorious, the expenses exceeded the fruits of conquest. The national debt was increased to an immense amount, trade languished, and taxes accumulated. In fact, all parties seemed weary of unprofitable conquests; and peace was, at length, concluded with all the contending Powers, on the following terms:

All conquests on either side, not mentioned nor alluded to in this present treaty, were to be restored without difficulty, and without compensation. In the treaty with France, Great Britain was to renounce every claim with respect to Dunkirk; to relinquish all connection with St. Lucia, in the West Indies, and Goree, in Africa. The towns and factories taken from the French in the East Indies, together with Pondicherry, Karical, and other dependencies, were to be restored. The English were to be put in possession of the islands of Grenada and the Grenadines, St. Christopher, Nevis, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Montserrat; and France was to restore all the towns and districts which she had taken from the English in that quarter of the globe; and all the prisoners on each side were to be reciprocally surrendered without ransom, each country paying the expenses contracted for their maintenance. Between Great Britain and Spain it was agreed, that his Catholic Majesty should retain the island of Minorca, and the province of West Florida in North America. East Florida was to be ceded to his Britannic Majesty; to whom also was granted the privilege

of cutting logwood in a certain district. Providence and the Bahama Islands were also to be restored to Great Britain, in the condition they were when conquered.

In the treaty with America, his Majesty acknowledged the independence of the United States; and relinquished, for himself, his heirs, and his successors, all claim to the government of them, to their property, and territorial rights. The people of the United States were also allowed to fish on the coast of Newfoundland, and in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Hostilities by sea and land were immediately to cease, and a firm and perpetual peace to be cemented between them.

With the Dutch it was stipulated, that a sincere and steady friendship should be established between Great Britain and the United Provinces. Hostilities were to cease on both sides; all the prisoners and hostages on either side were to be restored without ransom, each power defraying the expence incurred for their subsistence. The King of Great Britain was to receive an equivalent for Negapatam in the East Indies; and to restore to the Dutch Trincomalee, with all other forts, &c. which had been conquered or taken in any part of the world, during the war. The Dutch bound themselves not to molest the navigation of the subjects of Great Britain in the Eastern seas; and certain differences, which existed between the English African Company and the Dutch East-India Company, were to be determined hereafter by Commissioners named on each side. These Articles were ratified by the different Powers, in January 1803, and Britain was once more at peace with all the world.

DEFINITION.

First Lord of the Treasury.—One of the several persons appointed by the King to take charge of and govern the Royal revenue, which is kept in the Exchequer.





The Naval and Military Columns are intended to commemorate the names of some of the most distinguished heroes in the late war.

The principal Domestic Occurrences that engaged the attention of the people, from this time to the commencement of a new war in 1793, were the following :

1. Mr. Fox's Bill relative to the Affairs of the East-India Company.
2. A Change of Ministers.
3. The Restoration of the Scottish Estates forfeited in the Rebellion of 1745.
4. The Establishment of the Sinking Fund.
5. A Commercial Treaty with France.
6. Attempt of Margaret Nicholson to assassinate the King.
7. Debts of the Prince of Wales.
8. Commencement of his Majesty's Illness.
9. Abolition of the Slave Trade.
10. Compensation for the American Loyalists.
11. Trial of Warren Hastings, Esq.

1. In 1783, a Bill was brought into Parliament by Mr. Fox, to withdraw the management of Indian affairs from the East-India Company, and to vest it in the hands of seven Commissioners. This was warmly opposed by Mr. W. Pitt, with his accustomed powerful and commanding eloquence, and his sentiments were cordially adopted by the nation. It was allowed that India wanted a reform, but not a tyrannical one. The Bill, nevertheless, passed the Lower House, but was finally rejected by the House of Peers.

2. The wishes of the nation were now gratified with respect to the peace; but the *Coalition*, as the present Administration was called, was composed of men of such opposite principles, that a more consistent Ministry was earnestly desired. A change was therefore determined upon: Mr. Pitt was made first Lord of the Treasury, and Chancellor of the Exchequer; Lord Thurlow was appointed to the Chancellorship; Lord Howe, First Lord of the Admiralty; and the Duke of Richmond

Master of the Ordnance. Mr. Pitt now introduced a Bill for the better regulation of the Government in India; this was warmly contested by the adherents of the late Administration, but being divested of the exceptionable parts of Mr. Fox's Bill, it was acceded to by the Company, and finally passed. By this law, a high tribunal was established for the trial of Indian delinquents, which was authorized to judge without appeal; and, in case of conviction, to award fines, imprisonments, or dismissal from the Company's service.

3. In 1785, the Sinking Fund was established by Mr. Pitt, for gradually liquidating the Public Debt, &c.

4. Mr. Dundas, President of the Board of Control, procured a law for the restitution of the estates forfeited in Scotland in consequence of the Rebellion of 1745.

5. In 1780, a Commercial Treaty was entered into between England and France; by which it was agreed, that there should be perfect liberty of navigation and commerce between the subjects of the two kings, in all their European dominions, in order to encourage the produce and manufactures of both countries, by a discontinuance of prohibitory duties, and by putting an end to illicit trade.

6. On the 2d of August 1786, an attempt was made on the King's life, by a woman named Margaret Nicholson. As his Majesty was alighting from his carriage, she presented a petition; but whilst the Monarch was employed in reading it, she struck at him with a knife which she had concealed under her cloak. Providentially she missed her aim, and was immediately taken into custody. Upon examination she was found to be insane, and was therefore sent to a place of safety and security.

7. In 1787, the Prince of Wales, finding his pecuniary affairs greatly embarrassed, resolved to appropriate four-fifths of his income for the purpose of liquidating his debts, and in the mean time to live like a private gentleman. The people, how-

ever, did not like to see the Heir Apparent in such circumstances. An application was made to Parliament for relief; and the sum of £161,000 was voted for the payment of his debts, besides £20,000 for the repairs of Carlton House.

8. In the year 1788, the whole nation was thrown into the deepest affliction, on account of a peculiarly distressing illness with which the Sovereign was afflicted. No case exactly parallel with this had ever before occurred in our history; the proceedings of Parliament, therefore, were unusually solemn and affecting. The Opposition were for investing the Heir Apparent with the sovereign power, which the Ministry resolutely opposed. This dispute was carried on with considerable warmth on both sides; but was happily interrupted, at the beginning of the following year, by the grateful intelligence of his Majesty's recovery. The joy of the nation at this happy event was unbounded, and the people vied with each other in demonstrating their loyalty and affection. A general and solemn Thanksgiving was appointed; when the whole Royal Family, accompanied by both Houses of Parliament, went in procession to St. Paul's Cathedral, to return thanks to Heaven for the restoration of a Monarch so beloved; and, in the evening, not only the metropolis, but every town and village in the kingdom was illuminated. Never was joy more unfeigned, or so generally expressed.

9. *Abolition of the Slave Trade.* (See Plate 37, Fig. 9.) Ever since the year 1562, the English, notwithstanding their love of personal freedom, had been in the habit of purchasing African Negroes, to labour in their plantations in the West-Indies. For this purpose, ships were fitted out to convey them from their native country to the estates of their imperious masters. The native Princes of Africa sold the prisoners they made in war; but, as that was an uncertain supply, artifice and cruelty were employed, to seduce the unfortunate Negroes to their ruin. As civilization advanced, the feelings of humanity, and the sense

of justice, rose superior to interest. The first public attempt to ameliorate the sufferings of the Negroes, was made by the Quakers in America; and, in 1787, the same sect presented a similar petition to the Parliament of this kingdom. The cause became extremely popular, and was taken up with great zeal and earnestness by various descriptions of people. Mr. Pitt, Mr. Fox, Mr. Burke, Mr. Wilberforce, &c. enforced the necessity of abrogating a law, so hostile to humanity, with all the eloquence and strength of argument which the importance of the subject demanded. The West-India planters, however, made a formidable opposition: and, though the condition of the slaves was much ameliorated, by some regulations enacted in their favour, their cause languished till the year 1792, when humanity triumphed, and a law was passed for the gradual abolition of slavery.

10. In 1795, Mr. Pitt brought in a Bill to make compensation to the American Loyalists for the losses sustained by them during the American war. This motion was unanimously agreed to, and the sum of £1,342,191 was granted for that purpose.

11. On the 14th of April 1786, Mr. Burke brought forward articles of impeachment against Warren Hastings, Esq. late Governor-general of Bengal, for crimes alleged to have been committed by him in that country.

It is a circumstance not a little new in the history of nations, that a Company of Merchants should have contrived to subjugate one of the fairest portions of the habitable world, containing a population many times greater than that of their native country. But, it cannot be denied, that to obtain that empire justice has too often been sacrificed to interest; and that, from a strange perversion of principles, actions, which would have been thought of with detestation at home, were committed in Hindostan without remorse, under the plea of necessity.

The charges against Mr. Hastings went to prove, that he had been guilty of cruelty, treachery, and extortion. If the conduct of Mr. Hastings is to be estimated by the actual services rendered to his employers, by the magnitude of his designs, and the ultimate success of his plans for the aggrandizement of his country, he must be ranked with the most celebrated conquerors. If he is to be judged by the great laws of humanity and justice, he must be condemned. But with whom, then, does the original guilt rest?

After a trial of seven years, Mr. Hastings was acquitted; but, at the same time, the immense expense which he incurred, and the uneasiness which he suffered, from the high degree of odium excited against him in the minds of many persons, must undoubtedly have been equivalent to a very severe punishment. The East-India Company, as a testimony of esteem and gratitude for his eminent services, settled on him a pension of £5,000 per annum.

PLATE XXXVIII.

Fig. 1.—WAR WITH FRANCE.

England, Germany, Prussia, Holland, and Sardinia, uniting their arms against France.

Fig. 2.—MUTINY IN THE FLEET.

Represented by a ship of war, bearing the standard of Insurrection, hoisted at her mizen-mast, to shew that the defection was not general. At the head is the figure of Justice, holding in one hand the scales in equilibrio, and the sword in the other.

Fig. 3.—RESOURCES OF ENGLAND AGAINST INVASION.

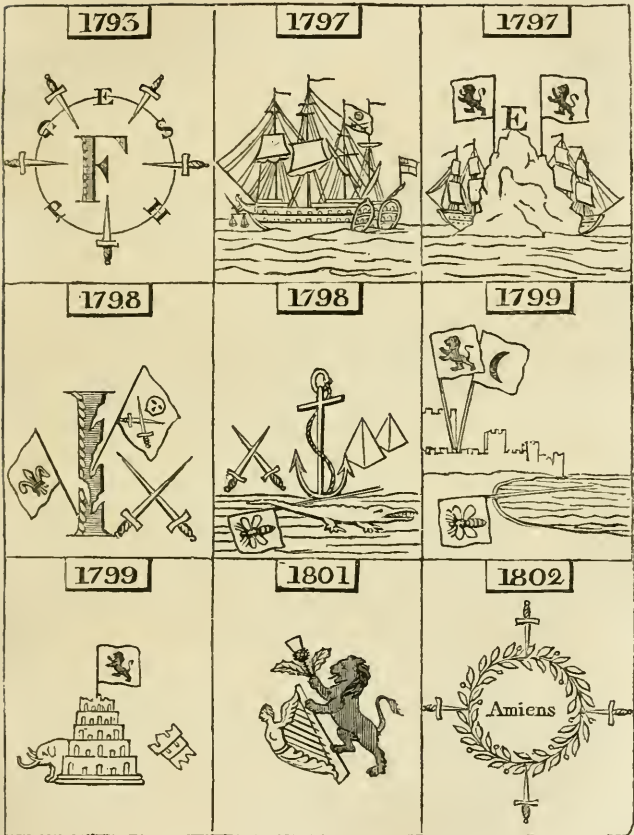
The stability of the kingdom of England is represented by the initial E resting on a rock. The standards and ships that guard the rock, denote the determination of the people to protect the Monarchy from the attack of enemies.

Fig. 4.—REBELLION IN IRELAND.

On one side is the standard of Rebellion; and on the other the standard of Invasion.

Fig. 5.—WAR IN INDIA. FALL OF SERINGAPATAM.*Fig. 6.*—UNION OF IRELAND WITH ENGLAND.*Fig. 7.*—PEACE OF AMIENS.

The transient nature of the treaty of Amiens is shewn by the swords, which are piercing the olive.



WAR WITH FRANCE.

IN the year 1790 began the great Revolution in France: a revolution which has been followed by events so extraordinary, as will convey to posterity the idea rather of romance than of a sober relation of facts. Lewis XVI., the then reigning Monarch, was one of the best and most amiable Sovereigns that had ever reigned in that country. It was his misfortune to ascend the throne at a time when the nation was on the very verge of bankruptcy. A set of men, calling themselves Philosophers, had secretly excited among the people a spirit of disaffection. Various other causes contributed to increase the popular displeasure, till at length it broke out into actual rebellion. The populace were in arms; the military refused to act against them; ecclesiastical property and tithes were seized by the National Assembly; monastic institutions were abolished; the whole order of nobility was overthrown; and the power of the crown reduced almost to nothing. Most of the French nobility, instead of rallying round the King, forsook him and fled. Lewis himself endeavoured to quit the kingdom; but was discovered, brought back, and reluctantly placed at the head of a Government which he could not approve.

These proceedings roused the attention of all Europe. The dissemination of republican principles excited alarm in every Court, and induced the Monarchs of Europe to enter into a confederation against France. Leopold II. Emperor of Germany, and the Kings of Prussia and Sardinia, were the first to take up arms against that kingdom. Their ostensible motive was to restore the despotic power of Lewis; but, it may be questioned, whether an inordinate ambition, and the hope of aggrandizing their dominions by conquest over a disunited people, were not the real incentives to the war. A proclamation, issued by the Duke of Brunswick, threatening vengeance on the French people if any injury were done to their King, so exasperated them, that, unwilling to trust the defence of the

kingdom to a Prince whose friends were enemies of the State, they dethroned him on the 10th of August. They then proclaimed a republican constitution. The capital streamed with blood, for all who were suspected of loyalty were butchered without mercy. The Austrians entered France in July 1791, but were soon obliged to retreat. The French commenced active operations, and, under General Dumourier, defeated the Austrians at the celebrated battle of Jemappe; soon after which they subdued almost all the Netherlands. On the 21st of January 1793, Lewis XVI. was publicly beheaded, after a mock trial, in which every principle of equity, justice, and humanity, was violated. The beautiful but imprudent Marie Antoinette underwent a like fate, in October following. It may naturally be inferred, that these transactions in France were not viewed with indifference in Britain. The first efforts of the French to shake off the yoke of despotism, and to establish a free government, met with considerable applause; but when cruelty, rapine, and democratic fury, threatened destruction to religion, morals, and lawful government, every true lover of liberty and his country rallied round the throne, expressing his detestation of the French regicides, and his determination to unite heart and hand for the defence of his King and the British Constitution.

Immediately after the death of Lewis XVI. Chauvelin, the French Ambassador at the British Court, was ordered to withdraw from the kingdom in eight days. In consequence of this dismissal, the French Government unanimously passed a decree, declaring the Republic at war with the King of Great Britain and the Republic of Holland. A message from the King was sent to both Houses of Parliament, informing them of this event, and of his determination to oppose the progress of a system, which struck at the security and peace of every independent nation. The Opposition declaimed in very warm terms against the war, affirming it to be both unjust in its prin-

principles and unnecessary. Mr. Fox, in the House of Commons, proposed a set of resolutions to this effect; but they were rejected by a majority of two hundred and seventy against forty-four.

Though the bulk of the British nation were warmly and zealously attached to the present Sovereign and the Government, there were, nevertheless, some discontented spirits: men of daring minds, of heated imagination, and generally of lax principles, who were desirous of levelling all distinctions of rank and wealth. These men, alike enemies to lawful government and to mankind, affected to consider the Revolution of France as “a stupendous monument of human wisdom;” and presented to the bar of the National Convention a panegyric on the *public virtue* of its members! To check, therefore, this seditious spirit, an Act was passed, declaring it to be high treason to have any communication with the existing Government of France.

Vigorous preparations were made for carrying on the war; and a large body of troops, commanded by his Royal Highness the Duke of York, defeated the French army, under General Dumourier, on the plains of Neerwinden.⁵

Alternate success and defeat for some time attended the hostile armies; at length Dumourier formed a plan to re-establish the constitutional monarchy in France, but finding himself disappointed in his opinion of the loyalty of his army, he was compelled to make his escape, and was succeeded in his command by General Dampierre. Valenciennes and Mentz submitted; and the strong fort of Lincelles, which had been previously lost by the Dutch, was retaken by the Duke of York. The allies then made an unsuccessful attack upon Dunkirk, the garrison of which being strongly reinforced, the besiegers were compelled to retire with such precipitation, as to abandon a complete train of artillery.

The campaign of 1794 was highly favourable to the French.

Symptoms of disunion appeared among the Confederates : the Duke of Brunswick resigned his command, and the King of Prussia announced his intention of seceding from the confederacy. Town after town was taken by the French, the people making little or no resistance. A fatal delusion blinded them to their true interest ; deceived by false assurances of liberty and freedom, they surrendered almost without a blow, and only, when too late, found that they had yielded themselves slaves to despotism. The Prussians, Spaniards, and Sardinians, unable to maintain the field, were repeatedly worsted ; and the whole of the United Provinces of Holland were this year added to the dominions of France. The Stadtholder and his family retired to England.

Victory, however, still attended the arms of Britain on the ocean, and at no time has British valour and conduct been more conspicuous. Martinique, St. Lucia, and some other islands in the West Indies, were taken by Sir Charles Grey and Sir John Jervis. Corsica, which had for some time been in a state of revolt against the French, united itself to the British Crown. But the most important action in which the navy was concerned, occurred on the 1st of June 1794, when the French fleet was defeated, off Brest, by Lord Howe.

The following year Lord Bridport, with an inferior force, defeated a French fleet near Port L'Orient. The French, however, notwithstanding the vigilance of our navy, captured thirty sail of a valuable convoy returning from the Mediterranean, and part of the Jamaica fleet.



MUTINY IN THE FLEET.

THE debates in Parliament at this time were unusually warm and interesting. A motion for a Parliamentary Reform was made by Mr. Grey, and opposed by Mr. Pitt, on the ground that the present was not a time when changes could be made

with safety. The horrors that had occurred in France were, he thought, sufficient to deter every reflecting mind from rash proceedings, in a matter of such high importance. The motion was therefore lost.

In France, a revolutionary tribunal had been established, and its records consist of a series of wanton cruelties and detestable outrages. That the measure of their iniquities might be complete, impiety and blasphemy were made a part of their legislation. Religion was publicly abolished; the churches were shut up, as useless, or applied to profane purposes; Sunday was no longer to be considered as a sacred day; the worship of God was forbidden, and, in its stead, a woman of infamous character, denominated the Goddess of Reason, was enthroned in the Cathedral Church of Notre Dame. At this time Robespierre, a man of low birth and manners, was at the head of the French Government, if such it might be called: and, during his power, the prisons, as well as the guillotine, were drenched in blood. Notwithstanding, the opera, the plays, and other amusements of Paris, went on the same; the people were dead to every thing but present gratification.

In England, the French incendiaries, aided by some of the disaffected of our own people, were earnestly endeavouring to raise similar commotions: and their conduct at length became so alarming, that several persons were apprehended as ring-leaders of unconstitutional societies, and committed to prison. Various acts of outrage took place at this time: the King was not only grossly insulted by the mob, but an attempt was made upon his Majesty's life, by firing into the Royal carriage as he was going to open the sessions of Parliament.

Thomas Hardy, John Thelwall, and John Horne Tooke, were indicted for high-treason, but acquitted, though a general opinion was entertained of the seditious tendency of their proceedings.

In the campaign of 1796, the fortune of the Allies revived,

The Austrian armies were commanded by the Archduke Charles, brother to the Emperor; a young man of great military skill and bravery. He defeated General Jourdan near Munich; obliged Moreau to retreat to Fribourg; laid siege to the fortress of Kehl, which surrendered; and in the course of a few weeks he compelled the French to fall back beyond the Rhine.

The French were more successful in Italy. The plan of the campaign was formed by Carnot, who had been formerly Minister of War; and was executed by Napoleon Buonaparte, a young Corsican, whose progress was attended with unparalleled success, and who speedily obtained the highest military rank in the French service. He defeated the Austrians, and compelled the King of Sardinia to sue for a peace, by which his Sardinian Majesty renounced all title to Savoy, Nice, and the adjacent country, which was immediately annexed to the French Republic, under the name of the Maritime Alps.

