

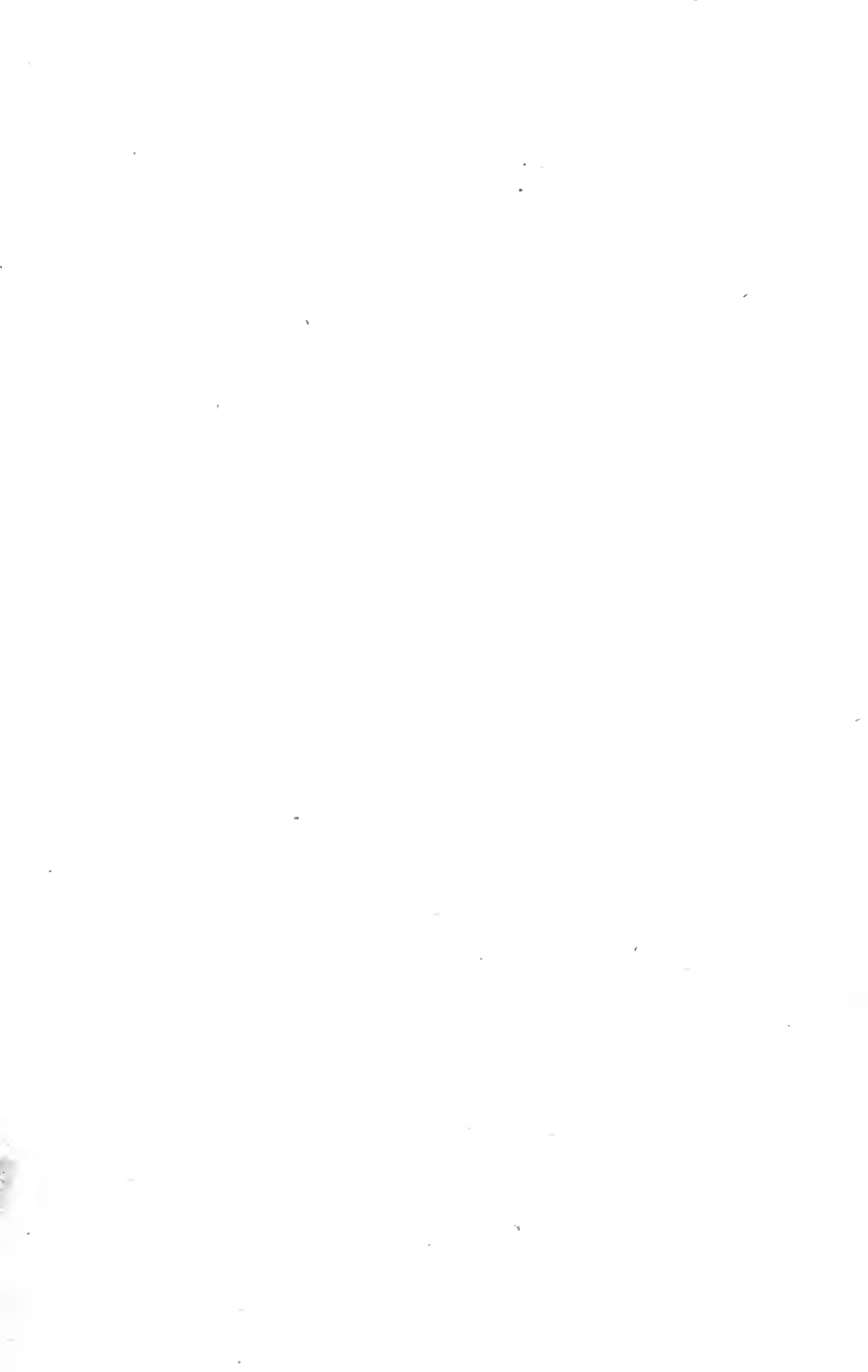
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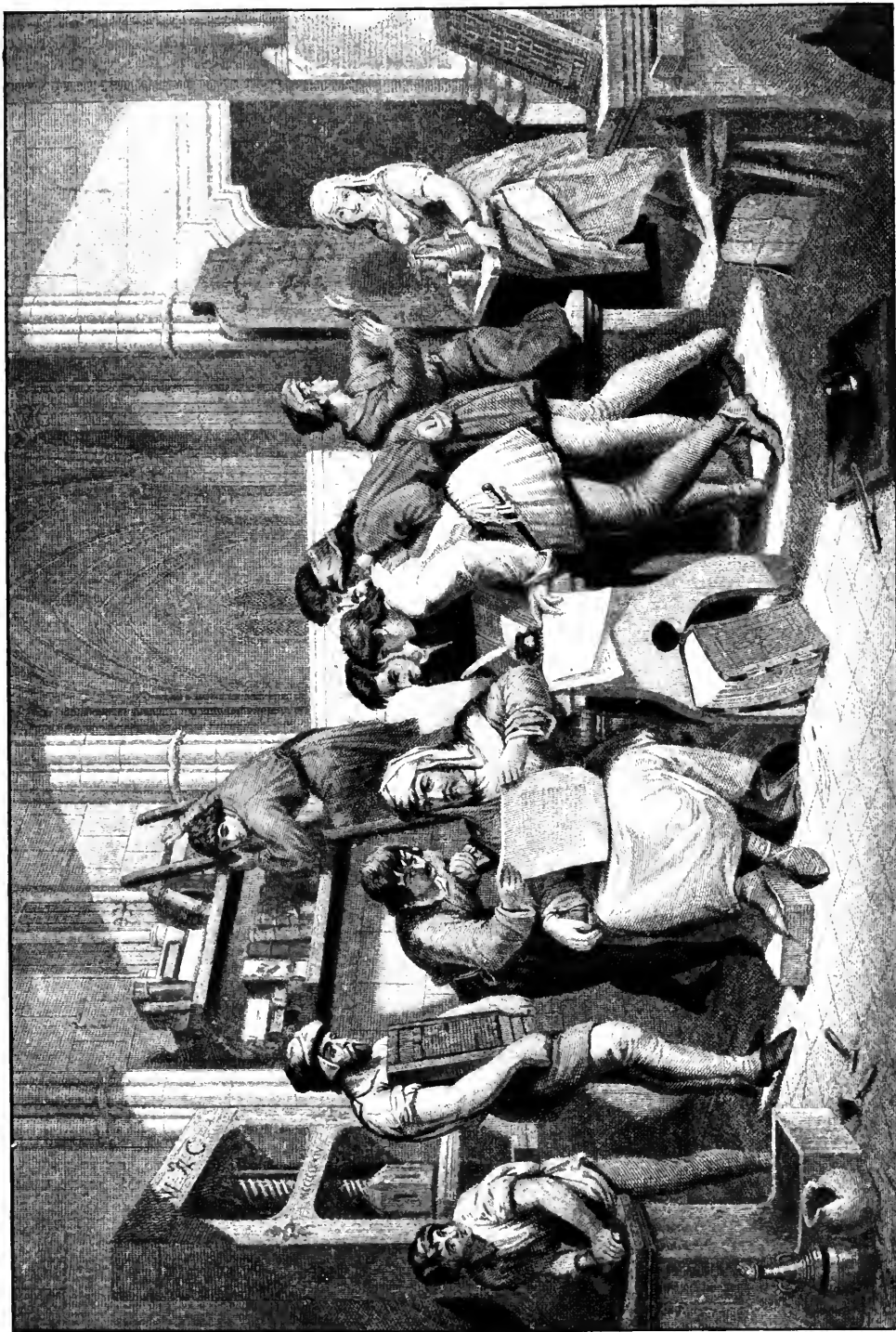
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CAXTON READING HIS FIRST PROOF

From the Painting by E. H. Wenher

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CONTAINING

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EARLIEST HISTORICAL PERIOD TO THE PRESENT TIME;  
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# CHAPTER XXVII.

## FEUDAL ENGLAND.

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### SECTION I.—ENGLAND UNDER THE NORMAN DYNASTY (A. D. 1066–1154).

As we have seen, the battle of Senlac, or Hastings, made WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR King of England, and he was the first of the four Norman kings who ruled that kingdom. At his coronation in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day, A. D. 1066, both English and Norman nobles were present, and good order prevailed inside the building. The question asked these nobles was: "Will you have William, Duke of Normandy, for your king?" Both parties answered "Yes," with loud acclamations. But the Norman soldiers outside, imagining that the noise signified violence against their duke, attacked the multitude who had assembled about the doors from innocent curiosity, and even set fire to houses in the vicinity. King William the Conqueror, after receiving his English crown from the Archbishop of Canterbury, succeeded in quieting the tumult; but only after a sense of personal wrong had thus been added to the deep national despair of the vanquished English.

William the Conqueror loved justice; and endeavored to reconcile his Anglo-Saxon subjects to his rule by enforcing the laws impartially on rich and poor, both English and Norman-French alike. He sought to learn English, for the purpose of better understanding and governing his new subjects. He placed his Norman countrymen in all civil and military commands, and divided among them the estates of those English soldiers who had fallen at Stamford Bridge and Senlac, but he first left all other proprietors in possession of their lands. He erected strong castles to overawe London, Winchester and other English cities; but he was careful to confirm all the commercial and other privileges which those cities had enjoyed. By thus covering the hand of steel with the glove of velvet, the Norman Conqueror of England so far silenced opposition that he considered it safe to revisit his duchy of Normandy, taking many English earls with him to swell his royal train

William  
the Con-  
queror,  
A. D.  
1066-  
1087.

His  
Corona-  
tion.

His  
Justice  
and Im-  
partial-  
ity.

and display the wealth of the conquered kingdom, while they served as hostages for the good behavior of their Anglo-Saxon countrymen.

**Race  
Ani-  
mosity.**

King William's absence from England was a disaster to the kingdom, as his officers were neither so just nor so wise as their master; and their violence and avarice excited animosity between the Normans and the Anglo-Saxons, which was not appeased for several centuries. About half of England yet remained unconquered. The men of the Danelagh scorned submission to the Norman Conqueror, and offered their homage to Sweyn II., King of Denmark, who entered the Humber with a large fleet and army in A. D. 1069 and besieged and took York, massacring the Norman garrison of three thousand men.

**Danish  
Invasion.**

**Saxon  
and  
Danish  
Rebell-  
ion.**

Great numbers of the English, who had hitherto smothered their discontent, now felt encouraged to cast off the Norman yoke, and the kingdom was everywhere ready for revolt. But William the Conqueror now acted with exceeding and effectual severity. After bribing the Danish invaders to return to Denmark, he turned upon the armed rebels of the Danelagh with a tiger-like ferocity; ravaging the sea-board so that no Dane should find either foothold or plunder thereafter, and laying waste with fire and sword the old fertile region of Deira, between the Humber and the Tees, the heart of the rebellion. The devastation was so complete that for the space of sixty miles north of York the entire region remained for half a century without a human being, a barren waste, and marked only by blackened ruins. One hundred thousand people, who had fled from their homes to the woods when William appeared, died of starvation after returning to the ashes of their homes.

**Devasta-  
tion  
of the  
Danelagh.**

**Rebellion  
Sup-  
pressed.**

This cruel work was performed in midwinter, but the hard-hearted king at once started for the West of England, where the revolt was still formidable; the starving army toiling painfully on its way, with the tireless king at its head, through an unbroken wilderness, covered with snow drifts and crossed by swollen streams; and with the fall of Chester the rebellion was virtually ended.

**Fate  
of the  
Rebels.**

Many of the vanquished Danes and Saxons took to the woods as robbers and outlaws. Others proceeded to Constantinople and enlisted in the guards of the Eastern Emperor. Many of the fugitive Danish and Saxon nobles were hospitably received by Malcolm Canmore, King of Scotland; among them being Edgar the Atheling and his two sisters, one of whom married the Scottish king.

**Confisca-  
tion of  
Rebel  
Estates.**

The vindictive Norman King of England then began a wholesale confiscation of the estates of the vanquished rebels. These confiscated lands were divided among the Norman knights and nobles who had fought under King William's standard, while the former Anglo-Saxon and Danish owners of the lands either found refuge in foreign countries or organized in hostile bands and waged a desultory warfare with

their Norman conquerors. Hereward, a Saxon noble, retired to the isle of Ely, where, protected by almost impenetrable marshes, he bade defiance to the Norman power for a long time. But William built a causeway across the swamps and finally forced the valiant Saxon chief to surrender.

**Here-  
ward's  
Defiance.**

After the Saxon rebellion had been suppressed William the Conqueror put Normans into all high places in Church and State; and Lanfranc, an Italian monk, whose piety and learning had already wrought a great reformation in the Norman monasteries, was now created Archbishop of Canterbury. Necessarily, all the business of the government and of the courts of justice, the services of the Church, except such as regularly employed Latin, and the exercises of the schools, were conducted in the Norman-French language. Thus Norman-French came largely into use, even among English people; but the English masses still continued to talk in their Anglo-Saxon tongue.

**Lanfranc,  
Arch-  
bishop of  
Canter-  
bury.**

The Norman Conquest of England was now complete, and William the Conqueror turned his attention to the organization of the government, with a view to its future security. For this purpose he put Normans into all places of power and trust; and the military power of the government was based on the Feudal System, which had already prevailed in Continental Europe for several centuries, and which the Norman Conqueror introduced into England as a bulwark to his throne. Under this system the great Norman lords were granted well-nigh absolute power over the persons and property of their English tenants, on certain conditions, the most important of which was that they should come to the king's support with all their vassals whenever he should call them to arms. These nobles, or barons, usually living in strongly fortified castles, and constantly surrounded by devoted bodies of vassals, thus became petty sovereigns, passing their time in hunting, or in making war on each other, and sometimes on the king himself. Although the Feudal System was a bulwark to the Norman Conqueror's throne against the vanquished English, that system became the chief danger to the throne when the spirit of disaffection infected the Norman nobility, who had been made powerful and independent.

**Norman-  
French  
Lan-  
guage.**

**Introduc-  
tion  
of the  
Feudal  
System  
into  
England.**

The completeness of William's confiscation of the English lands is seen in the fact that he was enabled to grant vast estates to his more powerful Norman followers; his half-brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, receiving two hundred manors in Kent, with as many in other parts of England; and grants almost as large being conferred on the king's ministers, Fitz-Osbern and Montgomery, and on such barons as the Mowbrays, the Warrens and the Clares; while the poorest Norman soldier of fortune had a part in the spoil, and the humblest Norman rose to wealth and power in his illustrious duke's new dominion.

**Rewards  
of  
William's  
Norman  
Favorites.**

The  
Saxon  
Chief  
Waltheof.

The last Englishman who retained any power or importance was Waltheof, son of the famous Siward, Earl of Northumberland. After being received into the Norman Conqueror's favor, Waltheof married Lady Judith, William's niece, and was presented with three rich earldoms. The high-spirited Norman barons, who always resented the imperious temper of their duke, had become still more restive after he had been elevated to a royal dignity; and at a wedding party, when the wine was flowing freely, an actual revolt was proposed. The Saxon Waltheof assented to the proposal of the Norman lords, but with his cooler judgment the next morning he revealed the plot to his wife. As Judith hated her husband, she availed herself of this means to accomplish his ruin.

His Sad  
End.

King William was then in his duchy of Normandy, where he received a letter from Lady Judith informing him of the conspiracy and exaggerating Waltheof's guilt. Waltheof himself hastened to Normandy to detail the entire affair to William. But the king's mind was influenced against the Saxon chief; and, contrary to his usual justice, he nursed his wrath until a day of retribution. Before William's return to England his officers quelled the revolt, with the assistance of the English themselves; but the punishment of the rebels was reserved for the king himself, and he executed it with unusual severity. Some of the offenders were blinded, and others were immured in dungeons; but Waltheof, the least guilty, suffered the heaviest penalty, being condemned and beheaded as a traitor. His faithless wife gained nothing by her treachery; as she soon fell under the king's displeasure, passing the rest of her life in shame and remorse, and being universally detested.

Rebellion  
of  
William's  
Son  
Robert.

Thousands visited Waltheof's tomb as a martyr's shrine. The English believed that the Conqueror's good fortune deserted him on the day of Waltheof's execution. Peace departed from him; and "his bow was broken, his sword blunted." William's last years were visited by the heaviest sorrows. His eldest son, Robert, a turbulent and misgoverned youth, desired to become Duke of Normandy even during his father's life-time, and was joined by a party of turbulent young courtiers in a rebellion against his father. King Philip I. of France, who was always jealous of the Duke of Normandy, gave Robert a castle on the Norman frontier for his headquarters, whence he and his wild companions sallied forth to ravage Normandy.

Combat  
of Father  
and Son.

William besieged the castle, and in a fight beneath its walls father and son met in deadly combat, both being concealed by their helmets. William was wounded, and his cry for help first made known to his rebellious son that the latter was about to slay his own father. Robert was instantly stricken with remorse and terror, and fell on his knees,

implored his father's pardon. Peace was restored for a time, through the intervention of the barons, and particularly of Matilda, William's worthy wife and Robert's mother. Robert then made his first visit to England, and was given the command of an expedition into Scotland.

Robert's  
Sub-  
mission.

The Scots and the Welsh were pacified; but King William had to encounter a nearer enemy in his half-brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, to whom he had intrusted the government of England during his absence in Normandy. Odo desired to be a king, but his ambition soon aspired to a higher dignity. He used his royal brother's treasures to buy votes in Rome, and bribed the same brother's soldiers to enter his service, for the purpose of transporting an army to Italy and making himself Pope by force in the place of Gregory VII., Hildebrand, whose arrogance and insolence had offended all princes of Christendom. The king returned from Normandy just in time to check his ambitious half-brother's bold enterprise. William arrested Odo with his own hands, and sent him to Normandy, where he was imprisoned in the castle of Rouen. William's good queen Matilda died soon afterward, worn out with cares and sorrows, and the Conqueror seldom smiled thereafter.

Ambition  
of Odo,  
Bishop of  
Bayeux.

His  
Imprison-  
ment.

The Conqueror's wife Matilda was the daughter of the Earl of Flanders, through whom the present royal family of England traces its descent from Egbert, the first king of all England. The famous *Bayeux Tapestry*—so called from being kept at Bayeux, in Normandy—was the handiwork of Matilda; and was a piece of canvas sixty-eight yards long and nineteen inches wide, on which scenes and figures giving a complete pictorial history of the Norman Conquest of England were embroidered in wool.

The  
Bayeux  
Tapestry.