The Dukes of Parma and Modena obtained peace on condition of paying ten millions of livres. The Austrians sustained a severe defeat at Lodi, the bridge of which was thought to be impregnable, even by most of the French generals themselves; but the usual good fortune of Buonaparte prevailed; he succeeded beyond his expectations; after which he compelled the King of Naples to withdraw from the allies; and obliged the Pope to give up all his possessions in France, to pay the sum of one million of francs, and to deliver one hundred pictures, statues, &c. to be conveyed to the French National Museum.

Treaties were now signed with Genoa, Naples, Parma, and the states of Bologna and Reggio. Modena and Ferrara were united, by the title of the Cispadine Republic. The crown of Spain also made an alliance offensive and defensive with France; the consequence of which was a declaration of war by the Spanish Court against Great Britain.

An attempt was this year made to negotiate a peace, on the principle of restitution: but the French were intoxicated with

success; and having conceived the gigantic project of subjugating all Europe, they refused to give up any of their conquests, and ordered Lord Malmesbury, the British ambassador, to leave Paris within forty-eight hours. An opinion was now very generally entertained, that the French would at length put in execution their long-threatened invasion of Britain: the greatest activity, therefore, prevailed in every part of the kingdom, to provide for its defence. The gentlemen and yeomanry in various counties formed themselves into bodies of volunteer cavalry and infantry. A temporary suspension of payment in specie at the Bank for a time threw a gloom over the nation; but the people were roused from this by a most brilliant victory obtained over the Spanish fleet by Sir John Jervis, off Cape St. Vincent. The Spanish fleet consisted of twenty-seven sail of the line,—the British of only fifteen. The engagement lasted five hours; wherein the enemy lost four ships; two of one hundred and twelve guns, one of eighty-four, and one of seventy-four; and for this the admiral was deservedly raised to the peerage, by the title of Lord St. Vincent.

The attention of Parliament, however, was soon directed to a less pleasing object. A dangerous mutiny broke out on board the Channel fleet; but the fair claims of the sailors being admitted, their grievances were redressed, and the disturbance quelled. A more serious insurrection soon afterwards began among the crews of the ships lying at the Nore, which for some time wore an alarming appearance; but the sailors returning to their duty, the ringleaders of this rebellion were tried and executed; and the seamen soon after effaced the remembrance of their defection, in the memorable fight off Camperdown, under the brave Admiral Duncan, where the Dutch, under De Winter, were defeated with the loss of nine ships of the line and two frigates. The gallant admiral was created a Viscount; universal rejoicings were made in every part of the kingdom; and a day of public thanksgiving was appointed to be held

December the 19th, when the Royal Family, and the Houses of Lords and Commons, went to St. Paul's in grand procession, preceded by the flags and colours taken from the French, Spaniards, and Dutch, which were deposited in that cathedral as trophies.



RESOURCES OF ENGLAND AGAINST INVASION.

NOTWITHSTANDING the great losses which the Austrians had lately sustained in Italy, their armies were speedily recruited, and were at first successful; but on the 14th of January 1797 they were again defeated by Buonaparte, with considerable loss, at Rivoli. The Pope in the mean while had made great preparations to resist Buonaparte: but he was compelled to sue for peace, which was granted on the following terms. He was to withdraw from the alliance against France; to renounce all right to Avignon and the Venaissin; to pay thirty-two millions of livres, as the price of peace, within two months; to give up immediately all the pictures, statues, and manuscripts, formerly stipulated for; and to suffer no ships hostile to France to enter any of his ports. The Austrians again took the field in the north of Italy, having a considerable force under the command of the Archduke Charles. He was however obliged to retreat before Buonaparte and Massena, and the whole province of Istria was added to the republican conquests. The enemy continued to advance till they were within a hundred miles of Vienna, when Buonaparte, with affected moderation, proposed peace to the Archduke, which was at length agreed to; and a definitive treaty was signed at Campo Formio, on the 17th of October 1797.

Buonaparte now returned to Paris, and published a declaration to the armies; in which he said, that though so much had already been done by them, one effort more must be made, to crush the power of England,—as the republic of France

could never be considered safe while the Government of England subsisted. An army was therefore formed, called the "Army of England," the command of which was given to Buonaparte; and the most sanguine expectations of success were entertained by the French, who deemed themselves irresistible. The grand alliance against France was no more: Prussia, Germany, Spain, Holland, the lesser German States, and the Italian, had, either from fear or force, withdrawn themselves; and England was left to encounter, single-handed, the united powers of the French Republic, flushed with conquest, and led on by a General whose genius and good fortune had struck the world with astonishment. But Britain was not to be intimidated by danger, nor deceived by the Machiavelian politics of the French rulers. Great in her resources, guided by consummate skill, and governed by a monarch whose virtues were a shield of defence to his people, England shrunk not from the unequal contest;—and to her energies, wisdom, and strength, Europe was finally indebted for the blessings of peace.



REBELLION IN IRELAND.

IRELAND has at all times been in a state of uneasiness and inquietude. Religious differences have given birth to different parties, whose interest appeared to be as much in opposition as their faith. James I., sensible that a disunited and separate government must naturally be more weakened by division, was anxious to consolidate its energies under one supreme and deciding power; but the politics of his subjects at that time were not so liberal, and his schemes failed. Cromwell, during his usurpation, attempted it, but was equally unsuccessful. The succeeding monarchs were either too much distracted by domestic quarrels in Britain, or so deeply engaged with foreign conquests, that the state of Ireland met with little

consideration. It was governed by a Viceroy, under the title of Lord-Lieutenant: the Vice-regal Court was splendid and imposing, but the generality of the people were in a state of poverty and wretchedness. Two-thirds of the population of Ireland were of the Catholic persuasion, and, on that account, disqualified from all military employments, and all incorporations. The Protestants were divided into Presbyterians and Episcopalians. Several of the Presbyterians, who were rather inclined to republican principles, animated to enthusiasm by the glowing representation of the French Revolution, conceived it practicable to cast off the dominion of Great Britain, and to erect Ireland into an independent republic.

In the year 1793 a society was formed, by the name of "United Irishmen," who invited the French to assist them in emancipating themselves from the trammels of the English Government. In consequence, General Hoche, with a fleet of eighteen sail of the line, thirteen frigates, and twelve sloops, with transports, and 2,500 men, sailed from Brest in December 1796, but were dispersed by a storm. The spirit of disaffection in the mean time increased, and the bitterness of parties caused dreadful outrages. Early in the spring of 1798 martial law was proclaimed. Various engagements took place between the rebels and the King's troops, in which the former were generally defeated; but so sanguinary were the contests, that, in the few months the rebellion lasted, upwards of 30,000 rebels lost their lives, and above 5,000 of the King's troops. Marquis Cornwallis, who in 1798 was appointed Lord-Lieutenant, induced many of the misguided people to return to their allegiance. Many of the principal conspirators were tried and executed. Lord Fitzgerald received a mortal wound, whilst resisting the officers sent to apprehend him. The people were just congratulating themselves on the suppression of rebellion, when they were thrown into alarm by the landing of a body of French troops, under General Humbert, at Killala

Bay. These were however defeated, by Lord Cornwallis, at Castlebar. Soon afterwards, a French ship, called *La Hoche*, was taken, after a gallant defence; and in her, Theobald Wolfe Tone, one of the principal conspirators, and founder of the society of *United Irishmen*, who, to avoid the disgraceful sentence of the law, terminated his life in prison by suicide.

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WAR IN INDIA.—FALL OF SERINGAPATAM.

Tippoo Saib, the son and successor of Hyder Ally, was a no less formidable opponent and inveterate enemy of the English than his father had been; he was confessedly attached to the French, at whose instigation, it was supposed, he had occasioned some disturbances in the English settlements. A war began between Tippoo Saib and the Rajah of Travancore; and the Rajah being in alliance with the British, the English Company were bound to assist him. A general war was therefore the consequence: which was conducted, on the part of the English, by Lord Cornwallis, with much expedition and success. Tippoo, fearing for his capital, sued for peace; which was granted, on condition of surrendering one-half of his dominions; his two sons being given as hostages for the due performance of the treaty. This was in 1792. It was generally expected that, sooner or later, Tippoo would make an attempt to recover what he had lost. The rapid success of the French armies in Egypt suggested to him the advantage of their co-operation; and with this view he sent envoys to the Isle of France, to form a connection with them. The British Governor, in the mean time, aware of the hostile preparations of Tippoo, and suspicious of his intentions, demanded an explanation of his viziers; which not proving satisfactory, a British army, under General Harris, invaded the Mysore territory, and on the 6th of April encamped before Seringapatam, which was taken by them on the 4th of May 1799.

Tippoo himself perished, fighting gallantly at one of the gates of his fort. His dominions were seized by the British, who bestowed a part of them on the Mahrattas and the Nizam their ally. A part was reserved under the direct sovereignty of the East-India Company; and the remainder were nominally bestowed upon a prince of that family, which had lost its power by Hyder's usurpation.

DEFINITION.

East-India Company.—A company of merchants trading to the East-Indies, who are masters of a territory far exceeding that of the British empire, both in extent and population; and from which they derive a great revenue.



UNION OF IRELAND WITH ENGLAND.

THE rebellion in Ireland, though short, had been sanguinary; and many persons began seriously to desire a Union with England, as such a measure appeared to be the only one which would insure the safety and tranquillity of the Protestant inhabitants: and the dread that, by the assistance of the French, Ireland might be dismembered from the British empire, as the American colonies had been, induced Mr. Pitt to use his utmost influence to accomplish so desirable an object. The measure, however, met with considerable opposition in both countries: but at length the Minister triumphed, and the Act of Union took place on the 16th of January 1801. By this Union the Commons of Ireland are represented by a hundred Members in the imperial Parliament; the spiritual and temporal Peerage of that country, by four Bishops and twenty-eight lay Lords, who are elected by the Bishops and Peers of Ireland, and hold their seats for life. The former laws and courts of justice in Ireland are still retained, as also the Court of Chancery; and the King of Great Britain is still represented by a Lord-Lieutenant. No part of the debt contracted by Great

Britain prior to the Union is to be paid by Ireland, which only contributes to the expences of the Empire in the proportion of one to seven and a half.



PEACE OF AMIENS.

THE prospect of affairs at the commencement of the year 1798 was such as to require extraordinary supplies to meet them: and a Bill for *tripling* the Assessed Taxes was passed, though it encountered much opposition. A voluntary subscription was then opened: and in a short time above a million and a half sterling was raised for the defence of the nation. The greatest danger which at this time threatened Britain was in Ireland, which country was in a state of actual rebellion. On the Continent the Pope was forced to quit Rome; his country was revolutionized; and a provisional government imposed, consisting of six members, who pillaged the city in the most wanton manner, whilst the people looked on with stupid indifference. The Swiss Cantons, and Geneva, were also subdued, and incorporated with the French dominions. The invasion with which Britain had been threatened was still unattempted. Buonaparte, however, set sail from Toulon on the 20th of May, with fifteen sail of the line, besides frigates, commanded by Admiral Brueys; and accompanied by more than two hundred transports, with troops on board. He proceeded along the Mediterranean, and took the island of Malta; and having been joined by 40,000 more veteran troops, he continued his voyage, and arrived on the coast of Egypt, July the 1st, 1798. Alexandria was taken by assault on the 8th; and from thence Buonaparte proceeded to Rosetta, which he garrisoned; and having defeated the Mamaluke army with immense slaughter, at the battle of the Pyramids, he entered Grand Cairo in triumph. It was his intention to penetrate into India, and, by uniting his forces with those of Tippoo

Saib, to fall upon the British possessions in the East. But this plan was happily defeated by Admiral Nelson; who having ascertained the enemy's intention, immediately pursued him. On the 1st of August the English fleet discovered the French fleet, consisting of one ship of one hundred and twenty guns, three of eighty, and nine of seventy-four, at anchor in the Bay of Aboukir. The action began at sun-set, and continued at intervals till day-break. Admiral Brueys was killed early in the action, and his ship, *L'Orient*, blew up. Nine sail of the line were taken by Admiral Nelson; and only two ships of the line and two frigates escaped. When the news of this important victory arrived in England, it was received with the enthusiasm it deserved; and the glorious title of "Baron Nelson of the Nile" was bestowed on the gallant commander.

The French Government was greatly disappointed at a result so fatal to their ambitious projects: and Buonaparte affected to conceal his vexation by undervaluing an exploit that blasted his presumptuous hopes. The Grand Signior, too, highly offended at his invading Egypt, thought proper to declare war against France, at the same time that he sent costly presents to the victorious Nelson.

Buonaparte next invaded the Holy Land, and, proceeding through Syria, laid siege to Acre. Sir Sidney Smith, a gallant English officer who had been left with a small flotilla to guard the coast, advised the Governor to make a vigorous resistance. Assisted by some English seamen, Sir Sidney Smith undertook the defence of the fort; and though his whole force did not exceed 2,000 men, yet he baffled all the attempts of Buonaparte to take it by assault. The twelfth and last attempt to gain it, was made by Buonaparte over the putrid bodies of his soldiers; but he was again repulsed, and ultimately obliged to retreat, after losing eight generals, eighty-five officers, and above half of his army. On the 11th of July, however, he defeated the Turks at Aboukir; and a few days

after the intelligence of that victory was received by the French Directory, he himself appeared at Paris, where he was received with the greatest marks of distinction: of which he made such good use, that in 1799 he was created First Consul. A republican name was all that France had now left of liberty; for from henceforward that country was governed with the most absolute despotism.

Buonaparte now became desirous of peace, and for this purpose made overtures to Great Britain and her allies; but the French Government not being yet considered sufficiently organized to render it probable that a peace would be binding, it was unanimously rejected. It must be observed, that the peace of Campo Formio was made with the Emperor as King of Hungary and Bohemia,—the pacification of the whole Empire with the Republic being transferred to a Congress at Radstadt: but the time allowed for them to make their arrangements having expired before they came to any conclusion, hostilities had been resumed.

The battle of Marengo in Italy was fatal to the Austrians: they were defeated with so great a loss, than an armistice was demanded and acceded to, on condition that the Emperor should restore Genoa, which had lately been taken, with the assistance of a British squadron. Another defeat at Hohenlinden induced the Emperor to conclude a peace with France: by which were ceded to France, the Belgic provinces, the country of Falkenstein and Frichtel, and all the Austrian territory on the left bank of the Rhine, between Zurzach and Basle.

Paul, Emperor of Russia, about this time commenced a dispute with Great Britain, and also persuaded Denmark and Sweden to enter into a convention against this country. In so critical a situation of affairs, the first Parliament of the United Kingdom assembled on the 22d of January; but the most important event of this period was the resignation of

the Ministry. A new administration was speedily formed, of which Mr. Addington was made First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer; Lord Hawkesbury and Lord Pelham, Secretaries of State; and Earl St. Vincent, First Lord of the Admiralty. The Northern Confederacy was the first subject that engaged the attention of the new Ministry, and they determined upon the most vigorous measures to oppose it. A grand fleet was sent to attack Copenhagen, the capital of the Danish dominions, under the command of Lord Nelson; who, with twelve sail of the line, four frigates, besides sloops, fire-ships, and bomb-vessels, commenced a very spirited attack on the 2d of August. The Danish Prince, to save his capital, agreed to an armistice proposed by Lord Nelson. On the 19th, the fleet appeared off Carlsrone; and the Admiral, Sir Hyde Parker, after some communications with the Governor, was informed, that his Swedish Majesty would not refuse to listen to equitable proposals to regulate the matters in dispute. The sudden death of Paul, Emperor of Russia, tended greatly to promote the return of peace; for his successor, Alexander, immediately renewed the relations of amity with Britain, and reversed the violent decrees of his predecessor.

The conquest of Egypt was an object of great importance, as it was, in fact, one of the safeguards of our Indian possessions. A considerable army was therefore sent, under the command of Sir Ralph Abercrombie, to drive the French from that quarter. The English army disembarked at Aboukir on the 8th of May 1801, amidst the greatest dangers, from the firm opposition of the French, who used every effort to oppose their landing. A general engagement immediately ensued, the result of which was favourable to the British arms, but attended with considerable loss. The French were again defeated on the 21st; but the English had to lament the loss of their gallant commander, who received a mortal wound in the thigh. The

enemy had three generals killed, and lost above 3,500 men, in killed, wounded, and prisoners. The chief command now devolved on General Hutchinson; who, on the 25th, laid siege to Cairo, which surrendered on honourable terms on the 27th. The reduction of Alexandria followed; and the French, who yet exceeded 30,000 men, were obliged to relinquish all their conquests in Egypt, to an enemy they affected to despise. The valour of our army kept pace with that of the navy; and it is now well known, that the possession of Egypt was an object of peculiar interest to Buonaparte.

On the 2d of October, whilst the people of England were dwelling with delight on the brilliant achievements of the army in Egypt, they received the gratifying intelligence that preliminaries of peace between Great Britain and France were actually signed. The negotiations had been going on for some months, between Lord Hawkesbury the Secretary of State, and M. Otto, but had hitherto been kept a profound secret. According to these preliminaries, Great Britain agreed to restore all her conquests, with the exception of the island of Trinidad, and the Dutch possessions in Ceylon. The Cape of Good Hope was to remain a free port to all the contracting parties, who were to enjoy the same advantages. The island of Malta was to be restored to the Order of St. John of Jerusalem. Egypt was to remain under the dominion of the Ottoman Porte. Portugal was to be maintained in its integrity; the French troops were to evacuate the territory of Rome and Naples; and, lastly, plenipotentiaries were to be named by the contracting parties, to repair to Amiens, and form a definitive treaty. Accordingly, on March the 27th, a treaty was signed at Amiens between Great Britain and the French Republic.

In the course of the preceding year, the French had concluded a treaty of peace with Portugal, at Badajos; with Russia, at Paris; and also with the Ottoman Porte, the Em-

peror of Germany, and the King of the Two Sicilies. The Prince of Orange was to receive a compensation for the loss of his property and power.

Thus terminated a war, in which Great Britain, though she added nothing to her dominions by way of indemnity, yet maintained inviolable the integrity of her empire; and, above all, had succeeded in suppressing, if she had not entirely crushed, the spirit of disaffection and disloyalty, which at one time threatened her with destruction.

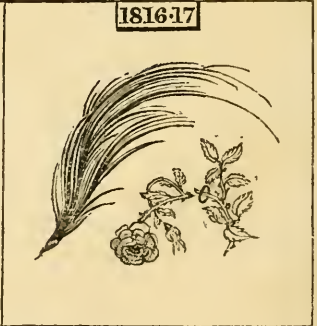
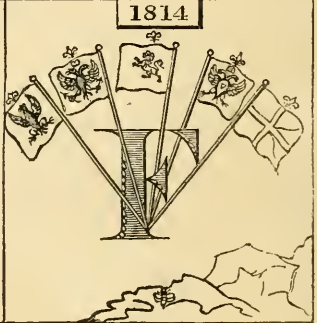
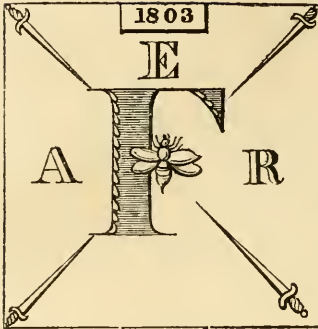


PLATE XXXIX.

Fig. 1.—WAR WITH FRANCE RENEWED.

England, Austria, and Sweden, point their swords against France. The bee, which forms the centre of the letter F, shews it to be under the Buonapartean government.

Fig. 2.

A serpent, indicative of treachery, is destroying the Spanish standard; whilst a bee, the emblem of Buonaparte, has taken possession of it. The clasped hands, directed towards the British standard, represent the Spaniards imploring the assistance of Britain.

Fig. 3.

The Russian Eagle, with fire and sword, grasping the French standard, shews the destruction of the French army in Russia.

Fig. 4.

The standard of the combined armies, over each of which is a fleur-de-lis, shews that the object of their invasion was the restoration of the Bourbon family to the throne of France. The bee, on the rock, denotes the banishment of Buonaparte to Elba.

Fig. 5.

On a shield, quartered, are the standards of England, Russia Prussia, and Austria. The crest is a globe, inscribed Europe; on the top of which is a dove, bearing an olive, intimating that peace is restored to Europe. The shield is emblazoned with the standards of the Bourbons and Buonaparte: the former one elevated, the latter depressed.

Fig. 6.—MARRIAGE AND DEATH OF THE PRINCESS CHARLOTTE OF WALES

The rose and bud, representing the Princess and her infant, separated from the stem just above the ring, shews the short duration of her wedded life. The cypress designates the grief occasioned by her loss.

WAR WITH FRANCE RENEWED.

1803.—WHILST the negociations for the peace of Amiens were proceeding, Buonaparte was made President of the Cisalpine Republic, which, together with the isle of Elba, and the duchy of Parma, he annexed to France; whilst in Germany, by new and arbitrary arrangements, he also obtained a great accession of power. These encroachments of the French, during the peace, provoked a renewal of hostilities.

The Concordat between the See of Rome and the French Republic, restored to France her ancient religion, and was published at Paris. Shortly after a general amnesty, but with considerable exceptions, was granted to the emigrants.

Buonaparte was now declared Consul for life, and no form, but the title, was wanting to render him a monarch. Yet this was insufficient to satisfy his lust for absolute dominion; and, in order to effect this darling object of his ambition, he gave out, that through the influence of Great Britain, plots were continually forming against the Government, and that a condensation of power was requisite to repel them.

George Cadoudal the Chouan Chief, Moreau, Pichegru, and others, were arrested, for plotting to overthrow the Consular Government. The Duke D'Enghien, son of the Duke de Bourbon, was treacherously seized upon the neutral territory of Baden, hurried to Vincennes, and there shot by military commission. Pichegru was murdered in the Temple, George Cadoudal publicly executed, and General Moreau banished.

Captain Wright, who had landed Pichegru and Moreau on the French coast, being taken, was confined in the Temple, and is supposed to have been first tortured and then put to death.

It was not long before Buonaparte prevailed with the degraded Senate of France to proclaim him Emperor of the French: by which title he was immediately acknowledged by all the European Powers, Great Britain and Sweden only excepted.

During these transactions General Le Clerc, at the head of a numerous army, was sent to reduce the island of St. Domingo, which was vigorously, but ineffectually, defended by Toussaint L'Overture, and his colleagues, Christophe and Dessalines. The unfortunate Toussaint was kidnapped to France, and privately put to death; but the death of Le Clerc, and the destruction of the greater part of his army by disease, eventually enabled the Negroes to recover a considerable portion of their island. Dessalines, who succeeded Toussaint as Chief of the Independent Blacks, assisted by a British squadron, compelled General Rochambeau, who had been sent against them, to surrender; and the General, with 8,000 men, three frigates, and several smaller vessels, fell into the hands of the English. The Negroes declared themselves a free and independent people, and invested Dessalines with the supreme authority, under the title of "President of the Republic of Hayti."

The British Cabinet, irritated by the unjust proceedings of the Court of France, and the unheard of violence offered to British property, refused to abandon Malta. The French affected to consider this as an act of aggression; and, after some ineffectual attempts at a reconciliation, war was declared. Immediately upon this, Buonaparte, in open violation of the law of Nations, commanded all the English, whom either business or pleasure had called into France, to be arrested.

Hanover was invaded and plundered by Marshal Mortier; and an immense force was collected on the northern coast of France, for the avowed purpose of destroying the power of Britain. This insult roused the indignation of the people, and nearly the whole male population of England voluntarily rose up in arms, to defend the country from invasion.

1804.—Holland, at this time under the controul of France, was forced into the war against England, and speedily lost Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice. The French lost St. Lucie and Tobago.

In India, Holkar and Scindeah, two powerful Mahratta Chiefs, who were assisted by the Rajah of Berar, were defeated by Sir Arthur Wellesley at the battle of Assye. The cities of Delhi, Agra, and some other important places, were captured; and the Rajah of Berar lost the province of Cuttack, which was added to the dominions of the East-India Company.

Admiral Linois, having escaped from the roads of Pondicherry, attacked a fleet of merchantmen, under the command of Captain Dance, and was repulsed with so much skill and bravery, that he was obliged to sail off, without having made a single prize.

Surinam was taken from the Dutch; but the attempt to destroy the flotilla of gun-boats assembled at Ostend and Boulogne, for the threatened invasion of England, failed.

1805.—Hostilities were begun this year with Spain; and, by the exertions of the British Ministry, a new coalition was formed against France, with the Emperors of Austria and Russia: the indignation of the former having been roused by Buonaparte's seizure of Genoa and Lombardy, and by his assumption of the title of King of Italy.

Admiral Villeneuve, with a French fleet, escaped from Toulon, and joining the Spanish fleet at Cadiz, they proceeded to the West-Indies; but were quickly driven back to the port they had quitted, in consequence of having lost two ships of the line in an engagement with Sir Robert Calder, who commanded a very inferior force.

Shortly after, October the 21st, the naval power of France and Spain was completely annihilated by the battle of Trafalgar, in which the undaunted Nelson gained the greatest naval victory on record: but, unhappily, perished in the moment of triumph. Four only of the prizes were taken at this time, owing to the violence of the wind; but the remainder were destroyed by Lord Collingwood, except four sail of the line, which, in attempting to gain a French port, were met by

Sir Richard Strachan, with an equal number of ships, and taken.

Buonaparte, with his usual promptitude, crossed the Rhine, in the hope of destroying the Austrian army in Germany before the arrival of the Russian forces, and thus efface the disgrace which the late naval defeat had brought upon the arms of France. He suddenly appeared before Ulm, where the Austrian General Mack was posted; who, after a slight shew of resistance, either from treachery or imbecility, surrendered his whole army, amounting to upwards of 20,000 men. The conqueror entered Vienna in triumph, and the discomfited Emperor of Austria retreated to Brunn. Misfortune continued to pursue the Austrian arms; the Archduke Charles was forced, by Massena, to retire from Italy; and the Archduke John was expelled the Tyrol, by General Ney. The Russians were equally unsuccessful in Moravia: the French rapidly advanced into the heart of Austria; and the fatal battle of Austerlitz, fought on the 22d of December, compelled the Austrian Emperor to sue for peace. He was obliged to cede the States of Venice to France; to recognize the new-made Kings of Bavaria and Wurtemberg (who had only very lately been made Kings by Buonaparte); and to resign to the former the Tyrol, and a part of the Brisgau.

1806.—The Mahratta war was brought to a fortunate termination, and Lord Cornwallis was appointed Governor-General of India, instead of Marquess Wellesley, who was recalled.

The Cape of Good Hope was taken from the Dutch by Sir Home Popham and General Beresford. At the beginning of this year, and in June following, they took possession of Buenos Ayres; but were, shortly after, compelled by the natives to resign their conquest.

On the Continent, the Prussians having seized the electorate of Hanover, and expelled the Swedes from Mecklenburgh, the Kings of England and Sweden declared war against them,

At the same time the French, under Joseph Buonaparte and Massena, conquered the kingdom of Naples, which Napoleon bestowed on his brother Joseph. Ferdinand, the lawful Sovereign, withdrew to Calabria. A British force, under Sir John Stuart, routed the French at Maida; but, being soon afterwards obliged to withdraw, the Calabrians were forced to submit.

Shortly after this, Buonaparte erected Holland into a kingdom, which he bestowed on his brother Louis; whose mild administration, whilst it gained him the good-will and affection of his subjects, highly incensed his despotic brother. During these transactions, Napoleon made overtures of peace to England, which were rejected, as it was found that no dependance could be placed upon his most solemn engagements. He next subverted the Germanic Constitution, and placed himself at the head of the Confederation of the Rhine.

The King of Prussia was at length induced to resist the common enemy; but his rashness proved his ruin: he staked his fortune upon the chance of one contest, and was completely defeated at Jena. Blucher was compelled to capitulate at Lubec; Berlin fell into the hands of the French; and there Napoleon issued the famous decree, declaring England to be in a state of blockade; prohibiting every species of commercial intercourse with her; and commanding the confiscation of every article of British manufacture. This was called the "Continental System."

The French next penetrated into Poland, and called upon the Poles to assert their independence.

1807.—Curaçoa was taken from the Dutch at the commencement of this year; Buenos Ayres and Monte Video were also taken from the Spaniards, but soon afterwards retaken; in consequence of which, General Whitelock, the British commander, was dismissed the service for cowardice.

1808.—This year the combined armies of England, Prussia,

and Russia, determined to prosecute the war in Poland, with great vigour; a sanguinary conflict, between the Allies and the French ensued at Eylau, after which both armies withdrew from the field of battle: Dantzick was compelled to surrender to the French, and the peace of Tilsit put an end to hostilities.

By this treaty, Alexander recognized Joseph and Louis Buonaparte, as Kings of Spain and Holland: and agreed to acknowledge James the youngest brother of Napoleon as King of Westphalia. Prussia lost more than one-third of her dominions, and agreed to shut her ports against British vessels. The King of Sweden, however, still refused to treat with Buonaparte, or to acknowledge his imperial dignity.

But the Court of Denmark having submitted to the guidance of French politics, an expedition was sent, under the command of Lords Gambier and Cathcart, to seize the Danish Fleet, that it might not fall into the hands of the French; and upon the refusal of that Court to surrender their ships, Copenhagen was bombarded, and in a few days obliged to yield, and eighteen sail of the line and fifteen frigates were surrendered to the British.

This act of aggression produced a declaration of war against England from the Russian Emperor, and the desire of Alexander to add Finland to his dominions, involved him in a war with Sweden, and shortly after with Denmark.

An army of 10,000 men had been sent, under the command of Sir John Moore, to the assistance of Gustavus King of Sweden: but a misunderstanding arising, the armament returned to England. The Swedes lost nearly the whole province of Finland, and in the course of the following year Gustavus was deposed, and his uncle the Duke of Sudermania succeeded, under the title of Charles XIII. He obtained a peace from Russia.

1809.—Whilst Buonaparte was engaged in the subjugation of

Spain, the Emperor Francis determined to support his independence, and declared war against France. Napoleon immediately commenced active operations: defeated the Austrians at Ecmuhl, and took possession of Vienna: but he was soon after driven from the field of battle near Essling, by the Archduke Charles, who however did not improve the advantage he had gained. In the meanwhile the Papal government in Italy was subverted, and by a decree of the French Emperor, Rome was declared a free and, imperial city, and the title of King of Rome given to the heir apparent of the French Empire.

The Austrians were still unsuccessful; the French crossed the Danube and defeated them at Wagram; when they obtained an armistice, at the expense of important concessions.

In the spring of this year an expedition, under the Earl of Chatham, was sent against Antwerp, in order to create a diversion in favour of Austria. Flushing was taken after an obstinate resistance, but the ultimate object of the expedition failed. A dreadful mortality broke out amongst the troops, owing to the unhealthy climate of Walcheren; they were sent home, and the island was finally evacuated, after destroying the dock-heads and basins of Flushing.

1810.—Buonaparte, in order to establish his power upon a firm basis, divorced the Empress Josephine, and obtained from the Emperor of Austria the hand of his daughter the Archduchess Maria Louisa. About this time, being displeased with the liberal policy of his brother Louis, King of Holland, he obliged him to resign the crown, and annexed Holland to the French Empire.

Lord Minto, Governor-General of Bengal, fitted out an expedition against the Isles of Bourbon and France, which were reduced with little loss, and the following year, 1811, the important city of Batavia, belonging to the Dutch, was also taken.

1812.—Hostilities with America commenced. Canada was instantly invaded, and the Americans compelled to surrender to a very inferior force: but they obtained a decided superiority at sea, which excited a strong sensation at home.

Buonaparte was now nearly at the summit of power: almost the whole of Europe was under his controul, and his dynasty was firmly seated on the throne of France. But this was insufficient, and he was still dissatisfied whilst Britain was unsubdued: his hatred to this country led him into Russia, where he blasted his laurels, and in a few months destroyed that enormous power, which he had so long earnestly laboured to acquire.

(See the chapter of the RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN.)

DEFINITIONS.

Concordat.—An agreement.

Amnesty, in matters of policy, denotes a pardon granted by a prince to his rebellious subjects; usually with some exceptions.

Temple.—A state prison.

Armistice.—A temporary truce or cessation of arms, for a very short space of time.

Confederation of the Rhine.—An appellation given to the union of Princes who renounced the ancient laws of the German Empire.

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SPAIN IMPLORING THE ASSISTANCE OF BRITAIN.

1808.—THE reigning King of Spain, Charles the Fourth, distinguished alone for imbecility, was completely governed by a corrupt minister styled the Prince of Peace, who was become hateful to the Spaniards for his cruelty and oppression: this man, fearing the downfall of his power, sought to maintain it by exciting the fears of the King, against his son the Prince of Asturias; at the same time treacherously placing some of the most important fortresses in the kingdom in the hands of the French. A report was artfully spread, that the King intended

to abandon his country; the people became alarmed, and attacked the palace of Godoy (the Prince of Peace), who made a timely escape. Charles, incapable of acting either with vigour or magnanimity, published a decree, announcing that he abdicated the crown in favour of his son, but at the same time, with the usual duplicity of weakness, he addressed a letter to Napoleon, full of the most abject submission and flattery, declaring his abdication to be forced and null.

In the mean time the new King, Ferdinand the Seventh, confiscated the effects of Godoy, and endeavoured to restore order. Murat, who had previously marched into Spain at the head of a French army, entered Madrid, and was cordially received by the unsuspecting Spaniards. Napoleon advanced to Bayonne, and despatched General Savary as his envoy to Ferdinand, when mutual assurances of friendship were exchanged. Ferdinand was now strongly urged to visit the French Emperor at Burgos; where Buonaparte not meeting him, he was artfully led on to Bayonne; there also, the deposed monarch, his queen, and their younger son, with a number of the Spanish nobility, were arrived.

Ferdinand, when too late, found he had been betrayed; he was compelled to sign his abdication, whilst the Ex-King voluntarily relinquished his right in favour of the Buonapartean dynasty. Nothing could exceed the rage and indignation of the Spaniards when they received intelligence of this infamous transaction; in a short time the populace of Madrid were in arms, and engaged against 10,000 French troops, with Murat at their head; the insurgents were defeated, and the whole city disarmed. An address was published by Napoleon to prepare the people for a change in their government; a new constitution was proposed and accepted; Joseph Buonaparte was transferred from the throne of Naples to that of Spain, whilst the late Royal Family were, for greater security, carried captive into the interior of France.

The bulk of the Spanish nation, however, disdaining the pusillanimity of the Court, determined to resist the fetters imposed upon them. The Supreme Junta of Seville taking the lead, proclaimed Ferdinand the Seventh and war with France! Deputies were sent to London, to implore the assistance of Great Britain, the very nation with whom they were in actual hostility. France was not only at peace with Spain, but in strict alliance with her, when she treacherously trepanned the sovereign and his family, overthrew the Government, and cruelly massacred thousands of the unoffending inhabitants.

England, on the contrary, had long cherished a hostile feeling towards Spain, and a Spanish war was always grateful to her people; at this moment, too, their minds were in a state of increased irritation, against them as being the declared enemies of their country: yet no sooner did the cry of distress reach the ears of the Britons, than their enmity ceased; the imploring Spaniards were received with open arms; their cause was embraced with enthusiasm, and peace with Spain was proclaimed.

The Spanish prisoners were liberated, clothed, and sent to join their countrymen; who were liberally supplied with arms, ammunition and money, to enable them to rescue their country from the general oppressor.

General Castanos headed the Spanish patriots, who, though at first unsuccessful, finally defeated Dupont at the battle of Baylen.

Moncey was driven out of Valencia by General Gero, whilst Don John Palafox acquired immortal glory by his gallant defence of Saragossa. King Joseph, alarmed at these successes, evacuated Madrid, carrying with him all the crown jewels and valuables in the royal palaces.

It was then determined by the Spaniards to concentrate the Juntas of the several Provinces into one supreme Court, which was solemnly installed at Aranjuez, and Count Florida Blanca, was made first president. A new council of war was

appointed, of which Castanos was president; and aware that on the return of Buonaparte from the North of Europe, he would pour his whole force upon their devoted country, it was resolved to draw out the entire strength of the nation to oppose him. Their forces were divided into three bodies. Palafox commanded that destined to act in the east, Blake had the north-western division, and the centre was intrusted to General Castanos. Sir Arthur Wellesley with 10,000 men co-operated with the Spaniards, and defeated the French at Vimeira. The convention of Cintra, entered into by Sir Hugh Dalrymple, which followed that defeat, was formally disapproved of by the Government at home. The gallant, but undisciplined armies of the Patriots were not at first able to cope with troops inured to hardship, and confident from past success. They sustained many defeats, but their spirit remained unsubdued; and by continually harassing their enemies with unexpected attacks where weakest, and sheltering themselves in the impenetrable recesses of their mountains, when threatened by numbers too great to contend with, they insensibly gained such strength and experience, as enabled them in the end to meet their enemies on terms of greater equality.

General Blake was driven by Marshal Ney into Asturias. Castanos was defeated at Tudela, and Madrid once more opened her gates to the French. An ineffectual attempt had been made for its defence, by Sir John Moore (1809), who finding his forces insufficient to attack the French with any probability of success, commenced his disastrous retreat to Corunna, where, whilst embarking his men, he was attacked by Marsaal Soult, and was unfortunately killed at the beginning of the action. The French were nevertheless defeated with considerable loss, and the embarkation effected the following night. The defect of Cuesta in Estremadura, recalled Sir Arthur Wellesley from the pursuit of Soult, and joining his forces to those of Cuesta, he defeated the French at Talavera.

At Belchûte, the army of Blake was attacked by Suchet, when the Spaniards, panic-struck, fled without firing a shot, throwing down their arms and baggage. Success continued to follow the French, and at the close of the year, Spain had scarcely an invested fortress untaken, or an army remaining in the field.

The nation being discouraged by their losses, and discontented with the conduct of the Junta, measures were taken to call a National Cortes. The cause of Spanish independence was now apparently desperate, when the resistance of Cadiz, which was besieged by Soult, rekindled the hopes and the ardour of the Patriots. Portugal had early joined the Spaniards in their declaration of independence, and the French were now determined to subdue it. Lord Wellington was sent to oppose them: he defeated them upon the hills of Busaco, and then fell back upon Torres Vedras, near Lisbon; whither he was pursued by Massena, who, finding he could not accomplish the taking of Lisbon, of which he had boasted with so much ostentation, commenced a retreat towards Spain, and was closely pursued by Lord Wellington, who took Olivença. Soon after, Almeida fell into the hands of the Allies, and the French were again defeated by Marshal Beresford and General Blake, at Albuera; in which engagement the English suffered severely. The French under Suchet took Tarragona by storm; and by this conquest became masters of the whole coast of Catalonia. Suchet then entered the province of Valencia, took Murviedro, and invested the city of Valencia.

1812.—Lord Wellington commenced the campaign on the frontiers of Portugal, by the capture of Ciudad Roderigo and Badajoz: which, securing the entrance into Portugal, he advanced without opposition to Salamanca, where he defeated the French under Marmont, and soon after took possession successively of Segovia, St. Hildefonso and Madrid, where he was received with the most enthusiastic acclamations by the inhabitants. In the meantime the Patriots took several

strong towns, and expelled the enemy from the whole line of the Douro, from Biscay and Asturias, with the exception of St. Sebastian, which was taken by the Allies in the following year.

1813.—The Russian campaign, and the war in Germany, proved highly beneficial to the Spanish Patriots, as it compelled Buonaparte to withdraw all his veterans, and many of his most experienced Chiefs, to assist him in that quarter. Joseph Buonaparte being forced to evacuate the south and centre of Spain, collected his forces in front of Vittoria. In the meanwhile the Earl, now Marquess of Wellington, dislodged the enemy from Salamanca, Palencia, and Burgos; and on the 21st of June completely defeated them at the memorable battle of Vittoria. Among the spoils, were the carriages of Joseph Buonaparte's, and the Marshal staff of Jourdan, which he had thrown away in the conflict.

In East Spain, the skill and activity of Marshal Suchet maintained the honour of France; and Marshal Soult, after a series of well contested actions, among the passes of the Pyrenees, was eventually forced to retire to the frontiers of France. On the 7th of October, Marquess Wellington crossed the Bidassoa, and stormed the entrenchments at Andaye. Marshal Soult repeatedly assailed the British army, but had the mortification to be foiled in all his attempts, while to add to his vexation, a German and a Dutch regiment deserted to the allies.

The abdication of Napoleon, which took place in 1814, secured the independence of Spain. Ferdinand the Seventh was recalled to the throne, and it was fondly believed that he would govern his people with a wisdom and benevolence, equal to their bravery and fidelity; but, unhappily for them and for himself, a spirit of bigotry directed all his actions, and destroyed the enthusiastic attachment of the people to his person, which his previous misfortunes had excited.

DEFINITIONS.

Junta signifies the same as assembly, convention, or board, to take cognizance of state affairs of importance.

Cortes.—The States, or assembly of the States at Madrid.



THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN.