William had many enemies. King Canute IV. of Denmark prepared an immense fleet, being secretly encouraged by people in the North-east of England, and hoping to recover his grandfather's island kingdom. This Danish fleet was "glued to the coast" by head-winds, which the superstitious believed to have been raised by the spells of weird women; but the magic in the case was no other than that which was wrought by English gold, with which King William's emissaries bribed the Danish leaders.

Great  
Danish  
Invasion.

For the better organization of his kingdom, and for the more certain collection of its revenues, William the Conqueror ordered a general survey of the estates of the English realm—the most celebrated act of his reign. Commissioners were appointed in all the cities and towns of England, except London and the four northern counties—Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland and Durham—to make an exact registration of all estates and capital. The reports of these commissioners were arranged and copied on vellum into the two great volumes of the *Domesday Book*, which is still preserved in the Tower of Lon-

Domesday  
Book.

don, and in which Englishmen may yet see the landed possessions of their ancestors eight centuries ago accurately described. From this famous register the crown ducs were carefully calculated and rigidly collected. Domesday Book and Windsor Castle are the most celebrated of the works of William the Conqueror yet remaining.

**The  
Curfew  
Bell.**

William the Conqueror established the curfew bell, which was rung from every church-tower and monastery in England, at sunset in summer, and at eight o'clock in the evening in winter, as a signal for the people to cover the fires on the hearth and to retire to rest. The law of the curfew was designed as a safeguard against conflagrations, and had prevailed for a long time in different parts of Europe, where fires were frequent and extensive in the wood-built towns.

**The New  
Forest.**

Among the worst acts of William the Conqueror was his conversion of large tracts of land into hunting grounds. He formed the *New Forest*, in Hampshire, by laying waste an extensive tract reaching from Winchester to the English Channel, burning sixty villages and driving the inhabitants from their homes. "He loved the tall deer as if he were their father," according to an old rhyme; and the killing of the king's game called forth a severer punishment than the murder of a man.

**Wager of  
Battle.**

William the Conqueror introduced a mode of trial called *Wager of Battle*, or *Single Combat*; by which an accused person was permitted to challenge his accuser to mortal combat, and if he came out of the struggle victorious he was pronounced innocent, otherwise he was declared guilty.

**The Con-  
queror's  
Good  
Measures.**

The Norman Conqueror abolished the slave trade, which had long been a source of wealth to the merchants of Bristol; and he formally abolished capital punishment, only one person suffering death for crime during his entire reign. He likewise became a friend and patron of the Jews, who were then a despised and persecuted people, and permitted them to erect dwellings and synagogues in all the principal towns of England.

**His Bold  
Defiance  
of Hilde-  
brand.**

William the Conqueror was a true Roman Catholic, and strengthened the Church by establishing ecclesiastical courts, which proved the source of so much trouble in the reign of Henry II.; but he bluntly refused obedience to the Pope's command to do homage for his realm. When Pope Gregory VII., Hildebrand, called on William to do fealty for his realm the Conqueror rejected the demand in this vigorous style: "Fealty I have never willed to do, nor do I will to do it now. I have never promised it, nor do I find that my predecessors did it to yours." No papal letters could be received in his kingdom without his permission. He required the Norman bishops and abbots, whom he had appointed to the places of their English predecessors, to lead the most

exemplary lives, and he instantly dismissed those whom he found unworthy.

“Great King William stood on Windsor,  
Looking, from its castled height,  
O'er his widespread realm of England  
Glittering in the morning light;  
Looking on the tranquil river  
And the forest waving free;  
And he sighed, 'Oh! land of beauty,  
Fondled by the circling sea,  
Mine thou art, but I would yield thee  
And be happy, could I gain,  
In exchange, a peasant's garden,  
And a conscience free from stain!'”

Poem.

William the Conqueror met with a characteristic end, losing his life on an errand of vengeance in 1087, after reigning over England twenty-one years. He had become corpulent during the latter years of his life; and once, while suffering from illness, he had been made the subject of a silly jest by King Philip I. of France. William felt so deeply mortified by this treatment that after recovering he laid waste the French king's lands bordering on the duchy of Normandy, and burned the town of Mantes. While riding through the burning town his horse reared among the hot embers that filled the road and stumbled upon a burning brand, and the Conqueror of England received mortal injuries from the pommel of his saddle from which he died at Rouen several weeks afterward. Just before his death he divided his dominions among his three sons; bequeathing the duchy of Normandy to his eldest son Robert, the Kingdom of England to his second son William Rufus, and a large treasure to his youngest son Henry.

The  
Norman  
Con-  
queror's  
Unfortu-  
nate End.

After receiving the announcement of their inheritance William Rufus and Henry hastened to secure it, leaving their dying father in the care of hirelings. As soon as the king had drawn his last breath his attendants rushed to horse, eager to secure their own interests under the new reign. The lowest servants stole every article which they could find, and fled, leaving their dead master on the floor unattended. The obsequies of the Conqueror were attended to by a poor knight named Herlounin, who as sole mourner attended the dead king's remains to Caen, to be interred in a magnificent abbey which William had erected in that important city of Normandy.

Unbe-  
coming  
Conduct  
of His  
Sons and  
Servants.

Herlounin.

Peace was denied the unhappy Conqueror even in death. Caen was at that very moment a prey to a conflagration, which destroyed a large part of the city and dispersed the funeral procession, leaving only a few monks about the corpse. Just when the words "Ashes to ashes, dust to dust" were about to be chanted, a voice rang through the abbey forbidding the burial of the body, because the ground where the grave

Disturb-  
ance  
of the  
Con-  
queror's  
Funeral  
Obse-  
quies.

was dug had been unjustly taken from its rightful owner, the complainant's father. The funeral rites were suspended while witnesses were examined and money was counted out to pay for the ground; after which the mortal remains of William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy and King of England, were laid at rest.

Character  
of  
William  
the Con-  
queror.

There was a grandeur about the Norman Conqueror that was not characteristic of any other King of England. This was alike manifest in his fearless humanity and in his dauntless ferocity. He was reserved, haughty, severe in his rule, ruthless in his revenge, "stark to baron or rebel," but "mild to them that loved God"; thus inspiring a mingled sense of respect and awe in all about him—a sense doubtless heightened by a consciousness of his great physical strength, as no ordinary man was able to swing his battle-ax or bend his bow. With a ferocity having few parallels in all history, he blotted out rebellious towns, and brought a death-like silence on offending districts; while, with a humanity in remarkable contrast with the spirit of the age in which he lived, he formally abolished capital punishment. He could brook no opposition, and was like a raging lion to all who withstood him, except to Anselm, the good Abbot of Bec, in whose presence he was always gentle and patient.

William  
Rufus,  
A. D.  
1087-  
1100.

WILLIAM RUFUS—whose surname signified "the Red," because of his ruddy complexion—who became King of England upon his father's death, in 1087, seized the royal treasures and several fortresses, upon his arrival in England, before making known his father's death. Archbishop Lanfranc then hastened to crown him before any opposition could be offered; and that ceremony was performed September 26, 1087, seventeen days after his father's death. His uncle, Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, headed a party which attempted to crown the new king's elder brother, Duke Robert of Normandy, King of England; but William Rufus made such fine promises to the English that they heartily rallied to his cause, thus enabling him to crush the rebellion raised in Robert's interest.

Bishop  
Odo and  
Duke  
Robert  
of Nor-  
mandy.

Oppres-  
sive  
Misrule of  
William  
Rufus.

The English soon had reason to regret their loyalty to the cause of William Rufus, as he forgot all his promises of good laws as soon as all danger to his throne was past; and, instead of the light taxes that they had been promised, they were required to bear the heaviest burdens to supply the king's extravagant wants. Wherever the king and court went they did as much damage as an invading army; as the king's followers lived at free quarters on the country people, and frequently plundered and sold the property of their hosts, also washing their horses' legs with the liquor that they did not drink. Thus William Rufus was a selfish tyrant, not deterred by law or religion from using his great talents entirely in the pursuit of pleasure and power.





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**BRITISH CASTLES**

Upper : Edinburgh Castle

Lower : Tower of London



William Rufus was his father's equal in personal courage, violence of temper and strength of will; but he was the Conqueror's inferior in all the higher moral qualities. He was coarse and profane in speech, mean and covetous in disposition, and prodigal and licentious in his habits. He kept his ministers busy contriving means to extort new taxes from his subjects.

**His  
Char-  
acter.**

Archbishop Lanfranc's death, in A. D. 1089, was a cause of intense sorrow to the English. Though an Italian, and thus a foreigner to both Normandy and England, he was the friend, advocate and protector of the common people—a noble office which became inseparable from the duties of Primate of the Church in England.

**Lan-  
franc's  
Death  
and Char-  
acter.**

William Rufus hated the Church for the same reason that a robber hates the judge—because it was the only power which could rebuke and measurably restrain his evil passions. A law of the realm bestowed on the crown the revenues of vacant bishoprics and abbeys. He refused to fill such vacancies as long as possible, so that he might appropriate their incomes to himself, or sold them to the most unworthy persons; and when the vacant sees were filled he burdened them with enormous taxes. By these means he robbed the Church of its rights and the people of their religious privileges. The money which the king thus obtained was used for the gratification of his desire for debasing pleasures, and for the enrichment of his worthless courtiers.

**William  
Rufus's  
Exactions  
from the  
Church.**

For some years after Lanfranc's death William Rufus kept for his own use the great revenues of the archbishopric of Canterbury, but finally a severe illness awakened his conscience, whereupon he appointed the good Abbot Anselm to the office of Archbishop of Canterbury. When William Rufus recovered his health he resumed his old crimes, but he found Anselm to be a firm and able antagonist. After a long and angry contest between the king and the Primate, Anselm retired from England and took refuge with the Pope.

**William  
Rufus  
and Arch-  
bishop  
Anselm.**

William Rufus and his brothers Robert and Henry spent several years in wars with each other for the possession of their father's entire dominions. Many of the Norman barons had estates in both England and Normandy, and found it impossible to serve two masters who were so at variance as were William Rufus and Robert. William Rufus failed in an attempt to wrest Normandy from Robert in 1090, after which these two brothers became reconciled and turned their arms against their younger brother Henry, whom they vanquished.

**Wars of  
William  
Rufus  
with His  
Brothers.**

William Rufus was recalled from Normandy by an invasion of England by Malcolm Canmore, King of Scotland, who was induced to make peace and to do homage to the King of England for his crown. Malcolm Canmore again invaded England in 1093, but was defeated and slain in a battle at Alnwick Castle in the same year. As a precaution

**Scottish  
Invasion  
of  
England**

**Carlisle Rebuilt.**

against such Scottish inroads, William Rufus rebuilt Carlisle, which had been in ruins for a long time, erected a strong castle at that frontier town, and peopled it with colonists from the South of England.

**Normandy Mortgaged to William Rufus by Duke Robert.**

A few years later William Rufus obtained the duchy of Normandy from his brother Robert in an unexpected manner. It was at this time that Christendom sprang to arms and engaged in the First Crusade to wrest Palestine from the hands of the Seljuk Turks, who had conquered the Holy Land and ill-treated the Christian pilgrims to the Holy Sepulcher on Mount Calvary. Duke Robert of Normandy was one of the leaders of the First Crusade. To obtain the necessary funds, he mortgaged his entire duchy of Normandy to his brother, King William Rufus, for ten thousand marks. William Rufus raised this sum by extorting the money from all classes of his subjects, even forcing the churches to melt their gold and silver plate to furnish their share. With this sum Duke Robert joined the army of the Crusaders, and William Rufus took complete possession of the mortgaged duchy of Normandy.

**King's Forests.**

Under William Rufus one-third of all the lands in England were *King's Forests*, in which the king's will was the only law—an adequate reason why they were the favorite resorts of the godless king and his reckless followers. William Rufus met with a tragic death, in the year A. D. 1100, while hunting in the New Forest, which his father had made in Hampshire; being pierced to the brain by an arrow from one of the hunting party, whether by design or accident was uncertain. Walter Tyrrel, one of the hunting party, was suspected of discharging the fatal arrow, but he always denied it, though he fled from the kingdom. The dead king's body was conveyed by a poor charcoal-burner in his cart to Winchester, where it was buried without religious rites. William Rufus was the third of his family who suffered violent deaths in the New Forest; and the poor people whose homes had been destroyed for this cruel pastime considered his fate a proof of the just retribution from Heaven for the Conqueror's heartless cruelty. William Rufus was never married. He built two historical edifices in London—the Tower and Westminster Hall.

**Henry I., A. D. 1100–1135.**

HENRY I., the brother and successor of William Rufus and the youngest son of William the Conqueror, was also hunting in the New Forest when he heard of his brother's death. He instantly put spurs to his horse and hastened to secure the royal treasury at Winchester; after which he galloped off to London, was saluted as King of England by the bishops and barons, and was crowned in Westminster Abbey three days after the death of William Rufus; thus usurping the English crown by forestalling his elder brother Robert, who was loitering on his way home from the Holy Land.

**His Usurpation of the English Crown.**

As Henry I. was at first opposed by the barons, who espoused his absent brother Robert's cause, he followed the example of his dead brother William Rufus by falling back on the support of the English. He soon conciliated all parties by granting a *Charter of Liberties*, in which he solemnly swore to observe the laws of Edward the Confessor; renounced the right to plunder the Church by allowing its sees and abbeys to remain vacant; promised not to sell or lease the vacant benefices of the Church; and bound himself to exempt his vassals, the Norman barons, from certain exactions and restrictions, on condition that the barons granted the same relief to their own vassals, the English people. He removed the evil companions of his brother William Rufus from the positions to which they had been appointed by that king, and recalled Anselm to the archbishopric of Canterbury.

His  
Charter of  
Liberties.

Henry I. had been born and educated in England and spoke its language well, while also being a great favorite with the English people. His writs and charters were issued in English, instead of Latin. His learning, unusual in that age, acquired for him the surname of *Beauclerc*, the "Fine Scholar." He pleased the English people most and gained the support of the Scots by marrying Edith, the daughter of Malcolm Canmore, King of Scotland, and a great-granddaughter of Edmund Ironside; thus uniting the Saxon and Norman dynasties, and restoring in the descendants of this princess the ancient line of Cerdic and Odin. Upon her marriage with Henry I., Edith took the Norman name of Matilda, or Maud.

His  
Learning.

His  
Scottish  
Marriage.

The character of Henry I. was a strange combination of virtues and vices. He was unscrupulous, false-hearted and revengeful; but he promoted the welfare and happiness of his subjects, encouraged manufactures, improved the coinage, established a system of weights and measures, repealed the odious law of the curfew, and reorganized the courts of justice. The system of justice established by Henry I. is the system now existing in England and the United States, with modifications and improvements. When he endowed the great towns of England with charters of freedom he struck a heavy blow at the Feudal System in his kingdom and gave a great impulse to liberty.

His  
Beneficent  
Actions.

Upon returning from the Holy Land, Robert took undisputed possession of the duchy of Normandy, his old inheritance, which he had mortgaged to William Rufus; after which he proceeded with his army of Crusaders to enforce his claims to the English crown. But the unbounded enthusiasm of the English people at the marriage of King Henry I. with an English princess could not be overcome; and when Robert landed in England, and raised his standard as the rightful heir to the English crown, he found himself opposed by sixty thousand resolute English yeomanry. The two brothers pitched their camps in

Civil War  
between  
Henry I.  
and  
Robert.

**Robert's  
Renuncia-  
tion.**

sight of each other, but both dreaded to begin the unbrotherly strife; and, after several days had thus passed, a treaty was made between them, through the exertions of Archbishop Anselm and others, Robert renouncing his claims to the English crown for a pension of three thousand marks a year for himself, while his followers were pardoned.

**Renewal  
of the  
Civil  
War.**

No sooner had Robert returned to his duchy of Normandy, and the Norman barons in England dispersed to their castles, than Henry I. began to confiscate the estates of all the barons implicated in the rebellion in Robert's interest. Indignant at his royal brother's treachery, the chivalrous Robert instantly summoned his vassals to renew the war. Claiming that Robert had thus broken the treaty, and finding that the barons of Normandy were dissatisfied with their duke, Henry I. crossed the Channel and invaded Normandy with a large army in 1106, defeated Robert's army and took Robert himself prisoner, received the homage of all Robert's vassals and thus took possession of Normandy, and then returned to England with his captive brother Robert, who was doomed to life-long captivity in Cardiff Castle, in Wales.

**Robert's  
Defeat  
and  
Lifelong  
Captivity.**

It is said that Robert having once attempted to escape, Henry I. caused his captive brother's eyes to be put out with a hot iron; so that this noblest of the sons of William the Conqueror lingered twenty-nine years in sightless captivity, finally dying in his dungeon a blind old man of eighty years, A. D. 1135, the very year of the death of King Henry I.

**Robert's  
Blindness  
and  
Death.**

**Quarrel of  
Henry I.  
with  
Arch-  
bishop  
Anselm.**

In the meantime a quarrel ensued between King Henry I. and Archbishop Anselm, in consequence of the king's claim that the bishops and abbots should be nominated by the crown and be its vassals. Anselm defended the Pope's right to make such nominations without kingly interference. Henry I. was finally obliged to yield some of his pretensions, and the Pope's power in England was thus greatly strengthened.

**Flemish  
Colonists  
in Wales.**

Henry I. settled a colony of Flemings in Wales, in the district of Ross, in Pembrokeshire. These Flemish colonists engaged in the tilling of the soil and the manufacture of cloth. They increased rapidly in numbers and in prosperity, and held their own against the Welsh princes who sought to expel them.

**Remorse  
and  
Crimes of  
Henry I.**

Henry's cruel treatment of his brother preyed unceasingly on his mind, and thenceforth he did not have a moment's happiness. He vainly endeavored to stifle his remorse by founding monasteries and erecting churches. Though suffering under the burden of one crime, he was meditating the commission of another, that of murdering his nephew William, Robert's son, a boy of ten years, whose rightful claims to the duchy of Normandy kept his royal uncle in continual dread and prevented him from enjoying what he had acquired so unjustly; but

Henry I. failed in his attempts to get possession of the young prince, who took refuge with King Louis VI. of France.

The French king's attacks on Normandy, in the name of the young refugee Norman prince, kept King Henry I. in continual disquiet. The armies of the Kings of England and France encountered each other at Brenneville, near Rouen, the capital of Normandy, in which the English were victorious, and which was the first battle between the English and the French. As each party desired to take prisoners for ransom rather than take life, only three knights were slain out of the many engaged in the battle.