THE subject of this chapter, though it does not relate immediately to the history of England, is yet so intimately blended with it, that it is necessary to take a rapid sketch of the events that occurred, as they were the commencement of those disasters which led to the final overthrow of the gigantic power of Buonaparte.

The destruction of the British empire was the darling object of Napoleon; and to effect this, he endeavoured to exclude British commodities from every country over which he had any controul.

Alexander of Russia refusing to co-operate with him in this vindictive measure, which would have severely affected the prosperity of his own subjects, drew upon himself the hatred and vengeance of the despot; and never, since the days of Alexander the Great, had the world witnessed so vast an army as that which was collected to overwhelm the Russian Empire.

The Emperor immediately made peace with England and Sweden, and prepared with an undaunted mind to meet the coming storm.

In this resolution he was well supported by his subjects, who seemed actuated by one soul, and to have but one object in view, the defence of their country.

On the 23d of June 1812 the grand army of Napoleon, consisting of more than 475,000 combatants, began to cross the river Niemen, and on the 28th entered the city of Wilna; the Russians every where retreating, without offering to oppose their invaders.

Prince Bagration being unfortunately separated from the main body of the Russian army, retired to the Dwina, whither he was pursued by the enemy under the Duke of Reggio, who had succeeded in driving the Russians out of Lithuania. The French, with an almost overwhelming force, pressed on with great rapidity, but not without some checks; Count Ostroman gained a trifling advantage over them at Ostrowna; and Count Witgenstein arrested their progress towards Riga and Petersburg, by compelling Marshals Macdonald and Oudinot to retire. Prince Bagration, after a series of bold and decisive operations, at length formed a junction with the main body; but his forces were much reduced by the desertion of 10,000 Poles. The Russian grand army withdrew from Drissa to Witepsk, on the road to Smolensko, whither Napoleon, who now avowed his determination to march to Moscow, was hastening. The retiring system which the Russians adopted, and the care they took to destroy all the magazines upon the route of the enemy, whilst they at the same time continued to harass them in every possible way, was highly embarrassing to the invaders; who were drawn from their resources into the heart of a country, laid waste by its hostile proprietors.

A tremendous battle was fought under the walls of Smolensko, the town was occupied by 30,000 men, and the remainder of the army under Barclay de Tolly, were posted on the heights along the right bank of the Dnieper. Aware that the place could not be defended with any hope of success, the Russian general retreated towards Moscow, commanding the Governor of Smolensko to destroy every thing that could be useful to the enemy, and then to fire the city! These orders were punctually obeyed, and the French took possession of the ruins, which, deserted by its inhabitants, was made more hideous to the eye by the horrid remains of the dead, which lying scattered in all directions, presented a spectacle so appalling, that even those who were accustomed to scenes of slaughter shrunk with dismay.

The Russians, though vigorously pursued, continued their retreat to Moscow; and the enemy, whose ranks were daily thinned by the harassing of the Cossacks under Count Platoff, took possession of Viasma, which had been set on fire by their determined opponents.

Prince Kutusoff, who now succeeded to the command of the Russian army, took an advantageous position between Mojaisk and Borodino, and determined to await the attack of the enemy. On the 7th of September was fought one of the most obstinate and sanguinary conflicts recorded in history. The French army consisted of 130,000 men, the Russian of 120,000; the battle lasted from seven in the morning until night; the Russians remained masters of the field, but withdrew from it the following evening: having lost 30,000 men, among whom was the gallant Prince Bagration. The enemy succeeded in gaining possession of Moscow, but lost 40,000 of their soldiers in the preceding battle.

Buonaparte on the 15th took possession of the Kremlin, the ancient palace of the Czars; but he had scarcely done so, when it was discovered, that the inhabitants of Moscow, inspired by the patriotic zeal of their governor Rostopchin had set fire to the city; the greater part of which, notwithstanding the utmost efforts of the French, was soon reduced to a heap of ruins. This unforeseen event was truly disastrous to the enemy, who, worn out with fatigue and hardship, had entered the place with joy; fondly anticipating not only a cessation from toil, but an abundant harvest.

Winter was now fast advancing; the abodes in which they had hoped to be sheltered from the inclemency of the weather were destroyed; there seemed to be no end to their sufferings and privations. Exasperated by disappointment, they vented their rage on the inhabitants, four hundred of whom were shot by order of Napoleon, upon a charge of being the authors of the conflagration.

The situation of Buonaparte at this time was truly critical; his army was weakened by its immense losses; that of the Russians daily increased, and pressed around him on every side, whilst the want of provisions and of fuel, and the increasing intensity of the cold, at last convinced him that to return was indispensable; thus, after a month of inaction, he evacuated the city; and began one of the most disastrous retreats ever recorded by the pen of the historian. He was forced, by the able dispositions of Prince Kutusoff, to return by the way he came, and not only to witness, but to suffer, from the devastation he had caused. His ill clothed soldiers, fainting for want of food, and shrinking from the inclemency of the weather, which was even more than usually severe, fell in immense numbers, and perished in the snow. The Cossacks continued to harass and destroy them on all sides; so that the whole route was strewed with the dead or dying bodies of men and horses, together with baggage and artillery. Every precaution was taken by the Russians to cut off the retreat of the French, whilst the grand army followed closely on the rear. General Witgenstein, after having routed Marshal St. Cyr, advanced from the North towards Smolensko, and Admiral Tchitchagoff having compelled the Austrians to retreat, directed his course to the same point.

Buonaparte now made a desperate attempt at Malo-Jarisloff, to open the road to Kalouga, but was repulsed with considerable loss. At Viasma the French awaited their pursuers; they fought with desperation, but were defeated by Milarodovich; whilst another body, under Eugene Beauharnois, was vanquished by Platoff, and pursued as far as Smolensko. A still more sanguinary conflict took place between the Russians under Milarodovich and the French under Marshal Davoust at Krasnoi; the former were routed with the loss of 4,000 killed and 9,000 taken prisoners. On the following day, the division under Marshal Ney experienced a more serious calamity near the same

spot: destitute of horses, he was unable to reconnoitre the situation of his enemies, and an intense fog prevented his seeing a formidable range of batteries that had been erected to obstruct his passage; whole ranks of his troops were mowed down by the artillery; and not fewer than 11,000 men remained in the hands of the Russians, the rest escaping with great difficulty to the woods near the Dnieper.

Napoleon, after having narrowly escaped falling into the hands of the enemy at Orcha, hastened towards the Beresina, whither Witgenstein and Platoff had repaired to cut off his retreat; and it is probable that had Tchitchagoff reached this point in time to co-operate with them, the whole of the French army might have been captured. They now attempted to cross the river, but a sanguinary contest of three days ensued, during which above 20,000 of Buonaparte's troops perished by the sword; many were drowned in the river, and many were taken prisoners, through the selfishness of their leader; who basely ordered the bridges over the Beresina to be destroyed; whilst a large portion of his army was still on the opposite bank. And, shortly after, the Russians being further strengthened by the army of Tchitchagoff, Napoleon forsook the men, whom his folly and insatiate ambition had led to destruction, and with Caulincourt fled in disguise to Warsaw. Travelling with amazing rapidity, he unexpectedly reached his capital, whilst of the immense army that he carried with him into Russia not 30,000 returned to their native country to relate the miserable fate of their companions!



FIRST INVASION OF FRANCE BY THE ALLIES, AND BANISHMENT OF BUONAPARTE TO ELBA.

1813.—THE total discomfiture of Buonaparte in Russia awakened in other countries a hope of emancipation from the iron hand of the oppressor. Prussia gave the example. The

whole population simultaneously rose to assert their independence, joyfully received the Russians, who entered Berlin on the 11th of March, and united with them against the common enemy. Shortly after they were joined by Bernadotte, Crown Prince of Sweden; who, from a French Marshal, had been chosen by the unanimous voice of the people heir to the Swedish monarchy. He landed at Stralsund, to join the confederacy against France; having first obtained from England the promise of a subsidy, and the cession of the Island of Guadaloupe.

Buonaparte concentrated his forces on the banks of the Saale, and notwithstanding his late losses, they still amounted to 110,000 men; whilst the Allies were only 75,000 strong. A desperate battle was fought, May 2d, at Gross-Groschen, near Lutzen; and both sides claimed the victory. On the 20th of the same month, another severe but indecisive conflict took place at Bautzen, which eventually led to an armistice.

During the truce, negotiations were opened for a permanent pacification; but the ambitious demands of the French Emperor effectually precluded an accommodation, and hostilities were resumed. The Austrians were now roused to exertion, and joined the Allies, whilst England as usual gave vigour to their proceedings by an ample supply of money.

The allied troops were now nearly equal in point of numbers and discipline with those of the enemy; the most perfect unanimity prevailed among them, and they derived no small advantage from the advice and skill of the celebrated General Moreau, who had left his retreat in America, to visit his comrade in arms the Crown Prince of Sweden, and now joined that party whose cause he considered to be that of liberty. This gallant veteran was mortally wounded in the battle of the 27th of August, which took place the day after an unsuccessful attack upon Dresden by the Allies.

Blucher who commanded the Prussians attacked the army of Macdonald on the banks of the Katzback, which he totally defeated, and by this victory delivered Silesia from the yoke of France. In the meanwhile General Bulow with a very inferior force, repulsed Marshal Ney at Jutterbock, and took 10,000 prisoners. It was then resolved, that the three armies of the Allies, under Schwartzburgh, Blucher, and the Crown Prince, should combine to crush the army of Napoleon, which had retreated towards Leipsic.

This memorable battle, on the fate of which that of Europe depended, was fought on the 16th, 17th and 18th of October.

The combatants were the finest troops in the world; they were commanded by the most able generals of the day, and were animated by the presence of their respective sovereigns. The struggle was long and arduous, and whilst victory seemed to hover undecidedly, the opportune defection of a corps of Saxon troops, who abandoned the French, decided the contest. The loss was immense on both sides. The King of Saxony was taken prisoner; 30,000 men, with sixty-five pieces of cannon and all the baggage of the flying enemy, fell into the hands of the victors. Buonaparte escaped, and with the same detestable selfishness that marked his conduct at the Beresina, he secured his personal safety by blowing up the bridge of Lindenau, and sacrificing a large portion of his followers.

The Allied Sovereigns entered Leipsic in triumph, and were met by the inhabitants in the great square of the city with joyful acclamations.

The Kings of Bavaria and Wirtemburgh now joined the Allies. A general insurrection also broke out in Holland; the French were expelled, and the Prince of Orange, who, during his misfortunes had found a refuge in England, returned to his native country.

Napoleon with his discomfited legions retreated to the banks of the Rhine, where he again sustained a loss of

20,000 men. On his return to Paris he assembled the Legislative Bodies, and obtained from them a decree for 300,000 men to oppose the threatened invasion of the Allies, whose grand army approached the frontiers of France on the East, whilst the English and Spaniards were rapidly advancing on the South-West. The Allies crossed the Rhine, and Napoleon having conferred the regency upon Maria Louisa, joined his army. He obtained a trifling advantage at St. Dizier, but was defeated at Brienne, and at La Rothiere; finding however that several of the Prussian corps were placed at a considerable distance from one another, he attacked them separately with some success. The advance of Blucher to Meaux obliged him to hasten in that direction; the Allies became masters of Soissons; Buonaparte made a desperate effort to retake it, but, after a sanguinary conflict, was forced to abandon the enterprize. The French were defeated at Laon after an obstinate conflict of two days.

The Marquess of Wellington meanwhile prosecuted his successes. Sir Rowland Hill defeated the French at Orthes, after which the English and Spanish Allied Army, crossed the Adour and invested Bayonne, whilst Marshal Beresford entered Bourdeaux, which had declared for the Bourbons.

Negotiations had for some time been going on at Chatillon, but the mad ambition of Buonaparte prevented their being signed. He now adopted the singular resolution of getting to the rear of his enemies, and by this ill-judged movement left open the road to Paris. The Prussian and Austrian commanders formed a junction, and at the head of 200,000 men, and with little opposition, marched to Paris, which immediately capitulated, the Allies were received with shouts and acclamations, and cries of "*Vive Louis XVIII.! vivent les Bourbons! à bas le Tyran!*"

A declaration was issued that it was not the intention of the Allies to treat with Buonaparte or any of the family, but that

the integrity of France, such as she had been under the legitimate monarchs, would be scrupulously respected.

Marshal Marmont having obtained a promise that the life of the Ex-Emperor should be spared, and that his troops might pass into Normandy, joined the allies, at the head of 12,000 men.

Napoleon was formally deposed by the Senate, a new constitution was given to France, and Louis XVIII. recalled to the throne of his ancestors. Louis, who had for several years resided at Hartwell in Buckinghamshire having accepted the basis of the constitution, made his public entry into Paris on the 3d of May.

On the 30th a general pacification was signed at Paris. By this treaty it was agreed that the limits of France should be the same as in 1792. England restored all the French colonies except Tobago, St. Lucia and the Isle of France. Sweden surrendered Guadaloupe, and Portugal French Guiana.

The restoration of peace was proclaimed at Paris on the 31st of May, and in London on the 20th of June, amidst the joyful acclamations of the people of both capitals.

The island of Elba, in full sovereignty, was left to Buonaparte, with the title of Emperor; it was also agreed that he should receive from France an annual pension of 2,000,000 francs; and with singular, but imprudent generosity, a further allowance of 2,500,000 francs was to be paid to the different branches of his family, who were permitted to retain their usurped titles. His private property was also secured to him, and four hundred of his followers were permitted to accompany him to Elba.

Among the minor transactions of this period, we must not omit, that at the close of the preceding year Hanover was recovered by the Crown-Prince of Sweden; who also reduced Holstein and Westphalia.

The King of Denmark joined the grand alliance, and Dantzick

surrendered after a long siege; but the British were repulsed, with considerable loss, in the attempt to take the strong fortress of Bergen-op-Zoom.

DEFINITION.

Alliance.—A treaty entered into by Sovereign Princes and States, for their mutual safety and defence.

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BATTLE OF WATERLOO.

BEFORE we resume the narrative of the French war, it will be proper to turn our attention to the contest with America, which ever since the year 1812 had been carried on with little vigour, though with great animosity. Many indecisive conflicts took place between the rival flotillas on the lakes, and the honour of the British flag seemed for a while to droop; but it rose again triumphant under Captain Broke, who, in the short space of fifteen minutes captured the Chesapeake, off the port of Boston, and in sight of the people who lined its shores to witness the action. The city of Washington was taken by Rear-Admiral Cockburn and Major-General Ross: who was afterwards mortally wounded in an unsuccessful attack upon Baltimore.

At length, however, after the disgraceful retreat of Sir George Prevost from before Plattsburgh, hostilities terminated; but, before intelligence of the peace could be received in America, Major-General Pakenham fell in an attempt to take New Orleans.

In France, Louis devoted his attention to the re-establishment of order in the Government, and endeavoured, by gentleness and kindness, to soothe the animosities that still rankled in the bosoms of the Royalists and Buonapartists. The new constitution, which was modelled upon that of England, was readily accepted by the Senate and Legislative Body; liberty of conscience was allowed; but the liberty of the press was

restricted within proper limits. The conscription was abolished; the unsold property of the emigrants was restored to them; and the shops, which, during the Republic, and the reign of Buonaparte, had always remained open on Sundays, were now ordered to be closed.

But this state of tranquillity did not last long: Buonaparte, whom no treaties could bind, suddenly appeared with a small force in the South of France. Louis was surrounded by traitors; the army regretted the Chief, who had so frequently led them to victory and glory; they forgot his base desertion of their comrades in the moment of peril; and doubted not that his return would efface their late disgrace, and restore them to that proud pre-eminence from which they had fallen. At his approach, the armies that had been sent to oppose him openly declared in his favour: and he pursued his journey to Paris, as if travelling merely for his amusement. By the fickle Parisians he was received with the same demonstrations of joy, that they had so short a time previously manifested for the return of Louis. Such is the instability of popular favour! The unfortunate Louis retired first to Lisle, and then to Ghent.

Buonaparte, however, was soon taught to feel, that though he had recovered the throne, he had not regained the absolute power he once possessed; but he concealed his disgust, and, confident of the devoted attachment of the army, he persuaded himself that when he had crushed his foreign foes, he should have little difficulty in recovering his former authority.

When the Allied Sovereigns were informed that Napoleon had broken his engagements, and invaded France, they published a declaration at Vienna to this effect: that Buonaparte having violated the convention, he had forfeited every claim to public favour, and would henceforth be considered only as an outlaw.

Napoleon published a counter-declaration, in exculpation of his conduct: asserting, that he was recalled to the throne by the unanimous voice of the nation. He also wrote letters

to the Allies, to signify his anxious desire for peace; and his firm resolve to devote the remainder of his life in cultivating the arts of peace, and regulating the internal policy of his kingdom.

To these letters no reply was made; but preparations for war were continued with increased activity. Napoleon, to ingratiate himself with his people, promulgated the Additional Act, which made some important and useful alterations in the former Constitution of the French Empire. A solemn spectacle was got up in the Champ de Mars, near Paris. The Emperor appeared, seated on a splendid throne; but when the Act was presented for the acceptance of the people, the acclamations were neither so loud nor so numerous as he expected. This visible alteration of the public opinion filled his agitated mind with gloomy apprehensions; dissembling, however, his disappointment, and confiding in the devotedness of the army, he prepared for the contest that was to decide his fate.

On the 15th of June, the memorable campaign of 1815 was begun, by Napoleon driving in the advanced posts of the Prussians on the river Sambre; whilst Marshal Ney crossed the river at Marchiennes, repulsed the Prussians, and drove back a Belgian brigade to Quatre Bras.

Blucher, fearing an attack, concentrated his forces near Ligni, to the number of 83,000 men; here they were attacked by the superior army of Napoleon, on the morning of the 16th; the battle raged with dreadful fury until night, when the Prussians were forced to abandon the field, having lost 15,000 men.

In the mean time the English, under Sir Thomas Picton, and the Belgians, under the Duke of Brunswick, had to sustain the impetuous attacks of the French, under Marshal Ney: who was eventually repulsed, though with considerable loss. In this action fell the gallant Duke of Brunswick, who was universally and deservedly lamented.

During these transactions, the Duke of Wellington and his staff were enjoying the festivities of Brussels, unconscious of the danger of their allies; but no sooner did intelligence reach them of the events of the 16th, than the tone of mirth and hilarity ceased: they quitted the ball-room for the field of battle, from whence many of them never returned.

The whole of the 17th was employed in preparations for the eventful battle that ensued.

The army of the Duke of Wellington occupied a position in front of Waterloo; it was divided into six bodies, of which the left communicated with the army of Marshal Blucher, who, after the action of the 16th, had retired to Wavre. On the morning of the 18th the French army began the action, by a furious attack of the post at Houguemont, which, notwithstanding repeated attacks, was effectually maintained; at the same time a heavy cannonade was carried on against the whole line, whilst the French infantry and cavalry made repeated charges; which, excepting in one instance, when the farm of La Haye Sainte was forced, were uniformly repulsed. Late in the evening a desperate effort was made against the left of the British centre, when a very severe contest ensued, and it appeared almost doubtful whether the troops, who had been fatigued with the labours of the whole day, could much longer sustain so unequal a conflict; but, at this critical moment, the Prussians appeared, the Duke of Wellington seized the favourable opportunity, and advanced his whole line of infantry, supported by the cavalry and artillery. The French were now driven from every post, and fled in the utmost confusion, leaving on the field above one hundred and fifty pieces of cannon. They were pursued by the victors till long after dark, when the British, exhausted by fatigue, halted; the Prussians therefore continued the pursuit, and nothing could be more complete than the discomfiture of the routed army; not more than 40,000 men, partly without arms, and carrying with them only

twenty-seven pieces out of their numerous artillery, made their retreat through Charleroi.

Such is the general outline of the memorable battle of Waterloo: evincing one of the noblest proofs upon record of British valour, and of the talents of a great national Commander; as well as being, in its consequences, decisive of a momentous contest, in which the peace of all Europe was at stake.

Buonaparte, finding all was lost, hastened back to Paris in the gloominess of despair, and admitted that his army was no more. The partizans of Louis looked forward to the restoration of the Bourbons; another party hoped to re-establish republicanism; while the Buonapartists were desirous to bestow the crown upon the son of Buonaparte, and the Regency upon Maria Louisa.

Meanwhile the Representatives of the Nation declared their sittings permanent; and some of the members having boldly asserted, that the abdication of Buonaparte could alone serve the State, the declaration was received with applause, and the fallen Emperor was persuaded once more to descend from his usurped throne.

A commission was appointed to repair to the Allied Armies with proposals of peace, but the victors had formed a resolution not to treat but under the walls of Paris, and they entered the French territories on the 21st. The Duke of Wellington addressed a proclamation to the French people, saying, that he had entered their country not as an enemy, except to the Usurper, the foe of the human race, with whom there could be neither peace nor truce; but to enable them to throw off the yoke by which they were oppressed.

Wellington and Blucher continued their march to Paris with little opposition, and on the 30th it was invested. The heights about the city were strongly fortified, and it was defended by 50,000 troops of the line, besides national guards and Parisian

volunteers. A convention, referring merely to military questions, was concluded on the 3d of July; by which the French army was on the following day to commence its march for the Loire, and was completely to evacuate Paris in three days; all the fortified posts and barriers were to be given up; and no individual was to be prosecuted for his political opinion or conduct. Soon after the concluding of this convention the Provisional Government resigned, and Louis once more entered the palace of his ancestors, amidst the acclamations of his fickle and faithless subjects. The army of the Loire, under Marshal Davoust, and many of the garrisons, refused to acknowledge the sovereignty of the Bourbons: but they were ultimately reduced to submission.

Buonaparte in the mean time reached the port of Rochfort in safety, from whence he anxiously hoped to escape to America; but finding it impossible to elude the British cruizers, he determined to surrender to Captain Maitland, of the *Bellerophon*. He had flattered himself that he should find an asylum in England; but all the Cabinets in Europe, aware of his restless ambition and intriguing disposition, had fixed upon the island of St. Helena for his future residence, and that there he should be kept under the strictest guard. The *Bellerophon* proceeded to Torbay: Napoleon was transferred to the Northumberland, with a few of his most attached friends, and the ship soon after proceeded on her voyage.

Murat, the brother-in-law of Napoleon, having joined the Allies when he found the career of Napoleon hastening to its close, rejoined him again on his escape from Elba. Being, however, driven from the throne of Naples, he joined a band of desperadoes, and landed in Calabria; where, being speedily overcome and taken, he was instantly shot. Marshal Ney and Colonel Labedoyere suffered for their treacherous conduct to Louis. Lavalette, who was sentenced to the same fate,

escaped, disguised in the dress of his wife; and, through the exertions of Sir Robert Wilson, Mr. Bruce, and Mr. Hutchinson, he quitted the kingdom undiscovered.

A Congress was held at Vienna, and, on the 20th of November, several treaties between France and the Allies were at length finally adjusted and signed.

The additions made to the kingdom of France in the treaty of 1814, were now rescinded; sixteen of the frontier fortresses of France were to be garrisoned by the Allies for five years; 150,000 allied troops, under the Duke of Wellington, were to be maintained for the same space of time; and a sum of 700,000,000 of francs (about 29,000,000 sterling) was to be paid, as an indemnity to the Allies. It was further agreed, that all the works of art which had been plundered by the French from other countries, should be restored. This act of justice excited the utmost indignation amongst the Parisians.

Holland and the Netherlands were incorporated, and erected into a monarchy. Surinam, Curaçoa, St. Eustatius, and the Dutch settlements in Java, were restored to the Dutch; but England retained the Cape of Good Hope, Demarara, Essequibo, Berbice, and Ceylon. The Emperor of Austria obtained the whole of Lombardy. Prussia received a part of the King of Saxony's dominions; and the territory of Genoa was added to the kingdom of Sardinia. The electorate of Hanover was erected into a kingdom. Cracow was declared a free and independent city; but the greater part of the country of Poland fell under the dominion of Russia, and the Emperor assumed the title of King of Poland. The Ionian islands were relieved from the Russian yoke, and declared to be a free and independent state, under the protection of Great Britain.

In order to secure the peace of Germany, an Act of Confederation was concluded amongst its Princes: every member of which was free to form what alliances he pleased, provided

they were such as could not prove injurious to the general safety; and, in case of one Prince being attacked, all the rest were bound to arm in his defence. Thus ended this long and sanguinary warfare, in which numerous instances of exalted virtues, and the most flagrant crimes, have been alternately displayed. Events the most extraordinary, which neither foresight could prevent, nor wisdom counteract, have succeeded each other with a rapidity nearly inconceivable; and future ages will be tempted almost to doubt the evidence of facts, which seem to partake more of the splendour of fiction, than the sobriety of historic relation.

Early in the spring of 1816, Lord Exmouth was sent with a fleet to the States of Barbary, to conclude a treaty of peace between them and the Kings of Naples and Sardinia; to abolish Christian slavery; and to obtain from them a promise to respect the flag of the Ionian islands, which had lately become an independent country. The Beys of Tripoli and Tunis acceded to all these demands; but the Bey of Algiers demurred, with respect to the abolition of slavery. Shortly after a considerable number of unarmed Christians, who had landed at Bona, having been massacred by the Mahometans, notwithstanding the late treaty, Lord Exmouth, with a strong force, returned to Algiers, and on the 27th of August commenced a furious cannonade upon the city, which lasted six hours; the contest was severe, and the British ships suffered considerably; but the Algerines lost four large frigates, five corvettes, and several smaller vessels, together with the storehouse, arsenal, &c., which were totally destroyed. The Bey now thought proper to accede to the terms proposed by the British Admiral, namely, to abolish Christian slavery; to surrender every slave; to return the money received from Christian Powers, for the redemption of slaves, since the beginning of the present year; and to make a public apology to the British Consul for the

insults that had been offered to him, as well as to remunerate him for the losses he had sustained.

This attack upon Algiers may be considered as one of the most brilliant exploits ever achieved by our navy.

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DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

TOWARDS the close of the year 1803, a conspiracy entered into by Colonel Despard was discovered; when he, and five of his accomplices, being found guilty of high-treason, were condemned and executed. An insurrection also broke out in Ireland: Lord Chief-Justice Kilwarden, and two other gentlemen, were assassinated by the mob; but the rebels were finally overpowered, though not till after considerable effusion of blood; the ringleaders were taken, and suffered the sentence of the law.

1804.—Mr. Addington, who had succeeded Mr. Pitt as First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, now resigned, and was created Viscount Sidmouth. Mr. Pitt resumed his former post of Prime Minister; and, though strongly opposed, finally prevailed over his political enemies, and his plans for the defence of the kingdom received the sanction of the Legislature.

1805.—Lord Melville was impeached by the House of Peers, for conniving at the misapplication of certain sums of the public money by Mr. Trotter, his Lordship's agent and paymaster; but the trial was postponed to the ensuing session, when his Lordship was acquitted upon every charge.

At this time the claims of the Irish Catholics, for a complete emancipation, were powerfully advocated by Lord Grenville in the House of Peers, and by Mr. Fox in the Commons; but their efforts proved unavailing.

1806.—The beginning of this year was clouded by the death

of that eminent statesman Mr. Pitt, whose dissolution seems to have been hastened by the grief and disappointment he felt at the failure of his plans in the last campaign. He expired on the 23d of January, in the forty-seventh year of his age, and was interred at the public expense. The sum of £40,000 was voted for the payment of his debts: the welfare of the nation, and not personal emolument, having been the great object of his solicitude.

A new Cabinet was now formed, which, from the known talents of the members, excited the greatest expectations. Lord Erskine was made Lord High Chancellor; Earl Fitzwilliam, Lord President of the Council; Viscount Sidmouth, Lord Privy Seal; Lord Grenville, First Lord of the Treasury; Lord Howick, First Lord of the Admiralty; Earl Moira, Master-General of the Ordnance; Earl Spencer, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Windham, Secretaries of State; Lord Henry Petty, Chancellor of the Exchequer; and Lord Ellenborough, Lord Chief-Justice. But nothing was done to fulfil the hopes of the nation; and the Property-Tax was increased from six and a half to ten per cent. upon all property above £50 a year.

Buonaparte made overtures for peace, which were eagerly listened to by Mr. Fox; but he also found that no treaty could bind the perfidious Usurper, and soon after the failure of these negotiations Mr. Fox expired, in the fifty-eighth year of his age; upon which Lord Howick, formerly Mr. Grey, became Secretary of State for the Foreign Department.

1807.—The sessions this year opened with a formal Abolition of the Slave Trade; an attempt was also made by the Ministers to obtain for the Catholics a just participation in the rights and privileges of their Protestant fellow-subjects; but the King not only opposed this measure, as being in opposition to his coronation oath, but also demanded a written promise that it should never again be proposed. In consequence of this all the Ministers retired from office: and were succeeded by the

Duke of Portland, as First Lord of the Treasury; Mr. Canning, Lords Hawkesbury and Castlereagh, as Secretaries of State; Mr. Perceval, as Chancellor of the Exchequer; Lord Mulgrave, as First Lord of the Admiralty; and Lord Eldon, as Lord Chancellor.

1808.—In the month of August, the titular King and Queen of France, with the late King's daughter, the Duchess of Angoulême, took refuge in England. Louis was not recognized here as King, but passed under the title of the Count de Lille.

1809.—Colonel Wardle, at the commencement of the present session, brought forward several charges of corruption against the Duke of York, principally founded on the testimonies of a woman named Mary Ann Clarke, with whom the Duke had been improperly connected. The charges fell to the ground; but his Royal Highness resigned his post of Commander-in-Chief, and was succeeded by Sir David Dundas.

The ill-judged and unfortunate expedition to the Scheldt, which had been planned by Lord Castlereagh, led to a schism in the British Cabinet; which occasioned the resignation of his Lordship, and was followed by a duel with Mr. Canning, in which the latter was wounded.

At the close of this year a grand national Jubilee was celebrated throughout the country, in honour of the fiftieth anniversary of his Majesty's reign.

1810.—A violent attack was made by the Opposition, at the opening of the Parliament, upon the expedition to Walcheren; and a vote of censure was passed on the Earl of Chatham, for having presented to the King an unofficial account of that transaction.

A motion which was made by Mr. Yorke, for excluding strangers from the House during the debates upon the Walcheren Expedition, occasioned some severe remarks from a popular orator in a debating society, named Gale Jones; who was, for

this conduct, brought to the bar of the House of Commons, and committed to Newgate. Sir Francis Burdett warmly espoused his cause; and having published his speech, with an insulting address to the House, it was voted that he should be sent to the Tower. Sir Francis refused to admit the legality of the Speaker's warrant; his house was then surrounded by military, and a considerable ferment excited; but a posse of constables having penetrated into the house, he was taken, and safely lodged in the Tower, whence he was released at the close of the sessions.

The death of the Princess Amelia, which occurred near the close of this year, produced a fatal effect on the mind of his Majesty, and caused a relapse, from which he never again recovered. The Prince of Wales was at length appointed Regent of the realm, but with some important restrictions on his authority during the first year; whilst the person of the venerable Monarch was placed under the immediate care of the Queen.

1811.—Nothing very material passed during this session of the Parliament, excepting an Act for permitting the Militias of England and Ireland to do duty out of their respective countries; and an Act to prevent the Gold Coin of the Realm to pass for more, and the Paper Currency for less, than its nominal value.

1812.—It was confidently anticipated by the leading Members of the Opposition, that when the restrictions imposed upon the Regent should expire, the then Ministers would be removed, and they should come into power; but, instead of that, the Regent only required Earl Grey and Lord Grenville should unite with the Ministry: and, on their refusing to join them, no change whatever was effected in the Cabinet.

Violent discontents were manifested in the counties of Nottingham, Derby, Leicester, Lancaster, York, and Cheshire, in consequence of the use of machinery being introduced in various manufactories, by which numbers of the labouring classes

were deprived of work, and consequently of the means of subsistence. This (at the instigation of some secret societies, the members of which were assiduously endeavouring to spread the flames of disaffection) led to various acts of outrage; nor was it till after some bloodshed, and the enacting of a law, punishing with death the destruction of the cotton-frames, that tranquillity was restored.

The unexpected death of Mr. Perceval, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who was shot in the lobby of the House of Commons by a man of the name of Bellingham, caused a great sensation throughout the country. The assassin made no attempt to escape, but boldly avowed the deed. He was tried, convicted, and executed: undergoing the just sentence of the law with a firmness and composure worthy of a better cause.

The death of the Chancellor made little change in the Cabinet, for Lords Grey and Grenville still refused to accept the fair and honourable proposals of their political opponents.

1813.—The first act of the new Parliament this year, was to vote the sum of £200,000 for the relief of the suffering Russians; and a subscription, to a very large amount, was also raised for the same benevolent purpose.

Another fruitless attempt was made for the total emancipation of the Catholics; it was, however, lost by a very small majority.

A new charter was this year granted to the East-India Company, by which their privilege of exclusive trade to China was confirmed; but the India trade, which had hitherto been exclusively carried on by the Company, was now, with certain modifications, thrown open to individual speculation.

1814.—The restoration of peace, which was proclaimed in London on the 21st of June, was received with the loudest acclamations, and all Europe rejoiced at the termination of one of the longest and most sanguinary wars recorded in history.

On the 7th of July, the Emperor Alexander of Russia, the King of Prussia, the gallant Blücher, Count Platoff, and many other characters who distinguished themselves in the late war, arrived in London, and were hailed with the most lively demonstrations of joy and affection; and after having visited many of the principal places in the kingdom, and having been spectators of a splendid naval review at Spithead, they repaired to Dover. The Prince Regent, who had accompanied them in their tour, there bade adieu to his august visitors, who then returned to their respective dominions.

To commemorate the accession of the House of Hanover, which had now been in possession of the British throne during one hundred years, and as a public rejoicing for the return of peace, a national Jubilee was celebrated throughout the kingdom.

1815.—The public this year were much agitated respecting the enactment of Laws, relative to the Importation of Corn, which was not permitted unless the price of wheat exceeded eighty shillings a quarter. The intention of this law was to protect the agricultural interests of the country; but being either misunderstood, or wilfully misrepresented, it caused serious disturbances in various parts of the country, and riots prevailed during several days in the metropolis. The manufacturing towns, during the greater part of this year, were in a state of agitation and alarm; partial outrages occurred, but they were speedily and effectually quelled. Some slight disturbances also broke out in Ireland.

This year the Legislature passed an Act for continuing the Bank Restriction; the Property Tax was also renewed; and the Bread Assize Act was repealed.

1816.—An ineffectual attempt was made by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, at the commencement of this session, to continue the Property Tax for one year longer, and also the War Duty upon Malt.

The distressed state of the agriculture of the kingdom, which was heightened by the failure of the harvest, induced the House, upon the motion of Mr. Western, to resolve itself into a Committee, to take the State of the Country into consideration; but this important subject was postponed, on account of the continued illness of Mr. Western.

The House was now informed, by a message from the Prince Regent, that a matrimonial alliance was about to take place between his daughter, the Princess Charlotte, and his Serene Highness the Prince of Saxe Cobourg Saalfeld. The sum of £60,000 was voted for their annual expenses; and £50,000 per annum was secured to the Prince of Cobourg, should he survive his Royal consort. The nuptials were solemnized with becoming splendour on the 2d of May; and, in July following, the Princess Mary bestowed her hand on her cousin, the Duke of Gloucester.

The Bank Restriction Bill was this sessions extended for two years longer. Another ineffectual attempt was made in favour of the Roman Catholic Claims; and an Act was passed for issuing a new Silver Coinage.

The distresses of the labourers and manufacturers, and the high price of provisions, at length produced serious disturbances in various parts of England. The malcontents in the eastern counties broke out into open violence, and were not suppressed without much difficulty. In London similar attempts were made. Mr. Hunt, a violent and popular demagogue, had convened a public meeting in Spa-fields, to draw up a petition to the Regent. On the 2d of December another meeting was called, to receive the answer to their petition. A vast mob being collected, Dr. Watson, his son, and other persons, accompanied by tri-coloured flags, proceeded into the City, followed by a large body of the populace. They plundered the shop of Mr. Beckwith, a gunsmith; and a man of the name of Platt was there shot at and severely wounded by young Watson.

Several other shops were also plundered of arms. At length the rioters were dispersed, and several of the ringleaders taken.

1817.—The Prince Regent, on his way to the House of Lords to open the sessions of Parliament, was wantonly shot at. The perpetrators of this outrage escaped undetected; and loyal addresses were voted to his Royal Highness upon his providential escape.

In consequence of a dangerous spirit of revolt and disaffection, which it was said prevailed in the country, bills were passed for suspending the habeas corpus act, and for preventing seditious meetings.

On a motion by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, it was agreed that Exchequer Bills to the amount of £1,500,000 should be issued, to complete some Public Works, to encourage the Fisheries, and to furnish Employment for the Poor.

Again, the Roman Catholic Emancipation Bill was brought forward, but lost by small majorities.

Mr. Abbot, the Speaker, having resigned his office, was created Baron Colchester, with a pension of £4,000 per annum; and Mr. Manners Sutton, son to the Archbishop of Canterbury, was elected in his stead.

The country still continued in a state of ferment, and affairs assuming a formidable aspect, it was judged necessary to make an example of some of the insurgents, who were brought to trial at Derby; when three of the ringleaders being found guilty, suffered the sentence of the law. Dr. Watson, Thistlewood, and others, who had previously been tried in London, were acquitted.

A new Gold Coinage, called sovereigns and half sovereigns, of the value of twenty shillings and ten shillings respectively, was this year issued.

November 6.—The country at large was plunged into the deepest affliction by the sudden and unexpected death of her Royal Highness the Princess Charlotte of Wales, who died in

giving birth to a still-born son. Her unostentatious manners, her domestic virtues, her liberal and benevolent disposition, had inspired the people at large with a high idea of her worth; and they fondly anticipated, that the glory and prosperity of England would again become resplendent, under the guidance of female virtues. But Providence ordained it otherwise, and two generations were at once cut off from the British throne, leaving a fearful apprehension of a future disputed succession.

1818.—The session this year was opened by commission. Ministers themselves proposed the repeal of the Habeas Corpus Suspension Act, which was immediately carried. Much discussion took place relative to the imprisonment of individuals during the suspension of the habeas corpus, but the proceedings of the Ministry were approved by a large majority of the House. At the same time meetings were held in nearly every populous town throughout the country, for the purpose of petitioning Parliament for parliamentary reform.

The sessions closed on the 10th of June, the Parliament was dissolved, and writs issued for new elections. Many of the returns were favourable to the Opposition; all the ministerial candidates in the city of London were thrown out; and Sir Samuel Romilly and Sir Francis Burdett were returned for Westminster.

Towards the close of this year, the expedition which had been sent out to explore the Arctic regions returned to England. It did not wholly succeed, for the progress of the vessels was so impeded by insurmountable barriers of ice, that they were obliged for a time to abandon the enterprize.

This year was particularly distinguished for Royal marriages: the Princess Elizabeth was married to the Prince of Hesse Homberg; the Duke of Clarence to the Princess of Meinengen; the Duke of Kent to the Princess Dowager of Leinengen, sister to Prince Leopold; and the Duke of Cambridge to the Princess of Hesse Cassel.

The Queen, who had been for some time indisposed, expired at Kew in the seventy-fifth year of her age, having been fifty-seven years united to the King. It is no trifling praise to say, that owing to her exemplary conduct, and the strict decorum she maintained, the Court of England was pre-eminent for purity and morality.

1819.—The session this year was opened by commission; and the first object that engaged the attention of the House, was to provide for the care of the King's person: which was committed to the Duke of York, with a pension of £10,000 per annum.

Sir J. Mackintosh brought forward a motion for the appointment of a Committee, to inquire into and investigate such parts of the Penal Code as relate to capital punishments.

A Petition was also presented by Mr. Lambton, praying for a Repeal of the Copy-right Act.

The country still continued to be much agitated, and large assemblies were held at Stockport, Birmingham, Manchester, &c. under the specious pretence of petitioning for reform: whilst the most seditious and blasphemous publications were eagerly disseminated amongst the people.

A large meeting was convened in Smithfield, in which Hunt, Thistlewood, Watson, and Preston took the lead. It is said that not fewer than 70,000 persons were assembled; and it was, perhaps, more owing to the wise measures adopted to intimidate these reformers, than to any forbearance of their own, that the peace of the metropolis remained undisturbed.

A serious disturbance occurred at Manchester, where a meeting was convened by Mr. Hunt and his associates. It had been fixed to take place on the 9th of August; but, in consequence of a spirited notice put forth by the Magistrates, declaring that the intended meeting was illegal, it was postponed, and hopes were entertained that it would ultimately have been abandoned; but, unhappily, above 50,000 persons assembled on

the 16th, and, whilst Hunt was pronouncing an oration, a body of the Manchester cavalry galloped up to the hustings and seized him, together with his companions, and their banners. A dreadful scene of confusion and distress now ensued, nor was tranquillity restored without bloodshed: six persons were killed, and about seventy were more or less injured. Hunt, Moorhouse, and Johnson, were committed, to take their trial for a conspiracy, but at the same time admitted to bail.