King Henry I. reaped much sorrow and little joy from his ambitious and unjust schemes, and his last years were rendered sad and gloomy by the death of his good queen Matilda in 1118, and also by the melancholy death of his only son, Prince William, by shipwreck in 1120.

The king and his son had been on a visit to Normandy to secure the acknowledgment of the young prince as heir to all his father's dominions and to complete a marriage contract with the daughter of the Count of Anjou. After both matters had been arranged satisfactorily, they embarked in different ships to return to England. Some accident delayed the *White Ship*, in which Prince William had taken passage. The prince had ordered some wine to be given to the crew, and the sailors drank so freely that many of them became intoxicated. When the vessel got to sea the drunken pilot ran it upon a rock and all but one on board perished. When Henry I. was informed of the terrible catastrophe he fainted away, and is said to have never smiled again.

The only surviving child of King Henry I. was Matilda, wife of the German Emperor Henry V. For want of a son, Henry I. resolved to bequeath his dominions to his daughter, although neither Normans nor Saxons had ever tried the hazardous experiment of putting the crown on a woman's head. After the death of her imperial husband, Matilda was married to Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, on which occasion all the barons of both Normandy and England did homage to her as their liege-lady. The nobles repeated their oaths of fealty after the birth of Henry Plantagenet, Matilda's son with her second husband; and two years later, A. D. 1135, King Henry I. died, bequeathing all his dominions to Matilda.

Before Matilda could return to England to take the crown that was her lawful right, it was usurped by Count Stephen of Blois, nephew of Henry I. and grandson of William the Conqueror by his daughter Adela, Countess of Blois. Stephen, who was affable in his manners and familiar in his address, had made himself a general favorite with the citizens of London, thus paving his way to the throne.

War with France.

Battle of Brenneville.

Henry's Domestic Sorrows.

The White Ship and Prince William's Death.

Henry's Daughter Matilda and Geoffrey Plantagenet.

Henry Plantagenet.

Matilda and Stephen of Blois.

**Stephen's Usurpation.** Stephen of Blois and his brother Henry had been invited to England by King Henry I., who had conferred honors and estates upon them. In return, Stephen and his brother professed great gratitude and affection for Henry I., and expressed their desire for the accession of his daughter to the English throne; but as soon as Henry I. had died Count Stephen hastened to London, and by misrepresentations induced the Archbishop of Canterbury to crown and anoint him King of England. The religious rite of kingly consecration was highly revered, and a bull which Stephen obtained from the Pope confirming his title increased the respect in which it was held. Normandy followed England's example by acknowledging STEPHEN, who thus became King of England and Duke of Normandy, A. D. 1135.

**Stephen, A. D. 1135-1154.**

**Civil War of Stephen with Matilda.**

**Scottish Invasion.**

**Battle of the Standard.**

**Matilda in England.**

**Stephen's Defeat and Captivity.**

**Matilda's Temporary Triumph.**

**Her Haughty Rejections.**

**Renewal of the Civil War.**

The usurper did not have quiet possession of his throne, as Matilda appealed to arms to enforce her rights, thus involving England in civil war. Her uncle, King David I. of Scotland, invaded the North of England to enforce his niece's right to the English crown. With an army of wild and lawless Highlanders, the Scottish king inflicted havoc on both the supporters and the enemies of Matilda. The Archbishop of York took the field against this army of marauding Scots, and utterly routed them in the great *Battle of the Standard*, at North Allerton, in Yorkshire, A. D. 1138, driving them across the border.

Matilda herself came to England the next year with a small body of troops to claim her kingdom, and was joined by many barons who had become restive under Stephen's iron rule. Matilda's chief supporter was her half-brother, Robert, Earl of Gloucester; while Stephen's brother, Henry, Bishop of Winchester, the papal legate in England, likewise espoused her cause for a time, being offended in a violent quarrel between his brother and the clergy. Stephen was defeated and taken prisoner in a battle at Lincoln in 1141, and was sent in chains to Gloucester Castle.

MATILDA then entered London, and was solemnly acknowledged Queen of England by an assembly of the clergy. Her authority seemed about to be established over the entire kingdom; but her haughty manners and her violent temper, so much in contrast with Stephen's generous and good-natured ways, soon changed her friends into foes and cost her the crown. She peremptorily rejected the three conditions proposed by her supporters—the restoration of the laws of Edward the Confessor; the confirmation of Stephen's son Eustace in his father's inherited estates; and Stephen's release from captivity, on his promise to renounce all pretensions to the English crown and to enter a monastery.

The Pope's legate in England, offended by Matilda's rejection of his advice, took up arms against the haughty queen; and her brother



and chief defender, Earl Robert of Gloucester, was soon afterward made prisoner in battle. Matilda was obliged to exchange the captive king for her captive brother, and the flames of civil war raged more fiercely than ever for some years. The rapid approach of Stephen's heroic wife with an army, and the ringing of the alarm bells of London, caused a general uprising of the people, thus compelling Matilda to flee in haste from the city, and she found refuge inside the walls of Oxford Castle.

**Matilda's  
Flight  
from  
London.**

Stephen, again at liberty and at the head of his army, speedily surrounded Matilda's place of refuge, disposing his troops in such a manner as apparently to cut off every avenue of escape. The garrison in the castle ran short of provisions; and Matilda, with three devoted knights, clad herself in white to resemble the snow that then covered the ground, passed silently through the lines of Stephen's army in the night, crossed the frozen Thames, and took refuge among her loyal subjects in the West of England, whence she retired to Normandy four years afterward. About the same time her brother, Earl Robert of Gloucester, died.

**Her  
Escape  
to Nor-  
mandy.**

The situation changed as Henry Plantagenet, Matilda's son, grew to manhood. That prince had spent some years in Scotland, whence he made raids into England; and by his military talents he revived the confidence of his party. When he was seventeen years old he was made Duke of Normandy, with the suzerainty of Brittany, by his mother's consent; and upon his father's death, soon afterward, he became Count of Anjou and Maine. By his marriage with the great heiress, Eleanor of Aquitaine, a few weeks after her divorce from her first husband, King Louis VII. of France, he came into possession of the large duchy of Aquitaine and the counties of Poitou and Touraine. Thus Henry Plantagenet was lord of the whole western half of the Kingdom of France, his territories in that country being far more extensive than those of the French king himself.

**Henry  
Platagenet's  
Vast Pos-  
sessions  
in France.**

Henry Plantagenet's promotion in rank and wealth induced the barons of England to invite him thither, and in 1153 he crossed the Channel with an army collected from his French provinces, thus renewing the civil war with Stephen. But the bishops of England, under the lead of Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, weary of the strife that had been the cause of such calamity to the kingdom, brought about a treaty at Winchester, A. D. 1153. Stephen and Henry Plantagenet spoke with each other from opposite sides of the Thames, and agreed that Stephen should remain King of England during his life and that Henry should be his successor. It was also agreed that the grants of crown-lands which Stephen had made should be canceled, that the new castles should be demolished, and that the foreign troops should be dis-

**His  
Civil War  
with King  
Stephen.**

**Treaty of  
Win-  
chester.**

**Stephen's Death.** missed. Henry Plantagenet then returned to France, and peacefully ascended the English throne upon Stephen's death the next year, A. D. 1154.

**Defection of Stephen's Nobles.** Stephen was influenced to this treaty by the death of his eldest son and by the defection of his leading nobles, some of whom had turned against him, while more of them had abandoned the struggle and retired to their estates. This showed the practical workings of the Feudal System.

**Robber Barons.** To gain the support of the barons, Stephen had permitted them to erect new castles on their estates at the commencement of his reign, and had also granted new titles of nobility to his chosen adherents. Thus one hundred and twenty-six castles were erected, many of which were of great strength and built on inaccessible heights. Secure in these strongholds, the barons lived like petty princes, defying the king's authority and renewing old family quarrels. They plundered the country in the vicinity of their estates, and taxed their tenants to the point of starvation. Even the churches were despoiled of their wealth. The wealthy were waylaid as they journeyed, and were held or tortured for ransom. These nobles acquired the title of *Robber Barons*.

**Forest Outlaws.** Following the example of the Robber Barons, criminals and outcasts, idle soldiers and starving peasants, in all parts of England, took to the woods and became outlaws, thus making it perilous to travel in some districts without the protection of an armed escort. Banded together, sometimes in large numbers, these outlaws of the forest set the laws and the authorities at defiance, or retreated to their hiding places in the dense recesses of the forest, where they were safe from pursuit. Many of these bandits were rude and ruthless men, and spared neither age nor sex; while others were generous and courteous, and robbed the rich for the purpose of relieving the wants of the poor.

**Anarchy.** It is almost impossible to describe the anarchy and misery which afflicted England during Stephen's reign. Towns were deserted; farms were neglected; the sanctuaries were filled with helpless, starving people; and thousands fled in terror from the country.

## SECTION II.—EARLY PLANTAGENETS, MAGNA CHARTA AND PARLIAMENT (A. D. 1154-1272).

**Henry II., A. D. 1154-1189.** HENRY II., or Henry Plantagenet, Duke of Normandy, Brittany, Aquitaine and Gascony, and Count of Anjou, Maine, Poitou and Touraine, who became King of England upon Stephen's death in 1154, was the first of the renowned dynasty of the Plantagenets, who occupied the English throne for three hundred and thirty-one years (A. D. 1154-

1485). As Duke of Aquitaine he was, besides being suzerain of Gascony, feudal lord of the counties of Saintonge, Angoumois, La Marche, Perigord, Quercy, Agenois, Bearn, Auvergne, the seigniory of Bourbonnois, and the viscounty of Limousin. Being feudal lord of all the western provinces of France, from the English Channel on the north to the Pyrenees on the south, he possessed far more extensive territories in France than his suzerain, King Louis VII. of France; and when he became King of England he was a greater monarch than his lord-paramount, and was one of the most renowned and powerful sovereigns of Europe.

His Vast Territories in France.

The reign of Henry II. was one of the most important in English history, and was contemporary throughout with that of Frederick Barrossa in Germany. Henry II. was a man of hard, practical sense, of great firmness and energy, and had been carefully educated. He delighted in the society of learned men, and was a man of broad, liberal views in many respects.

His Reign and Character.

No king ever ascended the English throne under more peculiar circumstances—circumstances in some respects more appalling—than greeted the first of the illustrious French family of the Plantagenets on his accession to the sovereignty of this island kingdom. During Stephen's wretched reign the whole structure of society had fallen to pieces, regard for law and respect for religion having been swept away in the general wreck. The spirit of lawlessness, which commenced with the nobility, had permeated the priesthood and the peasantry. When priest and noble turned robber, it is not surprising that the helpless peasant either became an outlaw, or deserted home and harvest-field, and fled in consternation beyond the sea. The best elements of society had become demoralized for the time being. Though only twenty-one years old when he became King of England, Henry II. undertook the task of reconstruction with a courage and an intelligence that challenge admiration. His efforts were principally directed to the restoration of order and the correction of the abuses of the Church.

England's Wretched Condition at His Accession.

One after another of the Robber Barons was subdued, and their castles were razed to the ground; while the outlaws of the forest were mercilessly hunted down. The crown-lands were also reclaimed, and the foreign soldiers were expelled. The king issued two sweeping edicts, in order to increase the royal power and to weaken the baronage still more. One of these edicts, issued in 1159, substituted the payment of money, called *shield money*, for the personal services of the barons in time of war; thus enabling the king to keep a paid standing military force. The other edict, issued in 1181, restored the militia; making every freeman a soldier, always to be properly armed, and subject to the king's call in time of national danger.

Suppression of Lawlessness.

Henry II.  
and the  
Church.

The struggle of Henry II. with the Church was more difficult and more dangerous than that with the barons. Under the Saxon and Danish Kings of England the judges and the bishops sat together on the civil benches; but William the Conqueror had established separate courts for ecclesiastical cases, over which the bishops alone presided. Criminals among the clergy were thus put beyond the jurisdiction of the civil authorities, and by a canon of the Church the priesthood could not impose the death penalty upon one of their own order, so that these priestly criminals were likewise exempt from extreme punishment. Under such a condition of things, it is no wonder that the Church had become arrogant and independent, or that during the first few years of the reign of Henry II. one hundred murders were committed by priests, some of whom were punished merely by some trifling penance or degradation in office, while the others suffered no punishment whatever.

Thomas  
à Becket,  
Arch-  
bishop of  
Canter-  
bury.

The struggle between church and state which now convulsed England was far more violent than the contest between King Edwy and St. Dunstan or the controversies which William Rufus and Henry I. had with Archbishop Anselm. Thomas à Becket, the son of a London merchant, was the first Englishman since Waltheof who had risen to great power in England. He had improved many fine talents by studying law at Bologna, in Italy; and after his return to his native land King Henry II. lavished offices, revenues and honors upon him. He was created Lord Chancellor, and was followed by an army of knights. Great nobles, and even the king, often accepted his hospitality and sought his aid in the education of their sons. Henry II. finally appointed Becket to the dignity of Archbishop of Canterbury, thinking he was securing a useful instrument for his struggle with the Church, but in this expectation he was sadly disappointed.

Change in  
His Char-  
acter.

Becket's character appeared to experience a sudden and complete change from the time that he became Primate of the Church in England. The man who had before been the king's bosom friend and companion—the man whom Henry II. had raised from poverty to affluence, from the position of tutor to his children to the highest ecclesiastical dignity in England—now withdrew from court, and immediately abandoned his former pomp and adopted habits of austerity and asceticism. Instead of the costly banquets in which he had formerly indulged, he now subsisted on a scanty fare of bread and water. He tore his flesh with the scourge, and daily washed the feet of thirteen beggars in imitation of his Master's humility. All this was practically to declare hostility to his king.

His  
Quarrel  
with  
Henry II.

Becket at once made himself the uncompromising champion of the Pope's supremacy in England, and this action on his part was highly

resented by King Henry II. The chief point of controversy was the claim of the Church to judge all crimes committed by persons in her employ, independently of the civil courts. Soon after Becket's consecration as Archbishop of Canterbury a clerk committed a disgraceful crime and sought to conceal it by murder. The king ordered that the offender be given up to justice. Archbishop Becket kept him in the bishop's prison, and insisted that he could be punished only by removal from his office.

At the summons of King Henry II., a great council of nobles and bishops convened at the castle of Clarendon in January, 1164. With the consent of this assembly, an important charter called the *Constitutions of Clarendon* was given to the English people. This charter provided that the civil courts should have a certain jurisdiction over the ecclesiastical tribunals, and that even priestly criminals, when convicted by the Church courts, should be stripped of their orders and turned over to the civil authorities for punishment.

After violent resistance, Archbishop Becket swore to support the Constitutions of Clarendon; but when Pope Alexander III. published a bull annulling this charter the English Primate expressed great sorrow and contrition for his former submission, and sought to unite all the English bishops in a league against King Henry II. The king turned upon the archbishop with such fury that Becket fled from the kingdom. King Louis VII. of France, who had many causes of jealousy against the King of England, gladly received the refugee Primate with all the honors due to a saint and a martyr; and Becket remained an exile in France for six years (A. D. 1164-1170).

In 1170, while Becket was still absent from England, Henry II. caused his eldest son Henry to be crowned as associate monarch by the Archbishop of York. Becket obtained a sentence from Pope Alexander III. declaring that the Archbishop of Canterbury alone had the right to crown any English sovereign, deposing the Archbishop of York and excommunicating all the bishops of England who had taken any part in this ceremony of coronation. As King Henry II. was then in Normandy, Becket returned to England and was received with shouts of welcome by the clergy and by the common people, both of whom regarded the Primate as their champion against royal tyranny. Becket came back as haughty and determined as ever, and immediately caused it to be published that he brought with him the sentence of excommunication pronounced by the Pope against the Archbishop of York and two other bishops who had taken part in the coronation of Prince Henry, "the Younger King."

When King Henry II. was informed of Becket's haughty conduct, and of his triumphal entry into Rochester and Southwark, he was over-

**Constitutions of Clarendon.**

**Renewal of the Quarrel and Becket's Exile in France.**

**Becket and the Archbishop of York.**

**Becket's Return to England.**

**Anger of Henry II.**

come by a fit of anger, during which he exclaimed: "What cowards have I brought up in my court! Is there none of my servants who will rid me of this pestilent priest?" Four knights in attendance on the king in Normandy—Reginald Fitz-Urse, William de Traci, Hugh de Moreville and Richard Brito—took the angry king at his word, proceeded to England and assassinated Becket before the altar of Canterbury Cathedral, December 11, 1170. The murdered Primate was one of the most remarkable men that England ever produced; being "a prelate of the most lofty, intrepid and inflexible spirit, who was able to cover to the world, and probably to himself, the enterprises of pride and ambition under the disguise of sanctity, and of zeal for the interests of religion."

Assas-  
sination  
of Becket

Consternation  
of  
Henry II.

Henry II. had intended to arrest Becket, but the news of the assassination of the Primate filled the king with consternation. Henry II. solemnly protested his innocence of complicity in the murder, and the Pope accepted his oath and consented to be appeased. Becket's tomb was revered as a martyr's shrine. In one year a hundred thousand pilgrims flocked thither from all parts of Christendom, and miracles were said to have been wrought by the holy relics. The murdered Primate was canonized by the Pope under the title of St. Thomas of Canterbury. The assassins went on a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, where they died; and on their tomb was inscribed this epitaph: "Here lie the wretches who murdered St. Thomas of Canterbury."

Canoniza-  
tion of  
Becket.

The  
King's  
Triumph.

The struggle between church and state ended in the king's ultimate triumph. The clergy and the laity were made equal before the law. The supremacy of the state over the Church was achieved. Although Henry II. assented to a modification of the Constitutions of Clarendon after the assassination of Becket, this modification was merely nominal; the practice of the courts and the submission of the bishops showing that the king still retained all the substantial fruits of victory.

English  
Conquest  
of  
Ireland.

Previous  
History of  
Ireland.

One of the most important events of the reign of Henry II. was the conquest of Ireland, the ancient Hibernia, also known as Erin and the Emerald Isle, and the annexation of that fair isle to the realm of England. Many of the Celtic tribes of Ireland had early embraced Christianity; and the conversion of the inhabitants was completed by St. Patrick in the fifth century. After the Saxons had conquered Britain the Irish made peace with them, instructed them in religion and founded schools among them. St. Bridget flourished in the sixth century, when the principal monastery of Ireland contained over a thousand monks.

St.  
Patrick  
and St.  
Bridget.

For two centuries the piratical Danes ravaged Ireland as well as England and the Continent, and subdued the Irish people, who were under different chiefs. The Danes oppressed the conquered Irish with

heavy taxes, subjecting the master of every house to a *nose-tax*, so called because the master of the house was required to pay an ounce of gold annually or have his nose cut off. The Danes were finally defeated by Brian Boru, King of Munster, who fought twenty-five battles with these marauders. This famous Irish hero maintained a large army and a fleet of three hundred vessels. To test the order prevailing in his kingdom, Brian Boru directed that a beautiful virgin should traverse it unprotected, carrying a costly ring on a wand; which she did without molestation. In the year A. D. 1000 Brian Boru was elected king of all Ireland, and the Irish people enjoyed peace and prosperity under his wise and vigorous administration, while intercourse was opened by Irish ambassadors with the various courts of Europe. Brian Boru finally broke the power of the Danes in Ireland in the great battle of Clontarf, near Dublin, A. D. 1014, but purchased his victory with the cost of his life. After his death Ireland was again divided, and devastated by wars between the rival chiefs or kings.

What first suggested to England the design of conquering and annexing Ireland was the Irish kidnapping of Englishmen and carrying them into slavery in Ireland, which had been going on for many years. In the very year that Henry II. became King of England, A. D. 1154, Nicholas Breakspear, the only Englishman who ever became Pope, was elected to the Chair of St. Peter and assumed the title of Adrian IV. Pope Adrian IV. immediately granted authority to King Henry II. to conquer Ireland, which was then divided into five native kingdoms—Ulster, Munster, Leinster, Connaught and Meath.

Although Pope Adrian IV. had granted to King Henry II. the right to invade and conquer Ireland as early as 1154, nothing was attempted in that direction until 1169. At it was usual for one of the five kings of Ireland to take the lead in the wars among them, he was styled king of the whole island. At this time Roderic O'Connor, King of Connaught, was elevated to that dignity. Dermot MacMorrogh, King of Leinster, had kidnapped the daughter of the King of Meath, who was strengthened by the alliance of the King of Connaught, and was thus enabled to invade Leinster and punish its king. Thereupon Dermot MacMorrogh appealed to the King of England for aid against the other Irish kings.

King Henry II. readily accepted Dermot MacMorrogh's offer, but as he was then occupied in his French dominions he only gave letters-patent authorizing all his subjects to aid the King of Leinster to recover his dominions. Relying on this authority, Dermot MacMorrogh returned to Bristol, in England, where, after some difficulty, he concluded a treaty with Richard de Clare, Earl of Pembroke, surnamed

Danish  
Invasions  
and  
Conquest  
of  
Ireland.

Danes  
Defeated  
by Brian  
Boru.

His  
Rule as  
King of  
Ireland.

His  
Victory  
and  
Death at  
Clontarf.

Irish  
Enslave-  
ment of  
English-  
men.

Grant of  
Pope  
Adrian  
IV. to  
Henry II.

Roderic  
O'Connor  
and  
Dermot  
Mac-  
Morrogh.

Strong-  
bow's  
Aid to  
Dermot  
Mac-  
Morrogh.

*Strongbow*, who agreed to aid the exiled King of Leinster in recovering his dominions on condition of receiving Dermot's daughter Eva in marriage and being declared heir of his kingdom. Being thus assured of aid from England, Dermot MacMorrogh returned privately to Ireland, and concealed himself during the winter in the monastery of Ferns, which he had founded.

Norman  
Adventurers in  
Ireland.

In the spring of 1169 Robert Fitz-Stephen, a Norman knight, landed in Ireland, at Bannow, on the Bann, a creek near Wexford, with one hundred and thirty knights, sixty esquires and three hundred archers. They were soon joined by Maurice Pendergast, who brought over ten knights and sixty archers about the same time; and with this small band they besieged and took Wexford, A. D. 1169. The Norman adventurers were reinforced by one hundred and fifty men under Maurice Fitz-Gerald, and the entire band composed a small army which struck awe into the barbarous Irish. Roderic O'Connor, King of Connaught and chief monarch of Ireland, ventured to oppose the Norman invaders, but he was defeated; and the Prince of Ossory was obliged to submit soon afterward and to give hostages for his future good behavior.

Defeats  
of Irish  
Princes.

Dermot  
Mac-  
Morrogh  
and  
Strong-  
bow.

Being thus reinstated in his hereditary Kingdom of Leinster, Dermot MacMorrogh soon entertained hopes of extending his dominion over all Ireland. With these views he sought to expedite Strongbow, who had been thus far prohibited by King Henry II. from crossing over into Ireland. Dermot MacMorrogh endeavored to arouse his ambition by the glory of the conquest of Ireland, and to excite his avarice by the advantages which that conquest would procure. He expatiated on the cowardice of the Irish and on the certainty of success.

Strong-  
bow's  
Invasion  
of  
Ireland.

Strongbow first sent over Raymond, one of his retinue, with ten knights and seventy archers; and after receiving permission for himself from King Henry II., soon afterward, he landed in Ireland with two hundred cavalry and a hundred archers. All these English forces were now combined and became irresistible, although altogether they numbered only about eleven hundred men. The Irish were so barbarous that they were unable to withstand this Anglo-Norman chivalry, and were everywhere routed. Strongbow speedily took the city of Waterford soon after landing, A. D. 1170, and also took Dublin by assault. Soon afterward Strongbow married Eva, Dermot MacMorrogh's daughter; and Dermot himself died about the same time, bequeathing his Kingdom of Leinster to Strongbow, according to the treaty between them.

His  
Victories.

His  
Marriage  
with Eva.

Invasion  
of Ireland  
by  
Henry II.

Ireland was thus practically subdued, as nothing was capable of resisting the further progress of the English arms; and Henry II. was now willing to share personally in those honors which the Norman adventurers had already secured. He therefore landed in Ireland in



1171 with five hundred knights and some soldiers, simply to take possession of a kingdom already conquered and to receive the homage of his new subjects. He confirmed most of the Irish chiefs in possession of their estates, on condition of feudal homage; and after appointing Strongbow as his Seneschal, or Lord Lieutenant, of Ireland, he returned to England to receive the congratulations of his subjects and the Pope's confirmation of his new sovereignty.

Thus seven centuries ago the English conquered the Emerald Isle with trifling expense of blood and treasure, and that beautiful island has ever since been an appendage of the English crown. But the English authority was merely nominal; and for centuries Ireland remained in a condition of complete anarchy, torn by the contentions of the Anglo-Norman lords and the native Irish chiefs.

One of the most interesting works of the reign of Henry II. was his improvement of the judiciary system founded by Henry I. He divided England into six judicial districts, each with three traveling judges, who went regularly on their circuits, having jurisdiction over noble and peasant, and trying all cases brought before them. In this way the subject was spared the great expense of a journey to London, and justice was made easily accessible to all the people of England.

The most radical change during the reign of Henry II. was that made in the form of trial. We have alluded to the method of trial called the Ordeal, or the Judgment of God, and also to the form called Compurgation, when the accused was convicted or acquitted on the oaths of his kinsmen or neighbors—both of which modes were brought from Germany by the Anglo-Saxons. We have also referred to the method of Wager of Battle, or Single Combat, introduced by William the Conqueror.

The first mention of Trial by Jury handed down to us occurred during the reign of Henry II., when by the Assize of Clarendon, in 1166, twelve freemen chosen from the hundred, and four from each township, acting in the double capacity of judges and witnesses, presented alleged criminals for the Judgment of God or the Wager of Battle. The same Assize abolished Compurgation.

The Plantagenets inherited the tendency to family quarrels, along with their dominions, from the Norman dynasty. The four sons of Henry II. were aided and abetted by their mother, Queen Eleanor, and by her former husband, King Louis VII. of France, in rebellion against their father. War broke out in Henry's French dominions; and at the same time his English kingdom was invaded by the Scots from the north and by the Flemings from the east.

These calamities aroused the king's sluggish conscience, and he determined to make peace with the murdered Thomas à Becket. Accord-

The  
English  
Conquest  
of  
Ireland.

Circuit  
Judges in  
England.

Former  
Modes of  
Trial.

Jury  
Trial.

Rebellion  
of the  
Sons of  
Henry II.

Foreign  
Inva-  
sions.

**Penance of Henry II. at Canterbury Cathedral.**

ingly in 1174 he returned to England from Normandy on a pilgrimage of penitence, and when he came within sight of Canterbury Cathedral he dismounted and walked bareheaded and barefooted to Becket's tomb, where he fasted and prayed all day and all night; after which he caused the whole brotherhood of monks to be assembled, presented each of them with a scourge, and begged them to apply the lashes severely to his bare back, "for the good of his soul." The next day he received absolution for all his crimes and errors; and soon afterward he was informed that on the same day his army in the North had defeated and captured King William the Lion of Scotland near Alnwick Castle. This happy omen was regarded as proof of St. Thomas's forgiveness and of the favor of Heaven. King Louis VII. of France also made peace; Henry's rebellious sons returned to obedience; and King William the Lion of Scotland, with all his nobles and bishops, did homage to Henry II., acknowledging himself and his posterity as vassals of the Plantagenets.

**Submission of Henry's Sons and of William the Lion of Scotland.**

**Fresh Rebellions of the Sons of Henry II.**

The domestic peace of Henry II. did not last very long. He had assigned Ireland to his youngest and favorite son, John; but that prince showed his wretched unfitness to govern, by driving the Irish chiefs into rebellion, and his father was obliged to recall him. Another son, Prince Henry, died in France, in the midst of the rebellion which he renewed against his father; and Richard, the eldest surviving son and therefore now the heir to his father's dominions, as soon as his brother Geoffrey, with whom he had been at war, had been killed in a tournament at Paris, also took up arms against his father. Soon after Geoffrey's death his widow gave birth to a son, who was named Arthur, and whom Henry II. invested with the duchy of Brittany, of which, as Duke of Normandy, he was the feudal lord.

**Arthur of Brittany.**

**Humiliating Peace of Henry II. with His Enemies.**

Henry II. was so humiliated and enfeebled by the unnatural conduct of his sons that he finally agreed to all the demands of his enemies, one of which was a free pardon to the barons who had taken part in Richard's rebellion. After the treaty of peace had been signed, the king, who was then sick in bed, asked to see the list of the rebels that he had consented to pardon; and then the unhappy king saw with grief and amazement that his youngest and favorite son John's name was at the head of the list. His heart was broken by this last stroke of ingratitude, and he turned his face toward the wall, saying: "Now let the world go as it will, I care for nothing more." He died of fever after a few weeks' illness, at the castle of Chinon, on the Loire, in the county of Touraine, July 6, A. D. 1189, in the fifty-eighth year of his age and the thirty-fourth of his reign.

**His Sorrow and Death.**

**Richard the Lion-hearted, A. D. 1189-1199.**

Henry II. was succeeded in all his dominions by his second son, RICHARD THE LION-HEARTED, whose rebellion had hastened his father's

death. Richard's penitence for his undutiful conduct toward his father was lasting, and was productive of good for England, as he discarded the men who had supported him in his rebellion, and retained his father's faithful ministers in office, making them his counselors and friends.

**His First  
Good  
Acts.**

Richard the Lion-hearted was in no sense an Englishman, and his reign had very little influence on English history. He was a Frenchman by birth education and character; and during his ten years' reign he visited England but twice, and then only for a few months at a time. He was a valiant Crusader, a model knight, a brilliant poet, a gallant hero of romance. His most famous acts were connected with the Third Crusade, of which he was the principal hero. He was a skillful musician, and was familiar with the songs of the Troubadours.

**His  
Many-  
sided  
Char-  
acter.**

Richard the Lion-hearted was of heroic stature, of noble and commanding appearance; and was possessed of the most indomitable courage, of unusual strength and of great endurance. He loved tilts and tournaments better than royal courts, daring deeds on hard-fought battlefields more than cares and responsibilities of government. His very name, embalmed in song and story, has become a synonym for Chivalry. In him the king was subordinate to the knight. He was fearless of danger and mighty in battle, courteous to a gallant enemy and generous to a fallen foe.

**His  
Chivalric  
Qualities.**

Notwithstanding Richard's knightly virtues, beneath his iron armor there beat a hard, cold, selfish heart. Like his father he had an ungovernable temper. He was ambitious, haughty, domineering, revengeful, cruel, unscrupulous. He stained his knightly honor by many a dark and brutal deed. He cared little for the happiness or welfare of his subjects, his ambition being limited to the power to gratify an inordinate love of military glory and daring adventure. The English have always been dazzled by his brilliant personal qualities and proud of his world-wide renown.

**His Dark  
Side.**

Richard's hatred of unbelievers—a highly Christian sentiment, according to the ideas of those times—produced deplorable consequences on the day of his coronation. The London Jews, who were numerous and wealthy, offered gifts of gold to celebrate the occasion, hoping thus to propitiate the royal favor. But the king had forbidden them to approach the banqueting-hall; their messengers were driven away; and suddenly a rumor was circulated that the king had ordered a general massacre of all the Jews. An ignorant, fanatical and blood-thirsty mob thereupon slaughtered these despised and defenseless people, burned their houses and seized their hidden treasures.

**Massacre  
of Jews in  
London.**

As the news of this horror in London spread to other cities of England the same frenzy seized the inhabitants, the same terrible scenes

**And in  
York.**

were enacted, the same horrible massacre of innocent and helpless Hebrews. At York five hundred Jews, with their families, fled for refuge to the castle, which was soon surrounded by an armed and furious mob. The Jews vainly offered their wealth as a ransom for their lives. Hoping for neither justice nor mercy, they plunged their daggers into the bodies of their own wives and children rather than see them fall victims to their infuriated enemies, and then set fire to the castle and perished in the flames. King Richard the Lion-hearted had accepted their gifts and issued a proclamation in their favor, but he took no adequate measures for their protection.

**Richard the Lion-hearted and the Third Crusade.**

In the summer of 1190 Richard the Lion-hearted united with King Philip Augustus of France and the chivalrous German Emperor Frederick Barbarossa in the Third Crusade. The Kings of England and France had arranged to proceed together to the Holy Land. To raise money for this Crusade, Richard sold crown-lands, offices, titles and pardons, and even released King William the Lion of Scotland from his allegiance, also restoring to him the fortresses of Berwick and Roxburgh, the proudest acquisitions of King Henry II. When rebuked by one of his friends for his lavish disposal of crown property, Richard is said to have replied: "I would sell London, if I could find a purchaser."

**His Journey to the Holy Land.**

Richard left the government of England in charge of his Chancellor, William Longchamp, Bishop of Ely, and started on his expedition to Palestine. The Kings of England and France met at Vezelay, where they discovered that their combined armies numbered one hundred thousand men. They sailed from different ports on the Mediterranean, but storms forced both to pass the winter in Sicily, where their warm friendship was changed into rivalry and hatred.

**His Marriage with Berengaria of Navarre.**

At Messina Richard was joined by the Princess Berengaria of Navarre, to whom he was already betrothed. As the marriage could not be performed in Lent, she sailed in company with her sister for the Holy Land. The vessel was once more overtaken by storms and driven into a port in the island of Cyprus, where the ladies suffered very rude treatment, and the crews of two attendant vessels were murdered in their presence. When Richard heard of this insult he landed in Cyprus, defeated its king, Isaac, in two battles, took him prisoner and loaded him with chains, assuming the sovereignty of the island for himself. The rejoicings for this victory over King Isaac were completed by Richard's marriage.

**His Victory over King Isaac of Cyprus.**

**His Capture of Acre.**

Upon arriving in Palestine the Kings of England and France found all the Christian forces occupied in the siege of the important seaport of Acre, which had withstood them two years. The arrival of the Crusaders inspired the Christian besieging army with such courage that

Acre was soon forced to surrender, A. D. 1191. But Philip Augustus had now grown envious of the superior fame of Richard the Lion-hearted, and soon returned to France, after first taking a solemn oath not to meddle with England or Normandy. Richard's career in the Holy Land was full of stirring incidents of battle and adventure. He fought his way one hundred miles from Acre to Ascalon, where he defeated the renowned Sultan Saladin of Egypt in a great battle, A. D. 1192.

**His  
Career in  
the Holy  
Land.**

At this juncture Richard the Lion-hearted received important news from England. His brother John had usurped the regency, and, in alliance with the King of France, was attempting to deprive Richard of all his dominions. Richard, in great alarm for his English and French dominions, embarked to return home; after first concluding a truce with Saladin by which the Christian pilgrims were permitted to visit the Holy Sepulcher unmolested, and relinquishing his purpose to attempt the recovery of Jerusalem, the goal of so many hopes, whose walls were in sight, but which he was never destined to enter.

**Cause  
of His  
Return.**

**His  
Treaty  
with  
Saladin.**

Richard started by sea on his return home in 1192; but his vessel was wrecked in the Adriatic, and Richard landed at a port on that sea, whence he attempted to make his way to England by land through Germany, disguised as a merchant. He was recognized at Vienna by Duke Leopold of Austria, who seized him in revenge for his insult in causing the German flag to be torn down from the battlements of Acre and the English banner to be raised instead. The Duke of Austria sold his royal captive to his sovereign, Henry VI. of Germany, who loaded him with chains and imprisoned him in the little castle of Trifels, in the Tyrol.

**His  
Captivity  
in  
Germany.**

Richard's enemies all hastened to take advantage of his misfortune. King Philip Augustus of France invaded the duchy of Normandy, and Richard's own brother John demanded the crown of England. Both sent messengers to the Emperor Henry VI., offering him a large sum of money to keep Richard in life-long captivity.

**Action  
of His  
Enemies.**

In the meantime Richard's mother Eleanor besought Pope Celestine III. to interfere for her captive son's release; setting forth the shame in permitting the champion of Christendom, the hero whose strong right arm had struck down so many enemies of the Cross, to languish in captivity. Finally, after a year's imprisonment, the captive king was summoned before the Diet of the Germano-Roman Empire to plead his own cause. His eloquence and the fame of his great exploits in the Holy Land moved the hearts of the German princes and bishops; and the Emperor Henry VI. was forced, by the Pope's threat of excommunication and by the indignation of the German princes and prelates, to release Richard the Lion-hearted on the payment of a ransom

**His  
Ransom,  
Release  
and  
Return to  
England.**

of one hundred and fifty thousand marks by the English people. All classes in England were reduced to the greatest distress to raise this sum, the churches even melting down their plate. The English people, who remembered John's merciless extortions, joyfully welcomed Richard the Lion-hearted, who arrived in England in 1194, after an absence of four years.