When information of the transactions at Manchester reached London, it caused a great sensation. There was at that time a contested election for the city of Westminster. Sir Francis Burdett, one of the candidates, wrote a letter, couched in very strong language, to his committee: in consequence of which a meeting was called, and the conduct of the Manchester Magistrates and Yeomanry severely censured.

An Address from the Common Council of London, praying for an Enquiry into the Transactions at Manchester, was presented to the Prince Regent, at Carlton-house, by the Lord Mayor, Sheriffs, &c.; and various meetings were also held in different parts of the kingdom for the same purpose: particularly one at York, which was attended by Earl Fitzwilliam, Lord Lieutenant of the West Riding, and who, in consequence, was deprived of his office.

Serious disturbances also broke out at Paisley, where a meeting was called to take into consideration the proceedings at Manchester; the hustings were hung with black cloth, the speakers were dressed in mourning, and all the flags were edged with black. An address to Mr. Hunt, containing a strong panegyric on his conduct at Manchester, was carried with a fervent shout of approbation. The Magistrates had previously issued a proclamation, declaring the proposed meeting illegal; and their determination to prevent, as far as in their power, the tranquillity of the well-disposed inhabitants from being wantonly disturbed. The people, notwithstanding, assembled with

banners, and a scuffle ensued; the riot act was read to no purpose; the mob continued to increase until the arrival of the military, when they dispersed. The next day, Sunday, the Magistrates were insulted as they went to church; and, on the following day, the disposition to tumult appearing to increase, the riot act was again read; but the mob did not disperse until driven out of the streets by the military: whose skilful manœuvring succeeded in dispersing this infuriated multitude, without inflicting a single wound, or committing the slightest injury.

Similar outrages took place at Glasgow, and many of the most active of the insurgents were made prisoners. The alarming state of the country occasioned Parliament to meet at a much earlier season than usual, and the session was opened by the Regent in person. The usual address to the Throne was opposed by Lord Grey in the House of Lords: the main object of which was to pledge the House to an inquiry into the transactions at Manchester. This led to a long and interesting debate, in which Lord Sidmouth endeavoured to justify the conduct of the Magistrates. Marquess Buckingham supported Ministers; and, upon a division taking place, the majority in favour of the original address, and against the amendment, was 125.

A similar discussion took place in the House of Commons; but here, also, Ministers obtained a majority of two hundred and thirty-one; the numbers being, for the amendment, one hundred and fifty: against it, three hundred and eighty-one.

Thus ended this eventful year, and a few short weeks after closed the memorable reign of George the Third. The sun of prosperity shone upon its commencement with unusual splendour; its meridian was clouded with storms, that required all the wisdom of a skilful pilot to weather: it set in darkness, and the hollow murmur of discontent growled fearfully in the distance.

Happily for himself, the venerable Monarch was alike insensible to the threatening appearance of the political horizon, and to the havoc which death, in a few months, had made in his family circle. In addition to that of his Queen, his granddaughter and her infant, a few days only previous to his own decease, died the Duke of Kent, sincerely lamented not only by those immediately about his person, but by the whole nation.

The firm yet mild administration of George the Third, secured his people in prosperity and peace; and whilst the thrones of most of his contemporaries were shaken to their foundations, by foreign or domestic foes, the efforts of our potent enemies to overthrow this happy country, by open violence or secret treachery, were equally impotent.

“ England never did, nor never shall

“ Lie at the proud feet of a conqueror,

“ But when it first did help to wound itself.

* * * * *

“ Come the three corners of the world in arms

“ And we shall shock them! nought shall make us rue,

“ If England to itself do rest but true.”

SHAKESPEARE. *King John.*

DEFINITIONS.

Bread Assize Act.—An act, which empowered a court, called the Assize Court, to fix the price at which bread should be sold; and which was regulated according to the neat weight of the price of corn in the market.

Bank Restriction Bill.—A Legislative act, adopted to prevent the Bank of England from paying in specie or cash for a limited period.

Copy-right Act.—An act for regulating the property of authors, with respect to their works.

In 1556 a charter was granted to the Stationers' Company (which at that time did not mean, as in the present day, venders of paper

only, but booksellers and printers), to keep at their hall a register, in which should be entered the name of every new book, the name of the proprietors, and the successive transfers of the copy-right. Another Bill was passed in 1709, compelling publishers to deliver nine copies of every work to as many public libraries. This was considered as a serious grievance: for, on some valuable works, the loss was very considerable; in consequence, in 1813, the booksellers applied for redress, but were unsuccessful: as, in the spring of 1814, an Act was passed, confirming in the most explicit terms the claim of the public libraries, to which two more were added: making, in the whole, eleven copies of every work published, and for which they are not to pay any proportion of the price. At the same time, copy-right property was extended from fourteen to twenty-eight years.

GEOGRAPHICAL VOCABULARY

OF

ALL THE PLACES

MENTIONED IN THE PRECEDING HISTORY.

A.

- ABBEVILLE.** A town of France, in the department of the Somme.
- ABERDEEN.** A city of Scotland, at the mouth of the river Dee.
- ABOUKIR.** An island and bay on the coast of Egypt, at the mouth of the Nile.
- ACRE.** A seaport of Syria.
- ADOUR.** A river of France, which falls into the Bay of Biscay below Bayonne.
- AFRICA.** One of the four grand divisions of the earth: it is a peninsula of prodigious extent, having no connexion with the Eastern continent but by the Isthmus of Suez, which unites it to Asia.
- AGENOIS.** An ancient province of France.
- AGINCOURT.** A village of France, in the department of Pas de Calais.
- AGRA.** A city and capital of a province of the same name in Hindoostan Proper.
- AIX-LA-CHAPELLE.** A city of Germany.
- ALBANS, St.** A borough in Hertfordshire, seated on the river Colne.
- ALBANY.** A city of New York, capital of a county of the same name, situated on the east side of Hudson's river.
- ALBUERA.** A village of Spain, near Badajoz, in Spanish Estremadura.
- ALEXANDRIA.** A town of Egypt, near the mouth of the Nile.
- ALGIERS.** A strong city of Barbary, capital of the state of Algiers.
- ALKMAER.** A city of North Holland.
- ALMANZA.** A town of Spain, in Murcia.
- ALMEIDA.** A fortified town of Portugal, in Tra-los-Montes.

- AMBLBETEUSE.** A seaport of France, in the department of Pas de Calais.
- AMBOYNA.** An island in the Indian Ocean, chief of the Moluccas.
- AMERICA.** The largest of the four divisions of the world, consisting of two immense peninsulas, joined together by the Isthmus of Darien.
- AMIENS.** A city of France, capital of the department of the Somme.
- ANDAYE.** A fortified town of France, situated at the mouth of the Bidassoa.
- ANGLESEY (ISLE OF).** The most northern county of Wales.
- ANGOUMOIS.** A late province of France, now included in the department of Charente.
- ANJOU.** Formerly a province of France, west of Bretagne, now the department of Mayenne.
- ANTWERP.** A city of Brabant, on the Scheldt.
- AQUILEIA.** A town of Italy, in Friuli, near the Gulf of Venice.
- AQUITAINE.** The ancient appellation of Guienne and Gascony.
- ARANJUEZ.** A town of Spain, in Old Castile.
- ARCOT.** A city of Hindoostan, capital of the Carnatic, and seated on the river Pariar.
- ARDRES.** A town of France, in the department of Pas de Calais.
- ARRAGON.** A large province of Spain.
- ARROYA-DEL-MOLINA.** A town of Spain, in New Castile.
- ASCALON.** A city of Syria.
- ASIA.** One of the four grand divisions of the earth.
- ASSYE.** A small town of Nizam, in the province of Berar, in India.
- ASTURIAS.** A maritime province of Spain.
- ATHERSTONE.** A town in Warwickshire.
- AUSTERLITZ.** A town of Moravia.
- AUSTRIA.** A circle of the German Empire, containing the Archduchy of Austria: the duchies of Istria, Carinthia, and Carniola, the county of Tyrol, and the principalities of Brixen and Trent.
- AUVERGNE.** A late province of France: it now forms the department of Cantal and Puy de Dome.
- AVIGNON.** A city of France, capital of Vaucluse.
- AYLESBURY.** A borough in Buckinghamshire.

B.

- BADAJOS.** A town of Spain, capital of Spanish Estremadura.
- BADEN.** A Margravate of Suabia, in Germany.
- BAHAMAS.** A cluster of islands east of Florida, in America.
- BALTIMORE.** The largest town of Maryland, in America, and capital of a county of the same name.
- BANBURY.** A borough in Oxfordshire.
- BANDA.** Chief of the Nutmeg Islands, in the Indian Ocean.
- BANNOCKBURN.** A village near Stirling, in Scotland.
- BARNET.** A town which stands partly in Middlesex and partly in Hertfordshire.
- BAROSSA.** A town of Spain, in Andalusia, seated near the river San Petri.

BASLE. A canton of Switzerland.

BASQUE. A territory of France, which with Bearn forms the department of Lower Pyrenees.

BATAVIA. A city and seaport of the Island of Java.

BATH. A city of Somerseshire, seated on the Avon.

BAUTZEN. The capital of Upper Lusatia, seated on the Spree.

BAVARIA. A circle of Germany, having Suabia on the west and Austria on the east.

BAYONNE. A city and seaport of France, at the conflux of the rivers Nive and Adour.

BEARNE. Part of the department of Lower Pyrenees.

BELCHUTE. A town of Spain in the province of Arragon.

BEDFORD. In North America, a town of Massachusetts in Middlesex county.

BELLAIR. In Maryland, capital of Harford county, North America.

BELFAST. A borough and seaport of Ireland, in the county of Antrim, seated at the mouth of the Logan.

BENGAL. A large province of Hindoostan.

BERBICE. A Dutch settlement in Guiana.

BERESINA. A river of Russia in the province of Minsk.

BERGEN-OP-ZOOM. A town of Dutch Brabant, situated partly on a hill and partly on the river Zoom, which communicates with the Scheldt by a canal.

BERAR. A large province in the Deccan of Hindoostan.

BERLIN. The capital of Brandenburg, and the residence of the Court of Prussia.

BERKELEY. In Gloucestershire, on the river Avon, near its conflux with the Severn.

BERWICK. On the borders of England and Scotland; it was formerly a fortress of great importance, when the countries were independent of each other. It is now a borough and county of itself, included in the Bishopric of Durham.

BERNE. The largest of the cantons of Switzerland.

BIDASSOA. A river of Spain which rises in the Pyrenees, and enters the Bay of Biscay, near Fontarabia.

BISCAY. An independent province of Spain, north of Old Castile.

BLenheim. A village of Suabia, seated on the Danube.

BLOIS. A city of France, capital of the department of Cher and Loire.

BODMIN. A borough in Cornwall.

BOHEMIA. A kingdom of the German empire, divided into circles, and subject to Austria.

BOLTON. A town in Lancashire.

BOLOGNA. Capital of the Bolognese, a province of Italy.

BOMBAY. An island on the west coast of Hindoostan, one of the three Presidencies of the East-India Company.

BORODINO. A small town near Mojaisk, in the government of Moscow.

BONA. A seaport of Algiers.

BONN. A city seated on the Rhine, sixteen miles south of Cologne.

- BOSTON.** Capital of Massachussets and of Suffolk county in America.
- BOSWORTH.** A town of Leicestershire, situated on a high hill near Leicester.
- BOUCHAIN.** A fortified town of France, in the department of Nord; it is divided into two parts by the river Scheldt.
- BOULOGNE.** A French seaport, in the department of Pas de Calais.
- BOURBON.** An island of Africa, in the Indian Ocean.
- BOURDEAUX.** A city and seaport of France, capital of the department of Gironde.
- BOYNE.** A river of Ireland, which rises in Kildare, and enters the Irish Channel below Drogheda.
- BRACKLEY.** A borough in Northamptonshire, seated on the Ouse.
- BRABANT.** A territory of the Netherlands.
- BRETIGNI.** An ancient province of France.
- BREDA.** A fortified town of Dutch Brabant.
- BRENTFORD.** A town of Middlesex seated on the Thames.
- BRETON, CAPE.** An island of North America, separated from Nova Scotia by a narrow strait.
- BREST.** A seaport of France, in the department of Finisterre.
- BRIDGEWATER.** A borough in Somersetshire, seated on the river Parret.
- BRIENNE.** A village of France, in the department of Upper Marne.
- BRISTOL.** A large city and seaport on the river Severn; it is situated partly in Gloucestershire and partly in Somersetshire, and is a county of itself.
- BRISGAU.** A territory of Suabia, on the East side of the Rhine.
- BRITTANY.** A late province of France, now forming the departments of Finisterre, Côtes du Nord, Isle et Vilaine, Lower Loire, and Morbihan.
- BRITISH CHANNEL.** The sea between England and France.
- BRUGES.** A city of the Netherlands.
- BRUNN, or BRINN,** a town of Moravia, seated at the confluence of the rivers Zwittau and Schwartz.
- BRUNSWICK.** A duchy of Germany, in Lower Saxony.
- BRUSSELS.** A strong city of the Netherlands, seated on the river Senne.
- BUENOS AYRES.** A city and seaport of South America, capital of Paraguay.
- BUNKER'S HILL.** An eminence on the North side of Charlestown, in Massachussets.
- BURGOS.** A city of Spain, capital of Old Castile.
- BUSACO (SIERRE DE).** A lofty range of mountains in Portugal near the river Mondego.

C.

- CADIZ.** A fortified city of Spain, seated on the Northern extremity of a peninsula. This part is the centre of the Spanish commerce to the West Indies and to America.
- CAEN.** A city of France, capital of the department of Calvados;

the river Orne runs through this city, and is navigable for large vessels.

CAERMARTHEN. A Welch borough, capital of a county of the same name, seated on the river Towey.

CAERNARVON. A borough and seaport of Wales, on the Straits of Menai, near Caernarvon Bay.

CAIRO. The capital of Egypt, seated on the Nile.

CALABRIA. A country of Naples.

CALCUTTA. The capital of Bengal; is the metropolis of British India, and the seat of government. It is situated on the river Hoogley, or western arm of the Ganges.

CALAIS. A seaport of France, in the department of Pas de Calais.

CAMBDEN. A district of South Carolina, having a capital of the same name.

CAMBRAY. A fortified town of France, in the department of Nord.

CAMBRIDGE. Capital of a county of the same name, and the seat of a celebrated University. It is seated on the river Cam.

COMPIEGNE. A town of France in the department of Oise, seated on a river of the same name.

CAMPEACHY (BAY). The southern extremity of the Gulf of Mexico.

CAMPERDOWN. On the coast of Holland, south of the Helder.

CAMPO FORMIO. A town of Italy, in Venetian Friuli.

CANADA. A large country of North America, lying west of the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

CANTERBURY. The capital of Kent.

CARANGOLY. A village in the Carnatic (India), famous for its fine mangoes.

CARDIFF. A town in Glamorganshire.

CARLISLE. The capital of Cumberland, situated at the conflux of the rivers Eden, Petezell, and Caude.

CARLSCRONE. A seaport of Sweden, in Blekengen.

CARNATIC. A country of the peninsula of India, extending along the coast of Coromandel, to Cape Comorin.

CAROLINE, N. One of the United States of America, lying between Virginia, Georgia, and South Carolina.

CARRICKFERGUS. A seaport of Ireland; it is a county of itself, and the chief town of the county Antrim.

CARRON. A river in the Stirlingshire (Scotland), which rises on the south side of the Camprey hills, and flows into the Frith of Forth, below Falkirk.

CARTHAGENA. A province of Terra Firma, in the north-west part of South America.

CATALONIA. A province of Spain, having the Pyrennees on the north, and the Mediterranean Sea on the south and east.

CASTLE RISINGS. A borough in Norfolk.

CASTILE. The most opulent of the kingdoms into which Spain was formerly divided, before its subjugation to the Moors; it is now divided into two provinces, Old and New Castile.

CATEAU. A town of France in the department of Nord, seated on the river Seine.

- CELEBES, or MACASSAR.** An island in the Indian Ocean.
- CEYLON.** A large island of the East-Indies, separated from the East part of Hindoostan by Pulk's Straits.
- CHALONS.** A town of France in the department of Upper Vienne.
- CHARTRES.** A city and capital of the department of Eure and Loire.
- CHATHAM.** A town of Kent, seated on the river Medway. It is one of the principal stations of the royal navy: its dock-yard is supplied with all sorts of naval stores, and it is esteemed the first arsenal in the world.
- CHARLEROY.** A town of the Netherlands, seated on the Sombre.
- CHARLESTOWN.** A city and seaport of South Carolina (America).
- CHARMOUTH.** A village in Dorsetshire, near Lyme.
- CHAMPAGNE.** A late province of France, south of Burgundy, containing the present departments of Ardennes, Aube, Marne, and Upper Marne.
- CHATILLON SUR SEINE.** A town of France, in the department of Côte d'Or.
- CHESAPEAKE BAY.** One of the largest and safest bays in the United States of America; its entrance is between Cape Chartres in Maryland, and Cape Henry in Virginia.
- CHESTER.** A city, capital of Cheshire, seated on the river Dee.
- CHEVIOT HILLS.** A ridge of hills which run from north to south through Northumberland and Cumberland.
- CHILI.** A large country of South America, washed by the Pacific Ocean.
- CHINON.** A town in the department of Indre and Loire, seated on the river Vienne.
- ST. CHRISTOPHER or ST. KITT'S.** One of the Leeward Caribbee Islands.
- CINTRA.** A town of Portugal, in Estremadura, near the rock of Lisbon.
- CIRENCESTER.** A borough in Gloucestershire, seated on the river Churn.
- CIUDAD RODERIGO.** A strong town of Spain in the province of Leon.
- CLARENDON.** A village in Wiltshire, near Salisbury.
- CLOSTER SEVEN.** A town of Lower Saxony, in the duchy of Bremen.
- COA.** A river of Portugal, in the province of Beira.
- COIMBRA.** Capital of the province of Beira, in Portugal.
- CONGLETON.** A town in Cheshire, on the river Dane.
- CONNAUGHT.** A large province in the west of Ireland, containing five counties: the capital is Galway.
- CONQUET ROAD.** Off the coast of France, in the department of Finisterre.
- CONSTANTINOPLE.** The capital of Turkey, in Europe; seated between the Black Sea and the Archipelago.
- COPENHAGEN.** The capital of Denmark, situated in the Island of Zealand.
- CORNWALL.** The south-western extremity of England; it is very rich in tin and copper mines.

- CORSICA.** An island in the Mediterranean Sea, lying south of Sardinia, from which it is separated by the Straights of Boniface.
- CORUNNA.** A Spanish seaport in Galicia, near the mouth of the Groyne.
- COVENTRY.** A city in Warwickshire.
- CRACOW.** A city and late capital of Poland, seated on the river Vistula.
- CRECY.** A village of France, in the department of the Somme.
- CROTOY.** A town of France, in the department of the Somme.
- CROWN POINT.** A town and fort of New York, in America.
- CULLODEN HEATH.** A plain near Inverness (Scotland).
- CURAÇOA.** An island of Terra Firma, subject to the Dutch.
- CUTTACK.** Capital of Orissa, a province of Hindoostan; it is a port of some consequence, being on the only road between Bengal and the Northern Circars.
- CYDNUS.** A river of Cilicia, near Tarsus.

D.

- DANTZIC.** A maritime city of Prussia, seated at the mouth of the Vistula.
- DANUBE.** The largest river in Europe; it rises in Suabia, and, passing through Austria, Hungary, and Turkey, it falls into the Black Sea.
- DARIEN.** The Isthmus that unites North and South America.
- DARTMOUTH.** A borough and seaport in Devonshire, on the river Dart, near its entrance into the sea.
- DEAL.** A seaport in Kent, between the North and South Foreland.
- DELAWARE.** A river of the United States, which rises in New York, and divides it from Pensylvania, whence it flows through the province of Delaware into the Atlantic Ocean.
- DELHI.** A city in Hindoostan; capital of a province of the same name, and formerly of the Patna and Mogul Empires.
- DEMERARA.** A Dutch settlement in Guiana, near Essequibo.
- DENMARK.** A kingdom of Europe lying to the north of Germany; it includes Jutland, and the Isles of Zealand and Funen; also Norway, the Duchy of Holstein, Iceland, and the Ferro Islands.
- DERBY.** The chief town of Derbyshire; a borough seated on the north side of the Derwent.
- DETTINGEN.** A village of Germany, in the territory of Hanover.
- DEVIZES.** A borough in Wiltshire.
- DEVONSHIRE.** One of the western counties of England; it is extremely rich in marble.
- DIZIER, ST.** A town of France, in the department of Upper Marne.
- DNEÏPER.** A large river of Russia, which falls into the Black Sea near Cherson.
- DOMINICA.** The most southerly of the Caribbee Leeward Islands.
- DOMINGO, ST., or HISPANIOLA.** An island in the West-Indies, north of the Caribbean Sea, called by the natives, Hayti.
- DON.** A large river that separates Europe from Asia.