John's  
Submission  
and  
Penitence.

His brother John was startled by the announcement from King Philip Augustus of France: "Take care of yourself, for the devil is unchained." John hastened to leave the country, but returned at Richard's command, and confessed on his knees his traitorous designs, at the same time humbly begging for pardon. Said Richard with characteristic generosity: "I hope I shall as easily forget his ingratitude as he will my forbearance."

His  
Invasion  
of France.

After remaining in England but a few months, Richard the Lion-hearted crossed over into France to engage in hostilities with King Philip Augustus. When Richard was informed that the Viscount of Limousin, one of his French vassals, had found hidden treasure in one of his fields, he demanded its surrender, according to the common law that made treasure-trove the property of the feudal lord. The Viscount of Limousin refused compliance, and Richard at once besieged him in his castle of Chalus, but received a mortal wound during the siege, so that the hero of the Third Crusade perished in a private quarrel, April, A. D. 1199.

His  
Death in  
a Private  
Quarrel.

John,  
A. D.  
1199-  
1216.

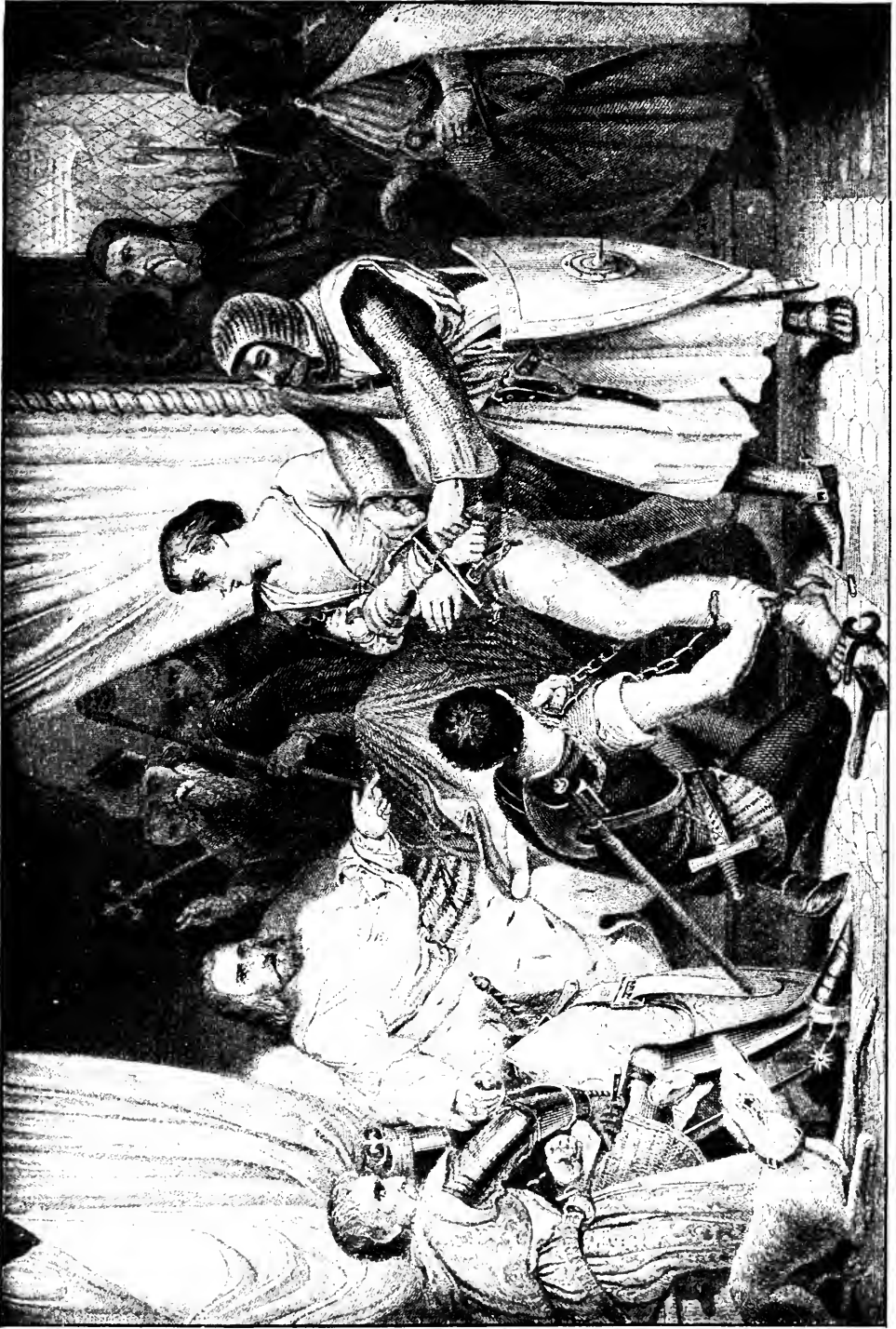
Richard's brother JOHN, surnamed *Lackland*, then became King of England, lord of Ireland, Duke of Normandy with the suzerainty of Brittany, Duke of Aquitaine with the suzerainty of Gascony, Count of Anjou, Maine, Poitou and Touraine; and was crowned at Westminster the next month, May, A. D. 1199.

His  
Despica-  
ble Char-  
acter.

John was a weak, cowardly, incompetent, cruel, tyrannical and licentious sovereign; and his reign was one of continued misfortune for England. He was as base and cowardly as Richard the Lion-hearted was generous and chivalrous. His brazen boldness in the midst of safety speedily vanished in the presence of danger. He was grossly impious in his treatment of the sacred rites of the Church; but he was childishly superstitious, wearing charms and relics about his person as a safeguard against evil. Other Kings of England have been corrupt, but John was the most basely licentious of all of them.

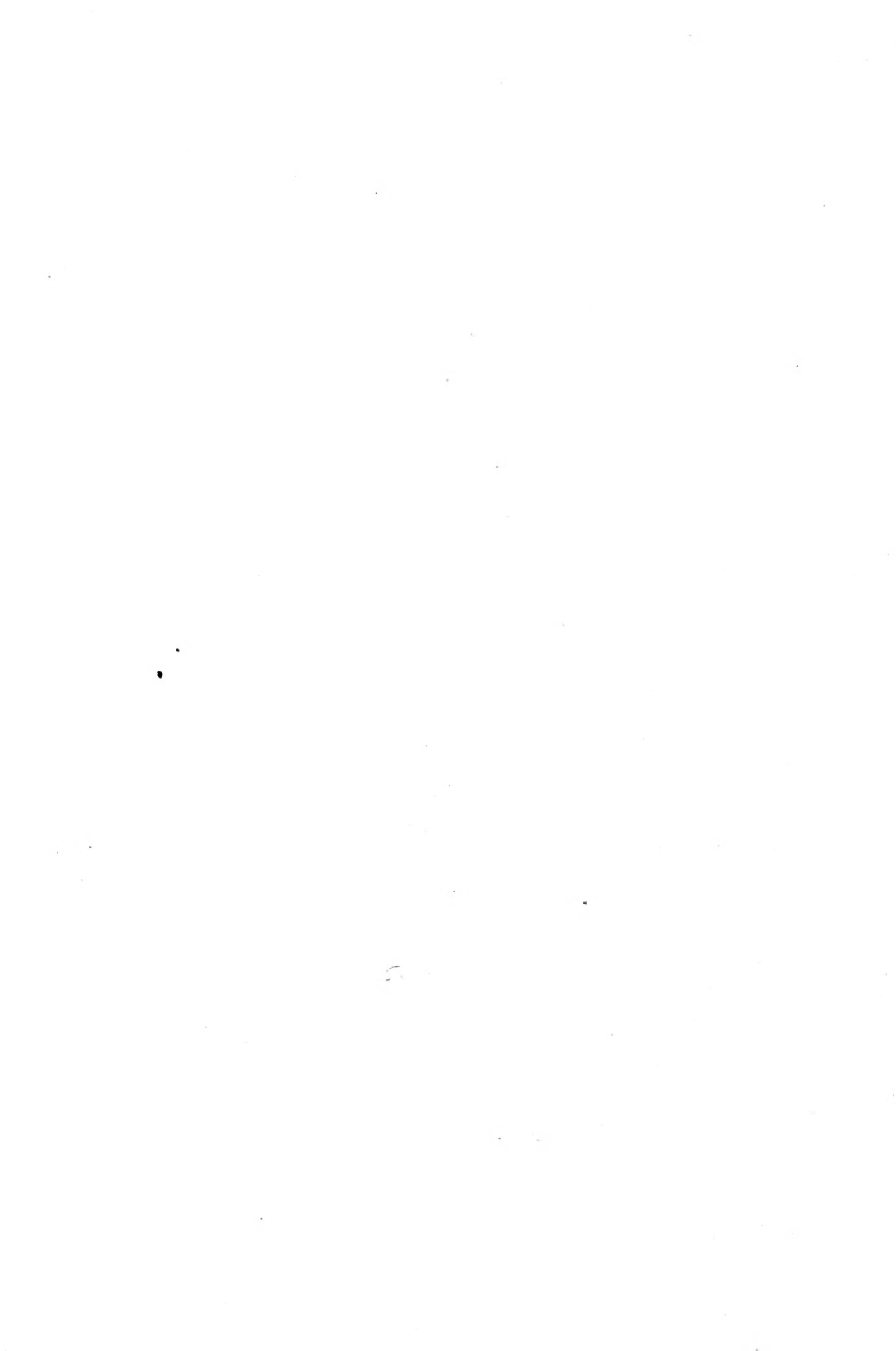
John and  
Prince  
Arthur of  
Brittany.

John's nephew, Prince Arthur of Brittany, the son of his dead brother, Geoffrey Plantagenet, claimed John's territories in France; and King Philip Augustus of France espoused the cause of the young prince, who was a mere boy of fifteen. The King of France was unable to render Prince Arthur any active aid at first; but John's abduction of Isabella of Angoulême, the affianced bride of the Count de la



RICHARD CŒUR DE LION FORGIVING HIS ASSASSIN

From the Painting by John Cross





Marche, afforded King Philip Augustus an opportunity of fulfilling his promise to the young prince. In the war which followed, King John took his youthful nephew prisoner, with many of his adherents, most of whom were starved to death. Prince Arthur himself was believed to have been stabbed to death by his wicked and cruel uncle in the castle of Rouen, A. D. 1203. The young prince's sister Eleanor was kept in close confinement by John until she wasted away and died.

**Murder of Arthur.**

King Philip Augustus, as John's feudal superior for his provinces in France, summoned him to answer for the murder of Prince Arthur; and, as John refused to appear, the French king declared all of his fiefs and lordships in France forfeited to the French crown, being sustained in that action by the "Peers of France." The universal horror produced by John's crime wrought powerfully against that despicable tyrant; and King Philip Augustus took castle after castle, and wrested from John by conquest the counties of Anjou, Maine, Poitou and Touraine, and finally the duchies of Normandy and Brittany; so that the duchy of Aquitaine, or Guienne, and the Channel Isles were the only French possessions remaining to the Plantagenets. The Channel Isles—Jersey, Guernsey and Alderney—still remain in England's possession.

**John's War with Philip Augustus of France.**

**Philip's Conquest of John's French Possessions.**

John raised a large army and invaded the French territories to recover his lost possessions; but when the hostile armies were on the eve of battle he proposed peace, and fled ignominiously to England in the very midst of the negotiations. It was in consequence of the loss of his French territories that John received the surname of *Lackland*. This loss was a great gain for England in the end; because, when her kings had lost their feudal possessions in France, they were obliged to confine their attention to England, and thus became Englishmen, instead of being any longer French princes ruling England.

**John's Ignominious Peace with Philip Augustus.**

**Benefit to England.**

King John was next involved in a violent quarrel with Pope Innocent III. about the appointment of an Archbishop of Canterbury. John had secured the election of John de Gray to that dignity by the monks; but the Pope annulled the election and forced the monks of Christ's Church, Canterbury, to choose Stephen Langton. Langton was a good man, but the Pope's action was a violation of English rights in church and state. The angry king punished the monks for their compliance with the Pope's commands, by turning them out of doors, seizing their lands and treasures, and thus reducing them to beggary.

**John's Quarrel with Pope Innocent III.**

For the purpose of forcing John to compliance, Pope Innocent III. threatened to lay his kingdom under an interdict. The despicable king made light of the Pope's threat. In 1208 Innocent III. made good his threat, and the papal interdict fell upon England with all its horrors. The whole country was at once plunged into the deepest gloom.

**England under the Pope's Interdict.**

To the people the interdict was nothing less than the curse of God. The blessings and benedictions of religion were suddenly denied to every one except the innocent babe and the dying. During the four years that England thus remained under the Pope's curse it was as though a pestilence had spread its horrors over the land. The churches were closed, and their bells were not rung. "No knell was tolled for the dead; for the dead remained unburied. No merry peals welcomed the bridal procession; for no couple could be joined in wedlock."

**John's-  
Excom-  
munic-  
ation by  
Innocent  
III.**

John still remained obdurate; and after waiting two years for his submission, Pope Innocent III. finally excommunicated the obstinate king, A. D. 1210. Even this did not have the desired effect upon the contumacious monarch; and two years later, A. D. 1212, Innocent III. pronounced a decree deposing John from his throne, absolving all his subjects from their allegiance to him, and declaring a crusade against him, so that it was made lawful and Christian for any man to kill the deposed monarch. Nothing could be more deplorable than John's situation at this time. Furious at his indignities, jealous of his subjects, not knowing whom to trust, and fearing a plot against his life, he shut himself up an entire night in the castle of Nottingham, and allowed no one to come near him.

**Threat-  
ened  
French  
Invasion  
of  
England  
Frus-  
trated.**

The crusade preached against John by the Pope called upon all Christian princes and barons to make war upon the excommunicated and deposed king. Innocent III. especially commissioned the King of France to execute his decree of deposition, and Philip Augustus readily undertook to enforce the Pope's final decree. John continued defiant for a time, and if his English subjects hated him they had no love for Philip Augustus. Mustering a gigantic fleet, the Earl of Salisbury crossed the Channel and attacked the French at the mouth of the Seine, after which his victorious armies ravaged the coast of Normandy; thus ending the danger of a French invasion for the time.

**The  
Pope's  
Intima-  
tion.**

John continued defiant for a while longer. Europe now impatiently watched the struggle between the Head of Christendom and the King of England—the struggle in which the Church was either to triumph or to be overthrown. But Pope Innocent III. was too refined a politician for either the King of England or the King of France. The astute pontiff intended only to intimidate and humble the refractory king, not to ruin him. The Pope therefore intimated to John, through his legate in England, that there was only one way by which the king could secure himself against impending danger, and that was to place himself under the protection of the Pope, who was a merciful father, ever willing to receive a repentant sinner to his bosom.

John was too much intimidated by the manifest danger of his situation not to embrace every means offered for his safety. Finding no

encouragement in his resistance, and the elements of opposition in his own kingdom gathering about him like a thick cloud, his bravado forsook him, and he yielded to all the Pope's demands, assenting to the truth of the papal legate's remonstrances, and taking an oath to perform whatever stipulation the Pope should impose upon him; so that his submission to Innocent III. was as abject and humiliating as it was sudden and complete.

John's  
Humiliating  
Submission  
to the  
Pope.

King John having thus sworn to perform any command which the Pope might impose, the crafty papal legate, Pandolf, managed the barons so well, and intimidated the despicable king so effectually, that he persuaded John to take the most extraordinary oath in all history. Every true Englishman felt a share of the national shame when this degenerate descendant of William the Conqueror, this cowardly son of Henry Plantagenet, this craven-hearted brother of the lion-hearted Richard, laid his crown at the feet of the papal legate, and on his knees before the legate took a solemn oath acknowledging himself a vassal of Pope Innocent III. and his Kingdoms of England and Ireland as papal fiefs, in the following words:

John's  
Abject  
Oath of  
Vassalage  
to Pope  
Innocent  
III.

"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 III. 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 a thousand marks yearly; to wit, seven hundred for the Kingdom of England, and three hundred for the Kingdom of Ireland."

Language  
of this  
Oath.

This was the only time in England's history of a thousand years that a King of England surrendered the independence of his country to a foreign potentate. After thus doing homage to the Pope for his crown, restoring the monks and nuns to their possessions, and recognizing Langton as Archbishop of Canterbury, John received back his crown as the Pope's vassal; while the papal legate trampled under his feet the tribute which the humiliated king had consented to pay. Upon his submission, Pope Innocent III. recalled his hostile decrees, and forbade King Philip Augustus of France to make war on the King of England, who was now the Pope's vassal, and whose kingdom was now one of the territories of the Church.

John  
Receives  
Back His  
Crown as  
the Pope's  
Vassal.

Thus, by the most humiliating and scandalous concessions, did King John avert the threatened blow. In this way, by repeated acts of cruelty, by expeditions without result and humiliations without reserve, did this despicable and imbecile monarch become the detestation of all mankind.

John's  
Situation.

Rebellion  
of Arch-  
bishop  
Langton  
and the  
English  
Barons.

The degradation of England enraged the barons, whose indignation had already been aroused by King John's disregard of their rights. Archbishop Langton was a true Englishman, and was faithful to his high office as an advocate and champion of the people's rights. He convened a council of barons and bishops at St. Edmundsbury, November 20, 1214, to whom he showed a recently found copy of the Charter of Liberties granted by King Henry I., and urged the assembled bishops and barons to insist upon the renewal and enforcement of the charter. Accordingly, the barons assembled their vassals and proceeded to rebellion against their king. John suddenly found himself face to face with all England in arms against him; and, being deserted by all his vassals except seven knights, he was obliged to grant all that his great vassals demanded.

Their  
Demands  
and  
John's  
Rage.

The rebellious barons assembled a large army at Stamford, whence they marched to Brackley, about fifteen miles from Oxford, where the king then resided. Hearing of their approach, John sent Archbishop Langton, the Earl of Pembroke and other members of his council, to inquire what were the liberties which the revolted barons so much desired. The barons delivered a schedule containing the principal articles of their demands, of which the code of Edward the Confessor and the Charter of Liberties granted by Henry I. constituted the ground-work. As soon as these demands were shown to the king he burst into a furious rage and asked why the barons did not also demand his kingdom, swearing that he would never comply with such humiliating demands.