- DONAGHADEE.** A seaport of Ireland, in the county of Down.
- DORCHESTER.** A borough and capital of Dorsetshire, seated on the Froome.
- DORSETSHIRE.** One of the southern counties of England, washed by the English Channel.
- DORT.** An opulent town of South Holland, on an island formed by the Meuse.
- DOURO.** A river of Spain, which rises in Old Castile; crosses Portugal, and enters the Atlantic Ocean near Oporto.
- DOVER.** A seaport of Kent, one of the Cinque Ports.
- DOWN.** That part of the sea which is between the North and South Foreland.
- DRESDEN.** A city of Germany, capital of the Electorate of Saxony, seated on the river Elbe.
- DRISSA.** A small town in the government of Polotsk, in Russia.
- DUMBLAINE.** A town of Perthshire, in Scotland, on the Allan.
- DUNKIRK.** A seaport of France, in the department of Nord.
- DWINA.** A river of Russia that falls into the Baltic Sea at Riga.

E.

- EDEN.** A river that rises in Westmoreland, on the confines of Yorkshire, and, passing by Appleby and Kenrith, falls into the Solway Firth at Carlisle.
- EDGE HILL.** A village in Warwickshire.
- EDDINGTON.** A village in Wiltshire.
- EDINBOROUGH.** The metropolis of Scotland.
- EDMONSBURY, St.** A town of Suffolk; King Edmond was born, murdered, and buried here; hence the town derives its name.
- EGYPT.** A celebrated country of Africa, having the Mediterranean Sea on the north, and the Red Sea on the East.
- ELBA.** A small island in the Mediterranean, near the coast of Tuscany.
- ESSEQUIBO.** A Dutch settlement in Guiana, on a river of the same name.
- ESSEX.** A maritime county of England, washed by the German Ocean.
- ESTREMADURA.** There are two provinces so named, one in Portugal and one in Spain.
- EUROPE.** The smallest, but most civilized quarter of the globe.
- EUSTATIUS, St.** One of the Leeward Caribbee Islands.
- Evesham.** A borough in Worcestershire, on the river Avon.
- EVREUX.** Capital of the department of Eure.
- EXETER.** A city and capital of Devonshire; it was formerly the seat of the West Saxon Kings: it is seated on the river Ex.

F.

- FALAISE.** A town in the department of Calvados, on the river Anté.
- FALKENSTEIN.** A country of Germany, in the circle of Upper Rhine.
- FALKIRK.** A town in Stirlingshire (Scotland).
- FARO, CAPE.** On the Gulf of Cadiz, in Portugal.

- FERRARA. A city of Italy; capital of a duchy of the same name, lying between Mantua, Bologna, and Romagna.
- FIFE. A maritime county of Scotland, lying between the Frith of Tay and the Frith of Forth.
- FINLAND. A province of Sweden.
- FINISTERRE, CAPE. The most westerly cape of Spain and of Europe: the appellation of Finisterre, or Land's End, was given to it by the ancients, because they considered it as the boundary of the earth.
- FLANDERS. A country of the Netherlands, formerly divided into Austrian, French, and Dutch Flanders.
- FLINT CASTLE. In Flintshire; it stands on a rock, and is governed by a constable, who is also mayor of the town; which is seated on the river Dee.
- FLODDEN. A village in Northumberland.
- FLORIDA. A country in the north part of South America; it is washed by the Gulf of Mexico.
- FLORENCE. A city of Italy, capital of Tuscany; seated on the Arno.
- FLUSHING. A strong seaport of Dutch Zealand, in the Island of Walcheren.
- FONTENOY. A village of the Netherlands, in Hainault.
- FRANCE. A large kingdom of Europe, having the British Channel on the north, the Bay of Biscay on the west, Spain and the Pyrenees on the south, and Germany on the east.
- FRANCE, ISLE OF. A late province of France, so called from being bounded by the rivers Seine, Marne, Oise, Aisne, and Ourque.
- FRANCE, ISLE OF, or MAURITIUS. An island in the Indian Ocean, east of Madagascar.
- FRIBURG. A town of Suabia, capital of the Brisgaw.
- FRICHEL. In the circle of Upper Rhine.
- FUENTES DE ONORA. A town of Spain.

G.

- GAINSBOROUGH. A town in Lincolnshire, seated on the river Trent.
- GALLOWAY. A district of Scotland, now divided into East and West Galloway, or Kircudbrightshire and Wigtownshire.
- GANGES. A celebrated river of Asia, rising in the mountains of Thibet, which, flowing through the provinces of Oude, Allahabad, Bahar, and Bengal, falls into the sea a little below Calcutta.
- GARONNE. A river of France, which rises in the Pyrenees, flows by Boulogne and Bourdeaux, below which it is joined by the Dordogne, and their united streams form the Gironde.
- GASCONY. A late province of France, which with Armagnac now forms the department of Gero.
- GENEVA. A fortified city, capital of a territory of the same name, surrounded by the duchy of Savoy, of which it was formerly a part.
- GENOA. A small country of Europe, in the north-east part of Italy.
- GEORGIA. The most southern of the United States of America.

- GERMANS, St.** A town of France, in the department of Seine and Oise, situated on the river Seine, and adjoining a fine forest.
- GERMANY.** A large empire in the centre of Europe.
- GHENT.** A city of the Netherlands, seated on the Scheldt.
- GIBRALTAR.** A town of Spain in Andalusia, near a mountain of the same name, formerly called Calpe, which, with Mount Abyla, on the opposite coast of Africa, were by the ancients called the pillars of Hercules. The fortress of Gibraltar is built on the rock, and the garrison are confined within very circumscribed limits.
- GIRONDE.** See Garonne.
- GISORS.** A town in the department of Eure.
- GLASGOW.** A city of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, celebrated for its University.
- GLASTONBURY.** An ancient town of Somersetshire.
- GLENCOE.** A valley in Argyshire (Scotland).
- GLOUCESTER.** A city and the capital of Gloucestershire, seated on the east side of the river Severn.
- GOODWIN SANDS.** A large sand-bank on the coast of Kent, opposite Deal; it was formerly part of the main land.
- GOREE.** A small island of Africa, near Cape de Verd; it is of great importance on account of its trade.
- GRANADA.** One of the windward Caribbee Islands.
- GRENADINES.** A cluster of small islands north of Grenada.
- GRAVESEND.** A town in Kent, on the river Thames.
- GRAVELINES.** A strong seaport of France, at the mouth of the river Aa.
- GREENWICH.** A town of Kent, near the mouth of the Thames.
- GROSS GROSCHEN.** A village of Thuringia.
- GUADALOUPE.** One of the Leeward Caribbee Islands.
- GUELDRES (UPPER).** A territory of the Netherlands, situated on both sides the river Meuse.
- GUIANA.** A country of South America, lying north of Amazonia.
- GUIENNE.** Formerly a province of France, now the department of Gironde, and Lot et Gironde.
- GUILDFORD.** A town of Connecticut, in New Haven, county North America.

II.

- HAMPSHIRE.** A county of England, lying between Somersetshire and Sussex, and washed by the English Channel.
- HAMPSHIRE (NEW).** One of the United States of America, separated from Vermont by the river Connecticut.
- HAMPTON.** A village in Middlesex, on the river Thames. The palace of Hampton Court was originally built by Cardinal Wolsey.
- HAMILTON.** A town in Lanarkshire, seated on the river Avon, near to its confluence with the Clyde.
- HANOVER.** An electorate of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony, containing the duchies of Zell, Saxe-Lunenburg, and the principalities of Verdun, Grubberhazen, and Overwald; which are

- the patrimonial dominions of our Sovereigns of the House of Hannover.
- HARFLEUR.** A town of France, in the department of Lower Seine.
- HASTINGS.** A seaport town of Sussex.
- HELDER.** A town of the United Provinces of N. Holland, with a strong fort, which defends the entrance of the Texel.
- HELENA (St.)** An island in the Atlantic Ocean, on the western side of Africa.
- HERTFORDSHIRE.** One of the middle counties of England.
- HELVOETSLUYS.** A strong seaport of South Holland, in the island of Voorn.
- HEXHAM.** A town in Northumberland, on the river Tyne.
- HIGHLANDS.** The northern part of Scotland.
- HILLSBOROUGH.** A town of N. Carolina, in America; capital of a district of the same name.
- HINDOOSTAN.** An extensive region of Asia, comprehending all the countries between Tartary and Tibet, on the North of the river Burrampooter, and the Bay of Bengal on the east; the Indian Ocean on the south, and Persia on the west; it is divided into three parts, Hindoostan Proper, the Deccan, and the Peninsula.
- HODDESDON.** A village in Hertfordshire.
- HOGUE, (CAPE LA).** On the coast of France, in the department of Marche.
- HOHENLINDEN.** A town in Bavaria.
- HOLLAND.** A country in the west of Europe, lying between the rivers Rhine and Embden, and washed on the north and west by the German Ocean.
- HOLSTEIN.** A duchy of Lower Saxony.
- HOMELDEN.** A village in Northumberland.
- HOPE, (CAPE OF GOOD).** The southern extremity of Africa.
- HORNCASTLE.** A town in Lincolnshire, on the river Berne, formerly a Roman station.
- HUDSON'S BAY.** A large bay of N. America, so named because it was discovered by Capt. Henry Hudson, in 1610.
- HULL.** A seaport in Yorkshire.
- HUNGARY.** A kingdom of Europe, lying between Poland, Turkey, and Germany.
- HUY.** A town of the Netherlands, in the territory of Liege, seated on the river Maese.

I.

- ILDIFENSO, (St.)** A village of Spain, in New Castile.
- INVERNESS.** A borough of Scotland, and capital of the county; it is situated on both sides of the river Niss, near its entrance into the Frith of Murray.
- INVERLOCHY.** A village of Scotland.
- INVERARY.** A borough of Scotland, and the county-town of Argyleshire, situated on the north-west of Loch Fyne, at the influx of the Array.
- IONIAN ISLANDS, OR REPUBLIC OF THE SEVEN ISLANDS,** consisting of

a group of seven islands in the Mediterranean Sea, namely, Corfu, Paxo, St. Maura, Theaki, Cephalonia, Zante, and Cerigo; Corfu is the seat of government.

IRELAND. A considerable island, forming part of the British Empire, and separated from Great Britain by the Irish Channel.

IRVINE. A borough in Argyleshire, on the river Irvine.

ISTRIA. A district of Italy, forming a peninsula on the north-east of the Gulph of Venice.

ITALY. A large country on the south of Europe.

J.

JAGO, ST. The largest of the Cape de Verd Islands, which lie a few degrees north-west of Africa.

JAMAICA. An island of the West-Indies, discovered by Columbus in 1494.

JAVA. An island of the East-Indies, lying south of Borneo, and separated from Sumatra by the Straits of Sunda.

JEDBURGH. A borough-town in Scotland, capital of Roxborough-shire.

JENA. A strong town of Upper Saxony, in Thuringia.

JEMAPPE. A village of Hainault, in the Netherlands.

JERUSALEM. A celebrated city of Palestine.

K.

KALONGA. A city of Russia, capital of a province of the same name.

KARICAL. A town on the sea-coast of the province of Tanjore, in the East-Indies.

KATZBACH. A river of Germany, in the duchy of Silesia.

KEHL. A strong fortress of Suabia, seated on the Rhine; it is an important pass between France and Germany.

KENDAL. A town of Westmoreland, seated on the river Ken.

KENILWORTH CASTLE. In Warwickshire; the remains of this magnificent structure is said to be one of the most picturesque objects in the kingdom.

KENT. A maritime county on the east part of England.

KILLALA. A seaport of Ireland, in the county of Clare: it is a bishop's see, and is seated on the river Shannon.

KILLICRANKY. A village in Scotland.

KILSYTH. A town of Scotland, in Stirlingshire.

KINGSTON-UPON-THAMES. A corporate town of Surrey.

KINSALE. A seaport and borough of Ireland, in the county of Cork, seated at the mouth of the river Bandon.

KRASNOI. A small town of Russia, near Smolensko.

L.

LANCASHIRE. A county palatine, under the title of the Duchy of Lancaster.

LANDRECY. A strong town of France, in the department of Le Nord,

LANGUEDOC. A late province of France, now the departments of Upper Garonne, Aude, Herauld, Garde, Logère, and Ardeche.

- LANSDOWN.** A range of hills in Somersetshire, forming the northern boundary of Bath.
- LASWAREE.** A small village in the province of Delhi.
- LAWRENCE, (GULPH OF ST.)** That part of the Atlantic which flows between Newfoundland and the river St. Lawrence.
- LEEWARD ISLANDS.** That range of the Caribbee Islands which extend from Dominica to Porto Rico.
- LEICESTER.** A borough and capital of a county of the same name.
- LEINSTER.** One of the four provinces of Ireland, comprehending twelve counties.
- LEIPSIK.** A city of Upper Saxony.
- LEWES.** A borough on the river Ouse, in Sussex.
- LEXINGTON.** A town of Massachussets, in Middlesex county (America); there are two other towns of this name, one in Kentucky and one in Virginia.
- LEIGE.** A strong city of Germany, capital of the bishopric of that name.
- LIGNI.** A town of France, in the department of Meuse.
- LIMBERG.** A town of the Netherlands, capital of a country of the same name.
- LIMERICK.** A city of Ireland, and capital of a county of the same name: it is generally considered as the capital of the province of Munster, and is situated on the river Shannon.
- LIMOUSIN.** A province of France, west of Perigord and Angoumois, now the department of Upper Vienne.
- LINCOLN.** A city and capital of Lincolnshire.
- LINCOLNSHIRE.** A large county in the east of England, separated from Yorkshire by the Humber; the coast is flat: and at low water exhibits the submarine relics of a forest, which is a great natural curiosity.
- LISBON.** The capital of Portugal, seated on the river Tagus.
- LISLE.** A strong town in Flanders.
- LITCHFIELD.** A city in Staffordshire, seated on both sides of a small river, which unites with the Trent; it is a county of itself.
- LITHUANIA.** Formerly an independent kingdom, governed by its Grand Dukes, but is now incorporated with the Russian Empire. It has Prussia on the north, and Russia on the east.
- LIVERPOOL.** A borough and seaport of Lancashire, seated on the river Mersey.
- LOCHLEVIN.** A lake near Kinross, in Scotland.
- LOMBARDY.** A part of Italy, comprehending all the north part of Italy from the river Var, which falls into the Gulf of Genoa near Nice, to the shores of the Adriatic Sea, or Gulf of Venice.
- LONDON.** The metropolis of Great Britain, seated on the Thames.
- LONDONDERRY.** A city and seaport in the North of Ireland, capital of a county of the same name: it is seated on the river Foyle.
- LODI.** A town of Italy, in the Vaucuse.
- LOIRE.** The principal river of France. It rises in the mountains of the Cevennes in Languedoc, becomes navigable at Rouen, and falls into the Bay of Biscay at Paimbœuf.

- LOW COUNTRIES, OR NETHERLANDS, NOW CALLED BELGIUM.** A country of Europe, west of Germany, and north of France.
- LOUISIANA.** A country of N. America. lying between the river Mississippi and New Mexico.
- LUBEC.** A town of Westphalia, in the principality of Minden.
- LUCIA, ST.** One of the Caribbee Islands.
- LUDLOW.** A borough in Shropshire, seated on the river Tende.
- LUTZEN.** A town of Thuringia, in Upper Saxony, seated on the Elster.
- LYMINGTON.** A borough of Hampshire, near Southampton.
- LYNN, OR LYNN REGIS.** A seaport in Norfolk.

M.

- MACCLESFIELD.** A town in Cheshire, situated on the borders of a forest near the river Bolin.
- MADRAS.** The second presidency in India, belonging to the East-India Company: it is situated on the east side of the peninsula, on the coast of Coromandel; and is a fortress of great strength, including within it a regular and well-built city.
- MADRID.** The capital of Spain, in New Castile, seated on the Manzanares.
- MAHRATTAS.** A country of India, including Kandeish, Balana, and part of Berar.
- MAIDA.** A town of Naples, in Calabria.
- MAINE.** A province of France, and now divided into the departments of Sarthe and Mayenne.
- MAIDSTONE.** A borough and county-town of Kent, seated on the Medway.
- MALAGA.** A city of Spain, in the province of Granada.
- MALO JARISTOFF.** A town of Russia, in the government of Kalouga.
- MALOES, ST.** A French seaport in the department of Morbihan; it is seated on an island, which joins the mainland by a causeway.
- MALTA.** A small island of the Mediterranean Sea, lying between Sicily and Africa.
- MALPLAQUET.** A village of the Netherlands, in Hainault.
- MANCHESTER.** A large manufacturing town in Lancashire, seated on the river Irwel, and has a communication with the Mersey.
- MANS.** Capital of the department of Sarthe; situated on the river Sarthe, near its confluence with the Huisne.
- MARCHIENNES.** A town of the Netherlands, in the territory of Liege, seated on the river Sambre.
- MARENGO.** A village in the Milanese.
- MARIGNON.** A town of the Milanese.
- MARLOW.** A borough in Buckinghamshire, seated on the Thames.
- MARTINICO.** One of the Caribbee Islands.
- MASSACHUSSETTS BAY.** In North America, east of Boston.
- MEATH.** A county of Ireland, in the province of Leinster: it is one of the most populous and fertile counties of Ireland.
- MEAUX.** A town in the department of Seine and Marne, seated on the river Marne.

- MECKLENBURGH.** A duchy of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony.
- MEDITERRANEAN.** The sea that lies between Europe and Africa.
- MEDWAY.** A river which rises in Sussex, flows through Kent, and runs by Tunbridge, Maidstone, Rochester, and Chatham; it then divides into two branches: the one to the west enters the Thames, and the eastern branch, under the name of the East Swale, falls into the German Ocean below Feversham.
- MELUN.** A city and capital of the departments of Seine and Marne; it is situated on the river Seine.
- MENTZ.** An archbishopric and electorate of Germany, in the circle of Lower Rhine.
- MERIDA.** A strong town of Spain, in Estremadura.
- MESSINA.** A city and seaport of Sicily, seated on the strait that separates Sicily from Calabria, in Italy.
- MIDDLESEX.** One of the smallest but the richest county in England, bounded by Hertfordshire, Essex, Surry, Kent, and Buckinghamshire.
- MILAN, OR MILANESE.** A duchy of Italy, lying between Switzerland, Mantua, Parma, Genoa, and Piedmont. It stands in a delightful plain between the rivers Adda and Tesin.
- MILE END.** Part of the suburbs of London, on the eastern side.
- MILFORD.** A seaport town of Pembrokeshire, in Wales. Its harbour is esteemed the safest and most commodious of Great Britain.
- MINORCA.** An island in the Mediterranean, lying off the eastern coast of Spain; its chief towns are Cittadella and Port Mahon.
- MIRABEAU.** A town of France, in the department of Vienne.
- MISSISSIPPI.** The largest river in N. America: its source is unknown. The tributary streams that fall into it are numerous: and it enters the Gulf of Mexico at Florida.
- MODENA.** A duchy of Italy, lying between Parma, Mantua, and Tuscany.
- MOJAIK.** A city of Russia, in the government of Moscow.
- MONTREAU.** A town in the department of Seine and Marne, seated on the Seine, at the influx of the Somme.
- MONTERRAT.** One of the Leeward Caribbee Islands.
- MONTE VIDEO.** A seaport of S. America, in Paraguay, seated on the river La Plata.
- MORAVIA.** A marquisate of Germany, lying between Bohemia, Silesia, Hungary, and Austria.
- MORLAIX.** A town of France, in the department of Finisterre, seated on a river of the same name.
- MOSCOW.** A city of Russia, capital of the government of Moscow, formerly the capital of the empire.
- MUNICH.** A fortified city, capital of Bavaria, and the finest town in Germany.
- MUNSTER.** A large province of Ireland, containing six counties.
- MUNSTER.** A principality of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia.
- MURVIEDRO.** A town of Spain, north of Valencia.
- MYSORE.** A large province in the south of Hindoostan, surrounded by the British territories, under the Madras Presidency.

N.

- NAGERA.** A town of Spain, in Old Castile.
- NAMPTWICH.** A town in Cheshire.
- NANTES.** A city of France, capital of the department of Lower Loire.
- NAPLES.** A kingdom of Europe, comprehending the southern part of Italy.
- NARBONNE.** A city of France, in the department of Aude.
- NASEBY.** A village in Northampton.
- NAVARRÉ.** A country of Europe, lying between France and Spain, to which it jointly belongs. Upper Navarre is attached to Spain; the Lower to France; it now forms the department of the Lower Pyrenees.
- NEERWINDEN,** A village of the Netherlands, in Brabant.
- NEGAPATAM.** A seaport town in the province of Tanjore, on the Coromandel coast.
- NETHERLANDS (SPANISH).** The provinces of Brabant, Namur, Limberg, Luxemburgh, Hainault, Flanders, Artois, and Cambresis, which returned under the dominion of Spain, after the insurrection in the Low Countries, consequent upon the cruelties of the Duke of Alva.
- NEVIS.** One of the Leeward Caribbee Islands.
- NEVILLE'S CROSS.** Near Durham.
- NEWARK.** A borough in Nottinghamshire, seated on the Trent.
- NEWCASTLE.** A borough and seaport in Northumberland, seated on the Tyne.
- NEWBERRY.** A town in Berkshire, seated on the river Kennet.
- NEW FOREST.** In Hampshire, lying between Southampton Water and the river Avon. It is 20 miles in length, and 15 in breadth.
- NEWFOUNDLAND.** An island on the coast of N. America, separated from Labrador by the Straits of Belleisle.
- NEWMARKET.** A town in Suffolk, and the most celebrated in England for horse-racing.
- NIAGARA.** A town and fort of New York, situated on the east side of a river of the same name, near Lake Ontario.
- NICE.** A province on the borders of Italy, separated from France by the river Var, and the maritime Alps.
- NIEMEN.** A river of Russia, that falls into the Baltic Sea near Tilsit.
- NIMEGUEN.** A city of Holland, capital of Guelderland.
- NIVELLA.** A town of the Netherlands, in Brabant.
- NORFOLK.** In America, a seaport of Virginia, and capital of a county of the same name; it stands on the east side of the river Massachusetts.
- NORFOLK.** A maritime county of England.
- NORE.** The mouth of the Thames, where it falls into the sea.
- NORMANDY.** Formerly a province of France, remarkable for its fertility: it is now divided into the departments of Calvador, Eure, Manche, Orne, and Lower Seine.
- NORTHALLERTON.** A town in the North Riding of Yorkshire.

- NORTHAMPTON.** A borough, and capital of the county, seated on the Nore.
- NORTHUMBERLAND.** The most northern county of England.
- NORWAY.** A kingdom on the N.W. of Europe, celebrated for its extensive forests of oak and pine.
- NORWICH.** A city and capital of Norfolk, seated on the river Yare.
- NOTTINGHAM.** A borough and capital of the county, seated on the Trent, celebrated for its stocking manufacture.
- NOVA SCOTIA.** A province of North America, belonging to Great Britain. It is a peninsula, lying south-east of New Brunswick, to which it is joined by a narrow isthmus.

O.

- OLIVENÇA.** A town and fortress of Portugal.
- OMER (ST.)** A fortified town of France, in the department of Pas de Calais.
- OPORTO.** A city and seaport of Portugal, in Entre Douro e Minho.
- ORIENT, OR PORT L'ORIENT.** A seaport of France, in the department of Morbihan.
- ORLEANS.** A city of France, in the department of Loiret, seated on the river Loire.
- ORLEANS (NEW).** A city of America, the capital of Louisiana, seated on the river Mississippi.
- ORKNEY ISLANDS.** A cluster of islands to the north of Scotland, from which they are separated by the Pentland Firth.
- ORSCHA.** A city of Russia, in the government of Moghilov.
- OSTEND.** A fortified city of the Netherlands, nearly surrounded by two large canals, into which ships of great burthen may enter with the tide.
- OSTROWNA.** A small town in Russia.
- OUDENARD.** A town of the Netherlands in Flanders, seated on both sides of the Scheldt.
- OXFORD.** A city and university, in the county of the same name.
- OZNABURGH.** A fortification of Westphalia, capital of the principality of the same name.

P.

- PAITA.** A seaport of Peru, in South America.
- PALENTIA.** A town of Spain, in Leon.
- PALESTINE, OR HOLY LAND.** A country of Asia, having Syria on the north, the mountains of Scire on the east, Arabia Petria on the south, and the Mediterranean Sea on the west.
- PAMPSELUNA.** A city of Spain, capital of Upper Navarre: it is seated on the river Arga.
- PARMA.** A duchy of Italy, including the duchies of Parma Proper, Piacenza, and Guastella.
- PARIS.** The metropolis of France, seated on the Seine.
- PENRITH.** A town of Cumberland, near the river Eanont.
- PENTLAND HILLS.** A range of hills in Caithness-shire, Scotland.

- PENSACOLA.** A city of West Florida, seated on a bay of the Gulf of Mexico.
- PENNSYLVANIA.** One of the United States of North America.
- PERIGORD.** In France, now the department of Dordogne.
- PERTH.** A borough of Scotland, capital of Perthshire.
- PERU.** A large country of South America, having the Andes on the east, and the Pacific Ocean on the west.
- PICARDY.** Formerly a province of France, west of Normandy, now the department of the Somme.
- PINKEY.** In Scotland, near Edinburgh.
- PHILADELPHIA.** The capital of Pennsylvania, and formerly the metropolis of the United States of America. It is seated on the river Delaware.
- PLACENTIA.** See **PARMA.**
- PLATTSBURG.** A town of New York, chief of Clinton county, seated on Lake Champlain.
- PLYMOUTH.** A borough and seaport in Devonshire, seated on the river Plym. Next to Portsmouth, it is the most considerable harbour in England for ships of war.
- POICTIERS.** Capital of the department of Vienne, in France.
- POITOU.** A province of France, north of Angoumois, now the department of La Vendée.
- POLAND.** A large country of Europe, lying between Russia, Prussia, and Germany.
- POMFRET, OR PONTEFRACT.** A borough in the West Riding of Yorkshire.
- PONDICHERRY.** A city on the sea-coast of the Carnatic, once the most splendid European settlement in India, but now greatly reduced.
- PONTOISE.** A town in the department of Seine and Oise.
- PORTO BELLO.** A seaport of Terra Firma, on the north coast of the isthmus of Darien.
- PORTSMOUTH.** A seaport in Hampshire; it is the principal haven for ships of war, and the most strongly fortified town in England.
- PORTUGAL.** The most western country of Europe, bounded on the west and south by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the east by Spain.
- POTOSI.** A town of Peru, in South America. Near the town are the richest silver mines in the world.
- PRAGUE.** A fortified city and capital of Bohemia, seated on the river Muldau.
- PRESTON.** A borough in Lancashire, seated on the river Ribble.
- PRESTON PANS.** A town of Scotland, in Haddingtonshire.
- PROVIDENCE ISLE.** One of the least of the Bahama Isles.
- PRUSSIA.** A country of Europe, having the Baltic Sea on the north, Poland on the south, and Germany on the west.
- PUTNEY.** A village in Surrey, seated on the Thames.
- PYRENEES.** A chain of mountains which divide France from Spain; they extend from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic, and yield great quantities of timber, pitch, and tar.

Q.

- QUEBEC.** In America, the capital of Lower Canada, situated on the north-west shore of the river St. Lawrence.
- QUEENSTOWN.** In Upper Canada.
- QUERCI.** In France, now the department of Lot.
- QUIBERON BAY.** In the department of Morbihan, north of Belleisle.
- QUINTIN (St.)** A town of France, in the department of Côtes du Nord.

R.

- RADSTADT.** A town of Bavaria, in the duchy of Salzburgh, near the source of the river Ens.
- RAGUSA.** A city and seaport of Dalmatia, on the western coast of Turkey in Europe.
- RAMILIES.** A town of the Netherlands, in Brabant.
- RAVENSPUR.** A town in Yorkshire.
- READING.** A borough and the capital of Berkshire, seated on the Kennet, near its confluence with the Thames.
- REGGIO.** A fortified city of Italy; capital of a duchy of the same name.
- RHE (ISLE OF).** An island on the west coast of France, in the department of Lower Charente.
- RHEIMS.** A city in the department of Maine, seated on the river Vesse.
- RHINE.** A large river of Europe, which rises in Switzerland, and passes through the Lake Constance; it forms the boundary between Switzerland and Suabia, and also between France and Germany. In its progress it divides into many branches; and is at last lost among the mountains of sand, near the village of Catburjck, in Holland.
- RHODE ISLAND.** A small island of North America, celebrated for its fertility.
- RHYSWICK.** A town of South Holland, lying between the Hague and Delft.
- RICHMOND.** A village in Surrey, anciently called Sheene. It received the appellation of Richmond from Henry the Seventh, in allusion to his own title of Richmond, previous to his accession.
- RIPPON.** A town in Yorkshire, seated on the river Ure.
- RIVOLI.** A town of Piedmont, in Italy.
- ROCHFORD.** A town in Essex.
- ROME.** A city of Italy, in Campagna di Roma; it is the capital of the Ecclesiastical State, and is seated on the river Tiber.
- ROSETTA.** A town of Egypt, situated on an island formed by the west branch of the Nile.
- ROUEN.** Formerly the capital of Normandy, now of the department of the Lower Seine.
- ROVERGUE.** Now the department of Aveyron.
- ROXBOROUGH, OR TIVIOTDAL.** A county of Scotland, lying north of Northumberland and Cumberland.

- RUE.** A town of France, in the department of Somme.
RUNYMEDE. A village on the borders of Middlesex.
RUSSIA. An immense empire, comprehending all the eastern part of Europe, and the greater part of the north of Asia.

S.

- SAALE.** A branch of the river Elbe.
SAINTONGE. A province south of Poitou; it now forms, with the late province of Aunis, the department of Lower Charente.
SALAMANCA. A city of Spain, in Leon, on the river Tormes.
SALDANHA BAY. On the south-west coast of Africa, between Table-bay and St. Helen's-bay.
SAMBRE. A river of the Netherlands, which rises in Picardy, and joins the Mæse at Namur.
SANTANDA. A town of Spain, in Old Castile.
SARAGOSSA. A city of Spain, in Arragon.
SARDINIA. An island of the Mediterranean, west of Italy; it has forty-four small islands belonging to it.
SAVANNAH. A town of the State of Georgia, in America; chief of Chatham county, formerly capital of the State.
SAVOY. A duchy of Italy, between France and Spain.
SAXONY. A large district of Germany, divided into Upper and Lower Saxony, each constituting a circle of the Empire.
SCARBOROUGH. A seaport and borough in the North Riding of Yorkshire, famous for its mineral waters.
SCONE. A village in Scotland, on the river Tay, a little to the north of Perth.
SCOTLAND. That part of Great Britain which lies north of the Tweed; it was formerly an independent kingdom.
SEBASTIAN, (St.). A seaport of Spain, in Biscay.
SEGOVIA. A city of Spain, in Old Castile.
SEINE. A river of France, which rises in the department of Côte d'Or; it flows by Troyes, Melun, Paris, and Rouen, and falls into the English Channel at Havre de Grâce.
SENS. A town in the department of Yonne, standing at the conflux of the rivers Varme and Yonne.
SERINGAPATAM. A city in the province of Mysore, of which it is the capital; it is seated on the upper end of an island formed by the river Cavery.
SEVEN OAKS. A town in Kent.
SEVILLE. A city of Spain, seated on the Guadalquivir.
SHEERNESS. A town in Kent, on the north point of the Isle of Sheppey, at the mouth of the Medway.
SHEPPEY (ISLE OF). An island in Kent, at the mouth of the Thames, separated from the main land by a branch of the Medway, called the East Swale.
SHERBORNE. A town in Yorkshire, seated on the river Wark.
SHIRESBURY. The capital of Shropshire, situated on a peninsula formed by the Severn.
SICILY. An island of the Mediterranean, lying south-west of

- Naples, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called the Faro.
- SMITHFIELD.** Formerly called Smethefield, or Smoothfield, a large open space in the vicinity of London, where the tournaments used to be held. It is now the cattle-market.
- SMOLENSKO.** A city of Russia, seated on the Dnieper.
- SOISSONS.** A city of France, in the department of Aisne.
- SOLWAY.** In Scotland, on the borders of Cumberland, near the river Ark.
- SOLWAY FIRTH.** An arm of the sea, between Cumberland, Dumfriesshire, and Kirkcudbright.
- SOMERSETSHIRE.** A county of England, north-east of Devonshire.
- SOMME.** A river of France, which rises in the department of Aisne, flows by St. Quintin, Peronne, Amiens, Abbeville, and St. Vallery, into the English Channel.
- SOUTHAMPTON.** A borough and county town of Hampshire; it is also a county of itself, and stands between the rivers Itchen and Zest, which flow into an inlet of the sea, called Southampton Water.
- SOUTH SEA.** That part of the ocean which surrounds the South Pole.
- SOUTHWOLD.** A seaport in Suffolk, which stands on a cliff, near a fine bay.
- SPAIN.** A kingdom on the south-west of Europe, separated from France by the Pyrenean mountains.
- SPEY.** A large and rapid river of Scotland, which rises in Invernessshire, and flowing between Murrayshire and Bamfshire, enters the British Ocean at Yarmouth.
- STAINES.** A town in Middlesex.
- STAMFORD.** A borough in Lincolnshire, seated on the Welland.
- STIRLING.** A borough of Scotland, seated on the river Forth.
- STRALSUND.** A strong seaport of Swedish Pomerania.
- STRATTON.** A town in Cornwall.
- SUFFOLK.** A county of England, south of Norfolk.
- SURINAM.** A county of Guiana, in South America.
- SURREY.** One of the southern counties of England.
- SUSSEX.** A maritime county of England.
- SWEDEN.** A large country in the north of Europe, lying between Norway and Russia.
- SWITZERLAND.** A country of Europe, lying between Germany, Italy, and France; it is divided into twelve cantons.

T.

- TADCASTER.** A town in Yorkshire.
- TALavera.** A town of Spain, in New Castile.
- TARRAGONA.** A seaport town in Catalonia.
- TAUNTON.** A borough in Somersetshire, seated in an extensive and fertile valley on the river Tone.
- TEWKESBURY.** A borough in Gloucestershire, seated on the Avon, near its confluence with the Severn.
- THANET (ISLE OF).** A part of Kent, separated from the main land by two branches of the river Stour.

- TICONDERAGO.** A strong fort of New York, on the narrow passage between the lakes Champlain and George; it possessed every advantage that nature and art could bestow, but it is now a heap of ruins.
- TILBURY.** A fort in Essex, situated on the Thames, opposite to Gravesend.
- TILSIT.** A city of Russia, on the river Niemen.
- TOBAGO.** The most southerly of the West-India Islands.
- TORBAY.** A bay on the coast of Devonshire, formed by the Capes of Berry-head and Bohnose.
- TORDESILLAS.** A fortified town of Leon, in Spain, seated on the river Douro.
- TORRES VEDRAS.** A town of Portugal, in Estremadura.
- TOULON.** A city and seaport in the south of France, and capital of the department of Var; it is seated on a bay of the Mediterranean.
- TOULOUSE.** A city of France, capital of the department of Upper Garonne.
- TOURAINÉ.** A province of France, west of Anjou, now the department of Indre and Loire.
- TOURNAY.** A city of Flanders, in the Netherlands, seated on the Scheldt.
- TOUTON.** A village in Yorkshire, near Tadcaster.
- TRAFALGAR.** A promontory of Spain, in Andalusia, at the entrance of the Straits of Gibraltar.
- TRAVANCORE.** A province at the south-west extremity of Hindoostan.
- TRINCOMALEE.** A town, fortress, and excellent harbour, in the island of Ceylon.
- TRINIDAD.** An island on the north-east coast of Terra Firma.
- TRIPOLI.** A country of Barbary (Africa).
- TROYES.** A city of France, capital of the department of Aube, seated on the river Seine.
- TUDELA.** A town of Spain, in Navarre.
- TUSCANY.** A grand duchy of Italy, of which Florence is the capital.
- TUTBURY.** A village in Staffordshire, near the river Dove.
- TWEED.** A river of Scotland, which rises in Peebleshire, and forms the boundary between Berwick and England; it falls into the German Ocean at Berwick.
- TYROL.** A principality of Germany, in the circle of Austria.

U.

- ULM.** A free imperial city of Germany, in Suabia.
- ULSTER.** A province of Ireland, containing nine counties.
- UTRECHT.** A fortified city of the United Provinces, seated on the river Lek, which joins the Rhine.

V.

- VALENCIENNES.** A strong city of France, in the department of Nord, seated on the Scheldt.

- VALENTIA.** A city of Spain, capital of a province of the same name.
- VALLERY (St.).** A town of France, at the mouth of the Somme.
- VAUCOULEURS.** A town in the department of Meuse, on the river of the same name.
- VENAISSON.** A small but fertile country of France, included in the department of Vaucluse.
- VENICE.** A country of Italy, washed by the Adriatic Sea, or Gulf of Venice.
- VERD (CAPE).** A promontory on the west coast of Africa.
- VIASMA.** A city of Russia, in the government of Smolensk.
- VIENNA.** Capital of the Austrian dominions, seated on the Danube.
- VIGO.** A seaport of Spain, in Galicia, seated on a bay of the Atlantic.
- VIMEIRA.** A village in Portugal, near Lisbon.
- VINCENT (St.)** One of the Caribbee Islands.
- VINCENT (CAPE St.)** The most southern promontory of Portugal.
- VIRGINIA.** One of the United Provinces of America, lying between the river Ohio and the Atlantic Ocean.
- VITTORIA.** A town of Spain, capital of the province of Alaba, in Biscay.

W.

- WAKEFIELD.** A town in the West Riding of Yorkshire, seated on the Calder.
- WALCHERON.** A Dutch Island, in the province of Zealand.
- WALES.** A principality in the west of England : once an independent kingdom, but now an integral part of the British dominions.
- WALLINGFORD CASTLE.** In Berkshire ; no vestige of this castle now remains.
- WANDEWASH.** A town of the Carnatic, in Hindoostan.
- WARWICKSHIRE.** One of the middle counties of England.
- WASHINGTON.** A city of America, and the metropolis of the United States, in the territory of Columbia : it is seated on the river Potomask.
- WATERFORD.** A city and seaport of Ireland.
- WATERLOO.** A village of the Netherlands, nine miles from Brussels.
- WAVRE.** A town of the Netherlands, in Brabant, situate on the Dyle.
- WELLINGTON.** A town of Somersetshire, seated on the river Tone.
- WERE.** A river that rises in Durham, and falls into the German Ocean at Sunderland.
- WESTERN ISLES.** A cluster of islands on the west of Scotland, the chief of which is Lewis.
- WESTMINSTER.** A city in Middlesex, which with London and Southwark forms the metropolis of the British Empire.
- WESTPHALIA.** One of the circles of Germany.
- WEXFORD.** A seaport town of the county of Wexford, in Ireland.
- WEYMOUTH.** A seaport and borough of Dorsetshire, seated on a bay of the same name.
- WIGHT (ISLE OF).** An island off Hampshire, to which county it belongs ; it is remarkable for its beauty and fertility.

- WINCHESTER.** A city in Hampshire, seated on the river Itchen.
- WINDSOR.** A borough in Berkshire: its magnificent castle was originally built by William the Conqueror: it was rebuilt by Edward the Third; and from that time it has been a favourite residence of the English Monarchs.
- WIRTEMBERG.** Formerly a sovereign duchy of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, but erected into a kingdom by Buonaparte.
- WITEPSK.** A city of Russia, in the government of Polotsk.
- WOODSTOCK.** A borough in Oxfordshire. The poet Chaucer was born and died there.
- WORCESTER.** A city and capital of the county, seated on the Severn.
- WORKINGTON.** A seaport of Cumberland, at the mouth of the Derwent.
- WORMS.** A city of France, in the Department of Mont Tonnerre, seated on the Rhine.

Y.

- YORKSHIRE.** The largest county of England; it is divided into three parts, called the East, West, and North Ridings.
- YORK.** The capital of Yorkshire, and an archbishop's see; it is also a county of itself. The Mayor has the prefix of Lord, which was given by Richard II. York stands on the river Ouse, which, though 60 miles distant from the sea, is navigable to the city.
- YORK (NEW).** One of the United States of America, lying south of Canada.

Z.

- ZELL.** A town of Lower Saxony, and capital of a duchy of the same name.
- ZÜRZACH.** A town of Switzerland, in the country of Baden, situated on the Rhine.

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