Their  
Warlike  
Action.

But the barons were now too strong for the weak king to cope with. They chose Robert Fitz-Walter for their general, dignifying him with the title of *Mareschal of the Army of God and of the Holy Church*, and proceeded to make war upon the king without further ceremony. They besieged Northampton, took Bedford, and were welcomed with joy in London. They wrote circular letters to all the nobility and gentry who had not yet declared in their favor, and threatened to ravage their estates in case of refusal or delay.

John's  
Proposal  
Rejected  
by the  
Barons.

The terrified king, in utter consternation, first offered to refer all controversies to Pope Innocent III. alone, or to eight barons, four to be selected by himself, and four by the whole body of the revolted barons. The barons rejected John's proposition with scorn. He then assured them that he would submit at discretion, and that it was his supreme pleasure to grant all their demands. A conference was therefore appointed, and all things were arranged for this most important settlement.

Meeting  
of John  
and the  
Barons at  
Runnymede.

Accordingly, the king's commissioners met the revolted barons in the meadow called *Runnymede*, on the Thames, between Staines and Windsor—a place ever since held in reverence as the spot where the standard

of constitutional freedom was first unfurled in England. There the barons appeared with a host of knights and warriors, June 15, 1215; while the king's representatives and forces came at the same time. Both sides encamped apart, like open enemies. The armed barons would admit of but few abatements; and, as the king's agents were mainly in the interest of his enemies, few debates ensued. On the same day King John signed and sealed the charter demanded of him—a charter which remains in force to the present day—the famous *Magna Charta*, “Great Charter”—the bulwark and foundation of English constitutional liberty: on which are based all the liberties enjoyed by the people of Great Britain and the United States—the most precious heritage of all the English races of the world.

**Magna Charta Signed by John.**

Some of the most important principles of this great charter of English freedom can be traced to Anglo-Saxon origin, having been set aside by the Norman Conquest of England; while others were brought from the reigns of Henry I. and Henry II.; but all were made more broad and liberal, and were couched in the most explicit terms. The preamble of *Magna Charta* is as follows:

**Origin of Its Principles.**

“John, by the grace of God, King of England, Lord of Ireland, Duke of Normandy and Aquitaine, and Count of Anjou; to his archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, barons, justiciaries, foresters, sheriffs, governors, officers, and to all his bailiffs and liegemen, greeting:

**Its Preamble.**

“Know ye, that in presence of God, and for the health of our soul and the soul of our ancestors and heirs, and to the honor of God, and to the exaltation of His Holy Church, and for the amendment of our kingdom; by advice of our venerable fathers, Stephen, Archbishop of Canterbury, Primate of all England, and Cardinal of the Holy Roman Church; Henry, Archbishop of Dublin; William of London, Peter of Winchester, Jocelyn of Bath and Glastonbury, Hugh of Lincoln, Walter of Worcester, William of Coventry, and Benedict of Rochester, bishops; Master Pandolf, our lord the Pope's subdeacon and servant; Brother Aymeric, master of the Temple in England; and the noblemen William Marescall, Earl of Pembroke, William Earl of Salisbury, William Earl of Warren, William Earl of Arundel, Alan de Galloway, Constable of Scotland, Warin Fitzgerald, Peter Fitzherbert, Hubert de Burgh, Seneschal of Poitou, Hugh de Neville, Matthew Fitzherbert, Thomas Basset, Alan Basset, Philip de Albiney, Robert de Roppelaye, John Marescall, John Fitzhugh, and others our liegemen; we have granted to God, and by this our present charter confirmed, for us and our heirs forever.”

**Preamble Continued.**

The first clause is as follows: “That the English Church shall be free and enjoy her whole liberties inviolate. And that we will have them so to be observed, appears from this that of our mere good will

**Its First Clause.**

we granted, and by our charter confirmed, the freedom of elections which was reckoned most necessary for the English Church, and obtained the confirmation thereof from our lord the Pope Innocent the Third, before the discord which has arisen between us and our barons; which charter we will ourselves observe, and will that it be observed in good faith by our heirs forever. We have also for us and our heirs forever granted to all the freemen of our kingdom, all the underwritten liberties to have and to hold to them and their heirs from us and our heirs."

**Liberties  
Thus  
Secured.**

The first clause just related secured the liberties of the Church in England. Other clauses remedied the grievances of the barons as tenants of the crown, and among these provisions was a specification that "no scutage or aid (assistance in money from a vassal to his lord) except in the three general feudal cases, the king's captivity, the knight-riding of his eldest son and the marrying of his eldest daughter, shall be imposed, but by the great council of the kingdom."

**Privileges  
of the  
Barons  
and Their  
Vassals.**

Measures were likewise inserted to prevent the arbitrary seizures of the lands of the nobles by the crown. After thus securing their own rights, the barons placed the liberties of the people on as sound a basis. It was ordained that all the privileges and immunities granted to the barons by the king should be extended by the barons to *their* vassals. The king bound himself not to grant any writ empowering a baron to levy any scutage or aid from his vassals, except in the three feudal cases already referred to.

**Privileges  
of Mer-  
chants  
and  
Freemen.**

It was also ordained that one weight and one measure should be established throughout the kingdom. Merchants should be allowed to transact all business, without being exposed to any arbitrary tolls and impositions. The merchants and all freemen should be permitted to go out of the kingdom and return at their pleasure.

**Municipal  
Privi-  
leges.**

The towns were secured in the enjoyment of their municipal privileges and their ancient liberties, immunities and free customs, their freedom from arbitrary taxation, their rights of justice, of common deliberation, of regulation of trade. This memorable article reads thus: "Let the city of London have all its old liberties and its free customs, as well by land as by water. Besides this, we will and grant that all other cities and boroughs and towns and ports have all their liberties and free customs." Aids were not to be required of these cities and burghs except by the consent of the great council of the kingdom.

**Various  
Pro-  
visions.**

No towns or individuals were to be obliged to make or support bridges, except by ancient custom. The goods of every freeman were to be disposed of according to his will. If he died intestate his heirs were to succeed to their possession. No officer of the crown had the right to take any horses, carts or wood without the owner's consent.

It was provided that the king's courts of justice should be stationary, that they should no longer follow the king's person, and that they should be open to every one. Circuits were to be regularly held every year. The inferior tribunals of justice—the county courts, sheriff's turn and courtleet—were to meet at their appointed times and places. The sheriff was incapacitated to hold pleas of the crown, and was not authorized to put any person on trial from mere rumor or suspicion, but upon the testimony of lawful witnesses. The following are the two most important provisions securing the liberties of Englishmen: "*No freeman shall be taken, or imprisoned, or dispossessed, or outlawed, or banished, or in any way destroyed; nor will we pass upon him, nor commit him, but by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.*"

**Courts of Justice.**

**Two Most Important Provisions.**

"*To no man will we sell, to none will we delay, to none will we deny, right or justice.*"

Those who suffered otherwise in the reigns of John and his two immediate predecessors were to have their rights and possessions restored to them. It was also provided that every freeman should be fined in proportion to his fault, and that no fine should be levied on him to his utter ruin. Even a villain or rustic was not to be deprived of his carts, plows and farming implements. Even the worst was not to be deprived of the means of livelihood.

**Privileges of Freemen and Villains.**

Many irregular exactions were abolished, or assessed at a regular rate. The under-tenants or farmers were protected against all lawless exactions of their lords in precisely the same terms as the barons were protected against the lawless exactions of the crown. The abuses of wardship were reformed; and widows were protected against the compulsory marriages to which they had been subjected for the profit of the crown. It was provided that the bishops and the greater barons were to be summoned to the great council of the nation by special writ, and all tenants-in-chief through the sheriffs and bailiffs, at least forty days before.

**Abolition of Exactions and Abuses.**

**Great Council.**

The last clause is as follows: "*Wherefore we do will and firmly do command that the Church of England be free: and that all men in our kingdom have and hold all the aforesaid liberties, and rights, and grants, well and in peace, freely and quietly, fully and wholly, as aforesaid, to them and their heirs, from us and our heirs forever. It is also sworn, as well on our part, as on that of the barons, that all the things aforesaid shall be observed in good faith and without evil intention. Witnessed by the above and many others. Given by our own hand, in the mead called Runnymede, between Wind-or and Staines, this fifteenth day of June, in the seventeenth year of our reign.*"

**Last Clause of the Great Charter.**

Copy  
in the  
British  
Museum.

One copy of this precious document still remains in the British Museum, injured by age and fire, but with the royal seal still hanging from the brown, shriveled parchment. Says the late John Richard Green, the eminent English historian: "It is impossible to gaze without reverence on the earliest monument of English freedom which we can see with our own eyes and touch with our own hands, the Great Charter to which from age to age patriots have looked back as the basis of English liberty." Hallam truly calls Magna Charta "the keystone of English liberty."

Green's  
Remark.

Perma-  
nence  
of the  
Principles  
of Magna  
Charta.

All the benefits conferred by the Great Charter were not realized by the English people for hundreds of years thereafter. Though its provisions were frequently ignored and openly trodden under foot by John and his successors, the great principles of liberty and justice which these provisions embodied were never forgotten by the English people. Amid the oppressions of aftertimes, these principles became the centers around which clustered the national hopes, the goal toward which the national efforts were directed. These principles were the beacon lights in an almost shoreless sea of misgovernment, guiding an oppressed people in their struggle for constitutional freedom. These principles are to-day the foundation and the bulwark of those liberties and privileges which render England and the United States the freest and happiest nations on the globe. Such was the foundation of the free constitution of England.

Patriot-  
ism  
of the  
Bishops  
and  
Barons.

The unflinching patriotism of Archbishop Langton and most of the bishops of the Church of England in this momentous crisis should never be forgotten. Langton himself was the leader of the opposition to John's tyranny and the Pope's assumptions. The bishops and the barons stood side by side at Runnymede, indifferent alike to the king's execrations and the Pope's anathemas.

Action  
of the  
Barons'  
Council.

A council of twenty-four barons was appointed to force the king to comply with his solemn oath, with the right of declaring war against the king if he infringed its provisions; and the charter was published throughout the kingdom, and was sworn to at every hundred-mote and at every town-mote by the king's order.

John's  
Impotent  
Rage.

King John, in an outburst of impotent rage, flung himself on the floor and gnawed like a wild beast at sticks and straw and anything that came within his reach, crying: "They have given me four and twenty over-kings!" But he promised the more readily, because he did not intend to perform. Before daybreak he had ridden from Windsor; and he lingered for months along the southern shores of England, the Cinque Ports and the Isle of Wight, while his agents were enlisting foreign troops in Continental Europe for the purpose of making a stand against the barons.



A special envoy from King John laid before Pope Innocent III. a copy of the Great Charter, which John declared had been wrenched from him by violence. The Pope, considering himself the real sovereign of England, declared that his rights had been encroached upon. He therefore annulled the Great Charter and excommunicated all who sustained it. Archbishop Langton courageously and patriotically refused to pronounce the papal bull of excommunication, and was suspended from the Primacy by Pope Innocent III. for his faithful exercise of the duties of his position as the champion of the liberties of England.

Arch-  
bishop  
Langton's  
Defiance  
of Pope  
Innocent  
III.

Strengthened by the Pope's bull, and still more by an army of foreign soldiers, King John broke all his promises, starved Rochester into submission, and marched from south to north, laying waste the kingdom with fire and sword, as far as the borders of Scotland. From Berwick the king turned back to oppose his enemies in London, where fresh papal anathemas fell upon the barons and the city. But the burghers of London defied Pope Innocent III. in the following words: "The ordering of secular matters appertaineth not to the Pope." Simon Langton, the Primate's brother, caused the bells to be rung and mass to be celebrated as before.

John's  
Civil War  
with His  
Barons.

London's  
Defiance  
of Pope  
Innocent  
III.

With the undisciplined militia of England, the barons were unable to cope with the king's trained foreign troops, and they sought the alliance of King Alexander II. of Scotland; but John compelled the Scottish monarch to stay in his own kingdom. In despair, the barons sought aid from France, offering the crown of England to Prince Louis, son of King Philip Augustus, who had married John's niece, Blanche of Castile, the granddaughter of Henry II. Prince Louis accepted the offer of the English barons, in spite of the Pope's excommunications, landed in England in May, 1216, with a large French army, took Rochester Castle, and made a triumphal entry into London amid the rejoicings of the citizens. The French prince seemed on the point of carrying everything before him, when King John, overcome by illness, shame and vexation, died suddenly at Newark, October 18, 1216, in the eighteenth year of his reign, leaving behind him the reputation of being the worst king that ever reigned over England.

Scottish  
and  
French  
Aid  
to the  
Barons.

Invasion  
of  
England  
by Prince  
Louis of  
France.

John's  
Death.

John's wickedness was the source of two great benefits to the English people. The one was Magna Charta. The other was the loss of the French possessions of the Plantagenets, which was a piece of good fortune to England, because it forced her kings to confine their attention at home.

Two  
Benefits  
of His  
Reign.

HENRY III., John's eldest son by his second wife, Isabella of Angoulême, succeeded his father as King of England and Duke of Aquitaine, being then a boy of ten years. He was crowned at Gloucester ten days

Henry  
III., A. D.  
1216-  
1272.

**Regency of William, Earl of Pembroke.** after his father's death. William, Earl of Pembroke, a brave, able and upright man, who was made regent, or Protector of the Realm, during the youthful king's minority, exercised all the real power; and under his vigorous rule England was soon reduced to order. His first act was the renewal of Magna Charta, which John had so flagrantly and unscrupulously violated.

**Prince Louis of France Deserted by the English Barons.** Prince Louis of France, whom the barons had invited to wrest the crown of England from King John, alarmed his English supporters by granting English lands to his French followers; and accordingly the barons deserted him and joined the party of young Henry III. The Earl of Pembroke, with a few hundred knights, defeated the French troops under Prince Louis in a battle in the streets of Lincoln, in 1217; and an English squadron defeated a superior French naval force off Dover. Finding the hearts of the English turning to their legitimate king, Prince Louis left England, never to return, renouncing all claim to the English crown.

**Regencies of Hubert de Burgh and the Bishop of Winchester.** Unfortunately for England the good Earl of Pembroke died in 1219, and was succeeded in the regency by Hubert de Burgh, a brave and faithful officer, whose gallant defense of Dover Strait and Castle had chiefly contributed to the defeat of the French invasion. He was succeeded by the Bishop of Winchester, a native of Poitou, whose extortions had occasioned many of the miseries of John's reign. By his advice, the young king invited a multitude of Frenchmen from Poitou into England, assigning them all the important positions in the court, and lavishing honors and riches upon them; thus disgusting his English subjects.

**Eleanor of Provence, the Queen of Henry III.** King Henry III. married Eleanor of Provence—a country at that time a part of Southern France, and celebrated for its wealth and luxury, as well as for the gay and brilliant genius of its inhabitants. The young queen brought with her to England a multitude of Provençal courtiers; and the marked indulgence shown them by the king increased the displeasure of the English.

**Exactions of the Italian Clergy in England.** The English people found a greater grievance in the exactions of the Italian clergy, who obtained a larger revenue from England than did the king himself. The Pope claimed the entire income of all vacant livings; one-twentieth from those which were occupied; one-third from all that exceeded one hundred marks a year; and one-half from those held by non-residents.

**The Pope's Claims as Over-lord of England.** The Pope, as over-lord of England, had filled many vacant livings with foreign priests, and even demanded a share in the government of the kingdom. The king and his regent were frequently at variance with each other, and both were at times arrayed against the Pope. There was, however, one thing in which the King of England and the

Pope were always agreed—the mutual effort to wring the last farthing from the poverty-stricken people.

The Pope worked upon the weakness of King Henry III. by bestowing the crown of Sicily upon his second son—a gift which only involved the king in an enormous debt, no less than in ridicule and disgrace. The Sicilian kingdom was one of the “fiefs of St. Peter,” which the Pope claimed the right to grant to any one at his pleasure.

The King's Son as King of Sicily.

The king's brother, Richard, Earl of Cornwall, likewise desired to play a part in the affairs of Continental Europe. His great wealth, derived from the tin mines of his earldom, induced the German princes to elect him their sovereign, as we have seen in the history of the German Empire; but he was never crowned Emperor at Rome, and therefore he gained nothing but the empty title of King of the Romans, in exchange for his vast treasures.

Richard of Cornwall as King of Germany.

The extortions of King Henry III., and his subserviency to foreign favorites, disgusted the brave barons of England. In 1225 a great council was summoned to deliberate on the question of supplies to the crown. A grant was made on condition of a new confirmation of Magna Charta. Thereafter the practice prevailed of making a confirmation of the Great Charter, or a redress of grievances, the condition of voting money to the crown. Some of the dearest rights now enjoyed by the people of England were retained or acquired in this way, at various periods of English history.

Henry III. and His Barons.

Conditions of Money Grants.

In 1227, when Henry III. was twenty-two years old, he assumed the government himself. He began his full assumption of power by endeavoring to make Magna Charta subordinate to the royal prerogative, in the following declaration:

Henry III. at His Majority.

“Whenever and wherever, and as often as it may be our pleasure, we may declare, interpret, enlarge or diminish the aforesaid statutes and their several parts by our own free will, and as to us shall seem expedient for the security of us and our land.”

His Declaration.

This declaration was the keynote of the policy of Henry III. for forty years: while the barons, distracted by feuds among themselves, stood idly by. The history of the entire period is only a dreary and monotonous record of royal recklessness and folly, of royal beggary and extortion. When in need of money, the king would swear on his honor as “a man, a Christian, a knight and a king,” to preserve the provisions of the Great Charter inviolate: but the awful words had hardly died away among the arches of Westminster Hall, after his wants had been supplied, before he broke every solemn promise and trampled the provisions of the Great Charter under his feet in mere wantonness. Under the influence of the crown, even the courts of justice became but a legalized system of extortion and robbery, the judges

His Constant Misrule.

on the circuits compounding felonies and selling justice to the highest bidder.

**Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester.**

The chief of the king's French courtiers was Simon de Montfort, son of the Simon de Montfort who led the Crusaders who extinguished the unfortunate creed of the Albigenses, in the South of France, in blood a generation before. King Henry III. had elevated this Simon de Montfort to the dignity of Earl of Leicester, and had given him his own sister in marriage. But unlike the king's other French favorites, Simon de Montfort faithfully served the interests of the English people, who rewarded him with their enthusiastic devotion. He sustained Grosseteste of Lincoln—the best English bishop of that time—in his resistance to the Pope's unjust demands.

**The King's Outrage.**

In 1257 England suffered from a dreadful famine, in consequence of a failure of crops. This calamity brought matters to a crisis in 1258. The king's brother, Earl Richard of Cornwall, King of Germany, sent a supply of corn from Germany to England for the relief of the starving English people; but King Henry III. seized the corn and sold it for his own profit. This enraged the barons, who met in arms at Oxford and insisted upon a Council of Regency to be chosen, half by the king and half by themselves.

**Action of the Barons.**

King Henry III. being still in need of money, even after his outrageous transaction, he summoned the barons to a great council at Westminster. The barons obeyed the king's summons, but they came at the head of their men-at-arms. As Henry III. entered Westminster Hall and gazed upon the stern array of mail-clad barons, whose clanking swords alone broke the general silence, he inquired in sudden alarm: "Am I a prisoner?" The patriotic barons responded: "No, you are our sovereign; but your foreign favorites and your prodigality have brought misery upon the realm, and we demand that you confer authority upon those who are able and willing to redress the grievances of the public."

**Henry III. and the Council of Barons at Westminster.**

**Provisions of Oxford.**

As the king was powerless to resist, he consented to the demands of the barons, as specified in the *Provisions of Oxford*, providing for a council of twenty-four barons, one half to be appointed by the barons and the other half by himself, empowered to act in behalf of the realm. Parliament was ordered to meet three times every year, whether summoned by the king or not; and "twelve honest men" were to represent the commonalty.

**Revolt of the Barons.**

But the barons were soon divided, and many who sought honors and lands joined the royal party; but the more patriotic, with all the representatives of the English people, sustained Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, who, with a reinforcement of fifteen thousand Londoners, achieved a brilliant victory over the king's army in the great battle of

Lewes, in Sussex, in which King Henry III. and his gallant son, Prince Edward, were taken prisoners, May 14, 1264.

**Battle of Lewes.**

Earl Simon de Montfort, who was now the real head of the realm, summoned a Parliament in the king's name, inviting representatives of the people of England, to be composed of two knights from each shire, two citizens from each city, and two burgesses from each borough, to take their seats side by side with the bishops and the barons. This memorable Parliament convened at Westminster in January, 1265, and was the foundation of the future *House of Commons*, or popular branch of the English Parliament—the real beginning of true representative government. The House of Commons has ever since been the chief guardian of the rights and liberties of the people of England. John's tyranny gave rise to Magna Charta, the corner-stone of English constitutional liberty; while the oppressions of Henry III. led to the origin of the House of Commons, the bulwark and defense of that liberty. The two were wonderful landmarks in the progress of the Anglo-Saxon race.

**Simon de Montfort and Origin of the House of Commons.**

**Two Great Anglo-Saxon Landmarks.**

But the English were soon called upon to mourn the death of their great leader—the founder of the House of Commons. Prince Edward, having escaped from captivity, speedily raised an army, with which he won a decisive victory in the great battle of Evesham, in Worcestershire, over the patriot forces under Earl Simon de Montfort and his son, both of whom were slain, August 4, 1265. This victory released the king from captivity; but no attempt was made to undo the great work of this illustrious patriot and statesman, whose name ranks with that of Archbishop Langton as an early champion of the English people's rights and liberties; and the right of the English people to representation in Parliament was permanently established.

**Battle of Evesham and Death of Simon de Montfort.**

**His Work and Fame.**

As soon as the civil war between Henry III. and his barons was ended, Prince Edward, with a gallant array of barons, sailed for the Holy Land, to take part in the Eighth Crusade, A. D. 1270. The illustrious name of Plantagenet, and traditions of the chivalrous deeds of Richard the Lion-hearted, drew all the Christian forces of the East about the young prince, who won several victories over the Saracens, and struck such terror into their hearts that they sent an assassin to murder him. In trying to wrench a poisoned dagger from the assassin, Prince Edward was wounded in the hand during the scuffle; and this wound might have proven fatal had not his affectionate and devoted wife, Eleanor of Castile, who had accompanied her husband to Palestine, sucked the poison from his wound. After concluding a ten years' truce with the Saracens, Prince Edward sailed from Palestine on his return to England; and when he reached Sicily he heard of the death of his father, King Henry III., which occurred November 16, 1272.

**Prince Edward as a Crusader in Palestine.**

**His Escape from Assassination.**

Revival  
of  
Learning  
and Phil-  
osophy.

During the dark and turbulent reign of Henry III. a steady light began to shine from the great University of Oxford, whose foundations were laid by Alfred the Great four centuries before; but the spirit of inquiry excited by the Crusades, with the new knowledge brought home from the East, had produced a great revival of zeal for the study of philosophy, law and ancient literature. In the great universities of the Middle Ages, thirty thousand scholars, traveling far over land and sea, were frequently assembled at one time about some celebrated teacher.

Roger  
Bacon,  
Father of  
English  
Science.

One of the most famous of these Schoolmen was Roger Bacon, whose wonderful mind was stored with all the learning of his time concerning the world of matter, no less than the mind and works of man. His lectures at Oxford were listened to by throngs of eager students, many of whom begged their daily bread, while others had followed their teacher's example in lavishing ample fortunes upon books and costly experiments, renouncing all ambition of honor or wealth, in search of the more precious treasures of wisdom. Roger Bacon was the father of English science. His physical researches anticipated many modern discoveries, the use of gunpowder in war among the rest.

His  
Condem-  
nation  
and  
Imprison-  
ment.

Bacon, who was a Franciscan monk, furnished an example of the peril of great learning in an ignorant age, as did St. Dunstan three centuries before him. Although he was admired and revered by his pupils, his superiors in the Church saw nothing in his geometrical lines and circles but charms to force the attendance of evil spirits, and could comprehend the Greek, Hebrew or Arabic sentences which he repeated in his studies as nothing else than the language of these evil spirits. He was condemned by the council of his own Franciscan order; and passed the last ten years of his life in a dreary dungeon, deprived of his cherished books, and even of pens and parchment.

The  
Mendi-  
cant  
Orders.

The *Mendicant Orders*, or *Begging Friars*—as the two monkish orders of the Franciscans and the Dominicans were called—bound themselves to absolute poverty and the service of the poor, owning nothing, living by daily alms, relieving distress, and acting as physicians and nurses as well as priests. During the civil war between Henry III. and his barons these mendicant monks were the steady friends of the people. They at first renounced learning, but soon had control of the University of Oxford, which became the firm foe of papal exactions and the stronghold of English freedom.

Constitu-  
tional  
Growth.

Thus ends a very important period of English history—the first great period of constitutional development, as evidenced in the granting of Magna Charta and the establishment of the House of Commons, both of these being the first great landmarks in the progress of the Anglo-Saxon race on the road to civil and political freedom.

SECTION III.—THE PLANTAGENETS AND WARS OF SCOTCH LIBERATION (A. D. 1272-1327).

THE chivalrous EDWARD I., who became King of England upon the death of his father, Henry III., in November, 1272, did not arrive in England on his return from the Holy Land until May, 1274. Edward I. was a true Englishman, and is ranked as the greatest of the Plantagenets. He was tall and of majestic appearance, and was noted for his skill in archery and in the exercises of knighthood. He was a wise legislator, an able statesman, a vigorous ruler, a great warrior and a gallant knight. His efforts to reform the laws acquired for him the title of the *English Justinian*. Because of the unusual length of his legs, his enemies in Berwick nicknamed him *Longshanks*.

Edward I. was as much distinguished for his mental power as for his kingly generosity. Under his fostering care the administration of justice became more regular and secure in England. He was by nature a despot and doggedly tenacious of the royal prerogative, but he was just and even generous to his law-abiding subjects. To others he was severe and even cruel. His natural sternness was tempered by gentleness and affection in his domestic relations; but he would not shield any one from the consequences of his crime, not even his own son, who was once sent to prison like a common felon.

As Edward I. had no dominions in Continental Europe except Guienne, his great-grandmother's inheritance, his chief ambition was to unite the whole island of Great Britain under one government. When Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, had refused to do the customary feudal homage to the English king, Edward I. sent an English army into Wales in 1277; and Llewellyn, deserted by most of his chieftains, was forced to sue for peace and to acknowledge Edward's sovereignty over Wales.

In 1282 the Welsh, incited by their patriotic bards, whose inspiring songs kept alive the love of liberty, rose in revolt against the English dominion. Edward I. again led an irresistible English army into Wales, and Llewellyn was soon defeated and slain in a battle; whereupon the Welsh chieftains quietly submitted, and the principality of Wales was formally annexed to the realm of England, A. D. 1282. Irritated at the determined resistance of the Welsh, King Edward I. caused Llewellyn's brother David and the Welsh bards to be massacred.

Edward I. wisely gave the Welsh people the English system of courts and laws, and for a century they remained at peace, with a single exception. In a conference with the Welsh chiefs at Caernarvon, Edward I. promised to give them a prince born in their own coun-

Edward I., A. D. 1272-1307.

His Abilities and Accomplishments.

His Titles.

His Character.

His Chief Ambition.

His Humbling of Llewellyn of Wales.

Welsh Revolt.

Llewellyn's Defeat and Death.

English Conquest of Wales.

The First English Prince of Wales.

try, a prince who could not speak a word of French or English; and then introduced his infant son Edward, who was born in Caernarvon Castle the day before, as the prince whom he meant. By the death of his elder brother, little Edward became the heir to the English crown; and ever since that time the eldest son of the British sovereign has been styled *Prince of Wales*.

Restoration of Order in England.

After thus effecting the conquest of Wales, which Saxons and Normans for eight centuries had failed to subdue, King Edward I. returned to England and devoted himself to the administration of government and the restoration of public order. His strong hand soon put an end to the robberies which had become disgracefully frequent during his father's weak reign.

Execution and Banishment of the Jews.

Edward's chief severity was visited upon the Jews. A common crime in that turbulent and corrupt age was "clipping the coin"; and the Jews were accused of having a principal share in that transaction. Two hundred and eighty Jews were hanged in London alone. Eight years later, A. D. 1292, all the Jews in England were ordered to be cast into prison, and were kept there until they had paid a heavy ransom. Finally, for no apparent cause, the entire Hebrew population of England, more than sixteen thousand in number, were forced to leave the kingdom. They were permitted to take their money and jewels; but these treasures increased their perils, as very many were murdered by sailors and others in their passage over the seas. In those ages of bigotry a crime against a Jew was regarded by many as no crime at all. But Edward I. was more just, and ordered the murderers to be hanged whenever they could be convicted.

The Crown of Scotland and the Maid of Norway.

Edward's next great object was the union of England and Scotland under one dominion. King Alexander III. of Scotland, whose wife was Edward's sister, died in 1286, leaving the Scottish crown to his only surviving descendant, his little granddaughter, Margaret, daughter of King Erik II. of Norway, and grandniece of the King of England. This princess, then three years old, and known as the *Maid of Norway*, was soon afterward betrothed to Edward's son, Edward the Prince of Wales. On her voyage from Norway to Scotland, the princess died on one of the Orkneys, from the fatigue of the rough voyage; and thus the plan for uniting England and Scotland under one sovereign was for the time frustrated, and the way opened for three centuries of bitter strife between the two kingdoms.

Rival Scottish Claimants.

Among the Scots many rival competitors now appeared for the crown of Scotland, the chief of whom were John Baliol, Lord of Galloway; Robert Bruce, Lord of Annandale; and John Hastings, Lord of Abergavenny—all of whom were of Norman descent. The Scottish Parliament, unable to choose among the competitors, referred the de-



cision to the King of England as umpire. At the head of a large English army, Edward I. met the Scottish Parliament and all the rival claimants at Norham, on the Tweed, May 10, 1291; and having them in his power, he declared that he, not as an umpire freely chosen, but as lord-paramount of Scotland, should appoint a vassal monarch for that kingdom. This suzerainty had been exercised by Henry II. after the capture of King William the Lion of Scotland at Alnwick Castle in 1174, but had been freely surrendered by Richard the Lion-hearted in 1190, for himself and his successors.

Claim of Edward I. as Lord-paramount of Scotland.

Being in no condition to resist Edward's claims, the Scots had no alternative than to submit; and Edward I. decided in favor of the claims of John Baliol to the crown of Scotland, with the understanding that he should do feudal homage to the King of England for his crown. Baliol was King of Scotland in little else than in name. On trifling pretexts he was six times summoned to London to appear before the English Parliament. Edward's apparent design was to vex Baliol into rebellion, and then to confiscate his kingdom as a punishment.

His Decision in Favor of John Baliol as Vassal King of Scotland.

When Edward I. became involved in a war with King Philip the Fair of France, Baliol formed an alliance with the French monarch, thus causing a furious war between England and Scotland. Forty thousand Scots made a sudden raid across the border into Cumberland. Edward I. was prepared for them, and repulsed them at Carlisle; after which he drove them into Berwick, which he besieged by land and sea and finally captured. Edward entered the town at the head of his assaulting column, and a frightful slaughter of two days ended only when every inhabitant of the town had been slain. The English king then advanced into Scotland, and defeated Baliol in the battle of Dunbar, A. D. 1296. Roxburgh, Jedburgh and Dumbarton received English garrisons. Edinburgh was besieged, and Stirling was taken.

War between England and Scotland.

Capture and Massacre of Berwick.

Battle of Dunbar.

Finally at Montrose Abbey, in 1296, Baliol appeared in penitential garments before the Bishop of Durham, confessed his sins against his sovereign lord, King Edward I., and surrendered the Scottish crown into his hands. The English king then took possession of Scotland as a forfeited fief. He was acknowledged King of Scotland by the Scottish Parliament, and filled the offices in Scotland with Englishmen. Edward I. carried to London the Scottish crown, scepter, and the sacred stone at Scone, called the *Stone of Destiny*, on which the Scottish kings had been crowned for centuries. There was a Scottish tradition that this sacred stone was the pillow of stone used by the patriarch Jacob at Bethel, and it was popularly believed that the Scots would reign wherever that stone might be. Edward I. had the stone placed in Westminster Abbey, then just completed, and put beneath the Coronation Chair, in which all the Kings of England are crowned.

Baliol's Surrender of the Scottish Crown.

Edward's First Conquest of Scotland.

The Stone of Destiny.

**The  
Romantic  
Border  
Wars.**

The fierce and bloody wars between England and Scotland which began in the reign of Edward I. lasted two centuries, and desolated the border lands of the two kingdoms throughout successive reigns. "The earlier ballad and legend, wild and weird like the Scotch character itself, and the later song and tale with their warp of fact and woof of fiction, have involved the whole story of the struggle between England and Scotland in the fascinations of romance."

**Alliance  
of France  
and  
Scotland.**

The war which had arisen between England and France in the meantime was caused by a quarrel between some English and French sailors. This struggle greatly encouraged the Scots and led to that close alliance which united France and Scotland in common enmity to England for centuries.

**Edward I  
as a  
Vassal of  
Philip the  
Fair of  
France for  
Guienne.**

As Duke of Guienne, King Edward I. was a vassal of the King of France, who delighted to treat him as Edward I. had treated John Baliol. King Philip the Fair summoned Edward I. to appear at Paris to answer for the misconduct of his subjects. The King of England appeared by his brother, Edmund Plantagenet, Earl of Lancaster, who acted as his proxy. The French king demanded that Aquitaine should, as a mere matter of form, be given into his hands until the matter could be settled; but when he had once obtained possession of the chief towns of Guienne he declared that duchy annexed to the French crown as a forfeited fief of the English king. Edward I. took the field to uphold his rights, and was supported by the Duke of Brittany, the Count of Flanders and Adolf of Nassau, King of Germany. The war commenced in Gascony in 1294, and lasted two years, with the general advantage on the side of the French; Edward I. being hampered by his war with Scotland.

**Edward's  
Allies.**

**French  
Success.**

**Principle  
of No  
Taxation  
without  
Representa-  
tion  
Estab-  
lished in  
England.**

The wars of Edward I. in Continental Europe, though disastrous to the English, afforded the English people an opportunity to secure their rights through the king's necessities. Edward's subjects well knew that by holding the purse-strings of the nation they had a check upon their sovereign. In 1297 Edward's demand for money was answered by a demand on the part of the barons and the representatives of the people for the renewal of the Great Charter, with an additional clause, "that no tallage or aid should be levied without the assent of the peers spiritual and temporal, and the *knights, burgesses and other freemen in Parliament assembled.*" Edward I. very reluctantly signed this document, which made it forever illegal for a King of England to levy any tax upon his subjects without their own consent, through their legally elected representatives. Parliament willingly voted a large subsidy to Edward I. as the price of this concession.

**Edward I.  
and His  
Parliam-  
ents.**

At one time, under the pressure of want, Edward I. levied money in violation of the Great Charter; but, convinced of his error, he acknowl-

edged it with tears in his eyes, in the presence of Parliament, and repented. In his reign Parliaments became more regular, and from this time met permanently at Westminster; but the Commons did not yet have any voice in matters of legislation, simply voting money.

Among the wise laws of Edward I. was one basing the defense of the kingdom more thoroughly than ever on an armed militia, ever at the king's immediate call. Another law insured the freedom of elections against menace or forcible interference. Another forbade judges and officers to receive rewards for official services, lawyers to use deceit to beguile the court, persons to utter slanders, or jurors to render a false verdict. Another required the gates of walled towns to be kept closed from sunset to sunrise, and a watch to be set. Another required every man to cut away the bushes and undergrowth on his own land, two hundred feet on each side of the principal roads, to render an ambush by highwaymen difficult. A statute for London forbade armed men to appear in the streets, or taverns to sell ale or beer, after Curfew.

His Wise  
Laws.

Edward I. greatly improved the courts, rendering the administration of justice more certain and equal. The ecclesiastical courts were confined to strictly spiritual matters. The county court was undisturbed; but its business was restricted, and the people in the rural districts better accommodated, by the appointment of *Justices of the Peace* as local magistrates. From the Court of Appeal sprang the Court of Chancery, with the Chancellor at the head—a court governed by the principles of equity, not by common law, and designed to have jurisdiction when the administration of exact justice was prevented by the technicalities of law and by the inability of the other courts to vary from the established modes of procedure.

Courts of  
Justice.

Justices  
of the  
Peace.

Court of  
Chancery.

A treaty of peace was finally made between England and France in June, 1299. In accordance with this treaty, Edward I. married Marguerite, the eldest sister of King Philip the Fair; his first wife, Eleanor of Castile, having died in the meantime; and his son Edward, the Prince of Wales, was affianced to the French king's daughter Isabella, then only six years old. This last marriage was the source of centuries of war between England and France. By this treaty the King of England abandoned his ally, the Count of Flanders; while the King of France left his allies, the Scots, to the sanguinary vengeance of Edward I.

Peace  
with  
France.

Royal  
Intermar-  
riages.

Edward's first conquest of Scotland was of short duration. The Scots found a heroic champion in the valiant patriot, William Wallace, a gallant knight, a man of no high rank, but distinguished by extraordinary patience and determination, as well as by his remarkable strength. The great nobles of Scotland mostly held aloof from the

Revolt of  
the Scots  
under  
William  
Wallace.

struggle, or gave Wallace a very feeble support; but the common people considered him their hero and deliverer.

The  
Scottish  
Nobles  
and the  
High-  
landers.

The great nobles of Scotland, like those of England, were mainly of Norman descent, and cared very little for the country or the people where their estates lay. John Baliol did homage to King Edward I. for lands in France and England, as well as for Scotland; and the real Scots of the Highlands preferred the King of England to either John Baliol or Robert Bruce.

Battle of  
Stirling.

Wallace secretly collected an army of stalwart peasants and a band of desperate outlaws, and attacked and defeated the English under Earl Warrenne, Edward's governor of Scotland, with great slaughter at Stirling, in September, 1297. Wallace took castle after castle, and liberated all Scotland from English rule; after which he pushed his victorious arms across the border into England, and ravaged Cumberland and Northumberland. His countrymen chose him for their ruler, with the modest title of *Guardian of the Realm of Scotland*.

Wallace's  
Liberation  
of  
Scotland.

Invasion  
of  
Scotland  
by  
Edward I.

The warlike Edward I., who had been in Continental Europe when this revolt of the Scots broke out, now returned to England with a great train of knights and archers, to which he added the forces of England, Ireland and Wales. Enraged at the new outbreak of Scottish patriotism, Edward I. led his forces into Scotland and annihilated the Scottish army under Wallace at Falkirk, July 22, 1298; the valiant Scottish patriot being forsaken by the proud Scottish lords, who scorned to serve under a leader of humble birth.

Battle of  
Falkirk.

Revolt of  
the Scots  
under  
John  
Comyn.

The victorious King of England was soon obliged to retire for want of food; and in 1303 the Scots were again in the field, under the leadership of John Comyn of Badenoch, son-in-law of John Baliol. This time Edward I. was invincible. A formidable English fleet laden with provisions sailed along the coast, almost abreast of Edward's land force. The English king marched in triumph through Scotland from south to north, through Lowlands and Highlands, reducing all the castles and forcing all the Scottish chiefs to do him feudal homage.

Edward's  
Second  
Conquest  
of  
Scotland.

Betrayal  
of  
William  
Wallace  
to  
Edward I.

In the meantime the valiant Wallace waged a relentless war against the English for seven years, disdaining to accept the mercy of his country's conqueror. Outlawed and with a price set upon his head, and hiding in the mountains, he was at last basely betrayed into Edward's power by a Scottish noble; and, with a cruelty disgraceful to the memory of Edward I., the patriot leader was taken in chains to London, where he was tried as a traitor, with a crown of oak leaves upon his head, to indicate that he was king of outlaws. He was condemned to death for treason, simply because he defended the independence of his native land with indomitable heroism, and was hanged at Tyburn, August 24, 1305. His head, crowned in mockery with a cir-

His  
Execution  
in  
London.

clet of laurel, was placed on London Bridge. His countrymen considered him a martyr, and he has ever since been honored as the national hero of Scotland.

The story of Wallace's martyrdom sped through Scotland, from Lowland moor to Highland glen, from peasant cot to lordly castle; and the dead Wallace achieved what the living Wallace had failed to accomplish. Scottish jealousies ceased; and the fierce resentment that united all Scottish hearts in the stern resolve to avenge the valiant patriot's cruel death also united them in the nobler resolve to liberate their country from the hated English yoke, and the struggle was renewed with redoubled vigor.

Effect of  
Wallace's  
Martyr-  
dom.

Robert Bruce, Earl of Carrick—grandson of the Robert Bruce who had been a competitor with John Baliol for the Scottish crown in 1292—lived at Edward's court, petted and favored, but closely watched. He conceived the design of freeing his country from English rule, and communicated his plans to his rival, John Comyn of Badenoch, John Baliol's son-in-law. Comyn at first agreed to Bruce's plans, but finally betrayed his design to the English king. A friend of Bruce at the English court, hearing of his danger and not daring to communicate with him personally, sent him a purse of gold and a pair of spurs; and the sagacious Bruce, rightly interpreting the friendly warning, secretly hastened to Scotland without a moment's delay. As the ground was then covered with snow, he had the precaution to order his horse to be shod with the shoes reversed, that he might deceive those who should track his path over the open fields and cross-roads through which he proposed to travel.

Robert  
Bruce  
and John  
Comyn.

Bruce's  
Escape  
from  
London.

In a few days Bruce reached Scotland; and at Dumfries, in Annandale, the chief seat of his family interest, he fortunately found many of the Scottish nobility assembled, the traitor Comyn being among them. They were surprised at Bruce's unexpected arrival among them, and readily agreed to sustain him in his efforts for the deliverance of Scotland, with the exception of Comyn, who strenuously sought to induce the Scottish nobles to submit to English rule. To punish him for his treachery, and to prevent him from doing any mischief in future, Bruce drew his dagger and stabbed Comyn where he stood, before the high altar of the church at Dumfries.

His  
Arrival  
in  
Scotland.

He Kills  
the  
Traitor  
John  
Comyn.

Bruce then proceeded to Scone, and was crowned King of Scotland by the Bishop of St. Andrews, in the abbey which had been the scene of the coronation of so many Scottish kings; after which he published a defiance to the King of England, no longer as Robert Bruce of Annandale, but as King Robert I. of Scotland. The Scots rose bravely at the call of their second champion, and in about four months all the clans were in arms under Bruce's standard, resolved to recover their

His  
Corona-  
tion as  
King of  
Scotland.

Scottish  
Revolt.

country's independence; and the English garrisons were driven from all but a few of the strongest castles.

**Solemn  
Vow of  
Edward I.**

Edward I. was greatly enraged when he heard of Bruce's proceedings in Scotland. He saw that his second conquest of Scotland was no more permanent than the first had been, and that he must begin the task anew. Bowed with years, but still resolute, he took the field against the Scots for the third time. Before starting on his expedition to Scotland, he assembled all his barons in Westminster Abbey, and took a solemn oath by two live swans, adorned with bells of gold, that he would invade Scotland and never return until he had completely subjugated that country. He kept his vow, but not in the way he intended. He did not subdue Scotland, and he never returned.

**Prince  
Edward's  
Victories  
in  
Scotland.**

In the meantime Edward's son Edward, Prince of Wales, had advanced into Scotland and opened the campaign with such cruel devastations that his father was obliged to stop him. Bruce and his followers were driven about from place to place by Edward's advance troops under Sir Aymer de Valence, who defeated Bruce at Methven, in Perthshire, and forced him to take refuge in the Hebrides.

**Death of  
Edward I.**

King Edward I., who was then in Cumberland with an army of a hundred thousand men, sinking under exertion and excitement, was overcome by illness near Carlisle, and died at Burgh-on-the-Sands, July 7, 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, just as his army came in sight of the blue hills of Scotland. With his dying breath he enjoined his son to prosecute the war until he had completely conquered Scotland, and even desired that his dead body should be carried at the head of the invading army as it marched into that country.

**His  
Dying In-  
junction.**

**Edward  
II., A. D.  
1307-  
1327.**

EDWARD II., the son and successor of Edward I., was twenty-two years of age when he became King of England in 1307. His first act was to disobey his father's dying injunction to prosecute the war for the conquest of Scotland. He had advanced but a little way into Scotland when he ordered a retreat, abandoned the enterprise and disbanded his army; thus disgusting his barons.

**His  
Retreat  
from  
Scotland.**

**His Weak  
Char-  
acter.**

Edward II. was a weak prince, the slave of worthless favorites, and entirely lacked the knightly qualities which so distinguished his illustrious father. He was destitute of vigor or virtue sufficient to be just to himself, or to enforce justice among his subjects. His only aim was indulgence in sensual pleasures. The barons, seeing that he was too weak to hold the reins of government as firmly as his renowned father had done, soon began to entertain little respect for the royal authority, and to practice every form of insolence with the utmost impunity.

Edward II. also violated another promise which he had made to his father. In his early youth his father had assigned him for a compan-

ion a Gascon knight of good family, named Piers Gaveston. This Frenchman was a man of elegant manners and many accomplishments, and excelled in all the knightly and courtly graces of the time; but his character was wholly dissolute, and he exercised a most corrupting influence over the young prince, leading him into such wild and lawless courses that Edward I. banished Gaveston from England, after vainly striving to check his son's frivolous career. Edward I., on his death-bed, made his son swear that he would never recall Gaveston; but no sooner had Edward II. ascended the English throne than he summoned Gaveston back to England and loaded him with honors, wealth and estates—a proceeding which greatly offended the English barons, who resented the inferior birth and the haughty and insolent bearing of the king's French favorite.

Edward II. and Piers Gaveston.

Gaveston's Banishment and Recall.

Barons Oppose Gaveston.

Early in 1308 King Edward II. went to France and married the Princess Isabella, the daughter of King Philip the Fair, to whom he had been affianced since 1299. He left Gaveston in charge of the kingdom during his absence—an act which excited the disaffection of the barons to the highest degree. The new queen, who desired to rule her husband herself, became jealous of Gaveston's influence, and joined the English barons against the king's insolent French favorite.

Marriage of Edward II. with Isabella of France.

Queen and Barons against Gaveston.

Soon after the king's coronation the barons demanded the banishment of the haughty Gaveston. Edward II. consented to this demand with great reluctance; but, instead of sending the favorite out of the English dominions entirely, the king turned his punishment into a promotion by appointing him Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, going with him as far as Bristol, and bestowing upon him new estates in England and Gascony. Gaveston was a brave and energetic man, and his administration in Ireland was, on the whole, creditable.

Gaveston, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

Anxious for the recall of his favorite, King Edward II. softened the hostility of the barons by making concessions to them, and obtained from the Pope a dispensation absolving Gaveston from the oath he had taken never to return to England; and the favorite was recalled. Gaveston was just as arrogant and insolent as ever, and continued the same course as before, thus exciting a fresh outbreak of the barons.

Gaveston's Recall and Continued Insolence.

In 1310 the barons forced the weak king to relinquish the royal authority for one year into the hands of a committee of twelve barons, styled *Ordainers*, who instituted a series of measures, some of which were useful and praiseworthy, because they diminished the arbitrary powers of the crown. The Ordainers banished Gaveston from England, though the king begged piteously that he might be permitted to remain. The exiled favorite retired to Flanders, and in less than a year Edward II. removed the court to York and recalled the insolent Gaveston.

The Ordainers.

Gaveston's Exile and Recall.

**Rebellion of the Barons.** The barons now determined to get rid of the king's insolent favorite forever. They took up arms, under the leadership of the king's cousin, Thomas Plantagenet, Earl of Lancaster, the most powerful baron in England. The rebel barons captured Scarborough Castle, in which Gaveston had taken refuge. Gaveston was conducted to Warwick Castle, where he was beheaded without trial, by order of his enemies, June 19, 1312. Edward II. was furious with rage at the death of his favorite, and swore vengeance on all who had been concerned in the murder; but he lacked the energy to hold a purpose requiring such efforts, and soon agreed to a reconciliation with the barons, thus restoring tranquillity to the kingdom.

**Rage of Edward II.** In the meantime, while Edward II. and his barons were engaged in their petty quarrels, the Scots, under King Robert Bruce, were regaining their national independence. The Scots recovered Linlithgow, Roxburgh, Edinburgh and Perth in succession. The accounts of the sieges of castles held by English garrisons are full of romantic interest. Linlithgow was taken very much like ancient Troy was captured by the Greeks. A Scottish peasant had been in the habit of supplying the English garrison with forage. One day he came with a load of hay in which were concealed Scottish soldiers. After crossing the drawbridge he placed his load of hay in such a position that the gates could not be shut. The concealed soldiers suddenly made their appearance, and held the gates until reinforcements lying in ambush came up, when the garrison was overpowered.

**Scottish Successes.** The only fortress in Scotland that still held out for the English king was Stirling Castle, which was vigorously besieged by Edward Bruce, King Robert's brother. The governor of the castle, reduced to desperate straits by want of provisions, agreed to surrender on the day of the Feast of St. John the Baptist, if not relieved by the English in the meantime. Edward II., roused from his lethargy, speedily collected an army which the Scottish writers estimated at a hundred thousand men, and hastily marched to the relief of Stirling Castle.

**Scottish Capture of Linlithgow by Stratagem.** Edward II. was confronted by thirty thousand Scots under King Robert Bruce at Bannockburn, two miles from Stirling, June 24, 1314. The English king attacked the Scots, but suffered the most disastrous defeat in the history of English warfare, considering the disparity of the forces engaged—the greatest reverse which the English had sustained since the battle of Hastings. The English army fled from the field in utter dismay; and King Edward II. himself fled in hot haste to Dunbar, closely pursued by some Scottish knights, and from that town he returned to England by sea. The English camp, with all its treasures and supplies, fell into the possession of the victorious Scots, while the panic-stricken English soldiers were slaughtered without mercy.

**Siege of Stirling Castle by Edward Bruce.**

**Edward II. Marches to Its Relief.**

**Battle of Bannockburn.**



The battle of Bannockburn secured the independence of Scotland, and King Robert Bruce retaliated by invading England and ravaging Cumberland and Northumberland.

Scotland's Independence.

Encouraged by his success in Scotland, King Robert Bruce made an effort to wrest Ireland from the English, sending his brother Edward into that island with a Scottish army to accept the Irish crown, which had been offered to him by the O'Neil and other chiefs of Ulster. Edward Bruce landed in Ulster in 1315 and achieved some successes, after which he was crowned King of Ireland at Carrickfergus. The English and their Irish supporters rallied for a supreme effort, and inflicted a crushing defeat upon Edward Bruce at Athenree, August 10, 1316. Edward Bruce was defeated and slain in the battle of Dundalk in 1318, thus ending this effort to liberate Ireland from the English dominion.

Edward Bruce's Invasion of Ireland.

Battles of Athenree and Dundalk.

In the meantime King Edward II. had found a new favorite, Hugh Spenser, a young Welsh gentleman of noble birth, who was a man very much like Gaveston; but his father, whom the king also took into his favor, was deservedly honored for his wisdom and valor, his fidelity in many high offices, his integrity and pure life. The elder Spenser was a man of advanced age, and was well adapted to be the counselor to such a king as Edward II.

Edward II. and Hugh Spenser and His Father.

The king's favoritism for the two Spensers, father and son, provoked another outbreak of the barons, who again took up arms under the Earls of Hereford and Lancaster. The rebellious barons were defeated at Boroughbridge. The Earl of Hereford was slain, and the Earl of Lancaster was taken prisoner and beheaded. Roger Mortimer, one of the same party, who was also the queen's paramour, was likewise taken prisoner, and was condemned to death; but his sentence was afterwards commuted to imprisonment in the Tower.

Rebellion and Overthrow of the Barons.

The Queen's Paramour, Roger Mortimer.

King Charles the Fair of France, brother-in-law of Edward II., took advantage of the domestic troubles of England, to make an effort to obtain possession of the English monarch's territories in France; and in 1325 Edward II. sent his wife Isabella to Paris to arrange matters with her brother. Queen Isabella was soon joined in France by her young son Edward, Prince of Wales, and also by her lover, Roger Mortimer, who had escaped from the Tower. Isabella had no love for her husband, her affections being wholly centered on Mortimer; and, instead of endeavoring to bring about a peace between her brother and her husband, she plotted for her husband's overthrow, being aided by her brother with men and money. She affianced her son to the Princess Philippa, daughter of Count William of Hainault.

Queen Isabella and Roger Mortimer in France.

Their Plots with King Charles the Fair against Edward II.

In 1326 Queen Isabella returned to England, landing in Suffolk with an army consisting mainly of foreigners. She at once raised the standard of revolt against her husband, ostensibly to overthrow the Spensers,

Rebellion of the Queen and the Barons.

but really to acquire the supreme power for herself and Mortimer. She was joined by the discontented barons, and was hailed as a deliverer by all classes, so that she soon had an overwhelming force at her command.

Flight of  
Edward  
II. from  
London.

King Edward II., deserted and helpless, was obliged to flee from London. He embarked for the Isle of Lundy, off Bristol Channel; but was driven upon the coast of Wales, landing at Swansea. The queen's troops took Bristol; and the elder Spenser, an old man of ninety, who commanded there, was barbarously put to death. King Edward II. and Hugh Spenser were captured in Glamorganshire. Hugh Spenser was crowned with nettles and hanged, while the king was imprisoned in Kenilworth Castle.

Execution  
of the  
Spensers.

Regency  
of Prince  
Edward.

In the meantime Edward, Prince of Wales, a boy of fourteen years, had been made regent by his mother and Mortimer; but, as the young prince possessed no authority, the kingdom was in a deplorable condition. The mobs of London and other cities committed robberies and murders with impunity, and were called *Riflers*.

The  
Riflers.

Deposi-  
tion of  
Edward  
II. by  
Parlia-  
ment.

In 1327 a Parliament summoned by the queen assembled at Westminster, revived the constitutional usage of the earlier English freedom and asserted the right of Parliament to depose the king, by declaring Edward II. unworthy to rule and proclaiming his son Edward king by acclamation. Queen Isabella, the real author of her husband's misery, burst into a flood of hypocritical tears at this announcement; and her son Edward, Prince of Wales, was so affected by her feigned sorrow that he swore that he would never reign in his father's life-time without his consent.

The  
Queen's  
Hypoc-  
risy.

Forced  
Abdica-  
tion of  
Edward  
II.

To satisfy the pretended scruples of the queen, Parliament sent a deputation to Kenilworth Castle to procure a formal abdication of the English crown from the dethroned king in favor of his son. As soon as the discrowned sovereign saw the deputies he fainted; and when he recovered and was informed of their errand he told them that he was in their power and must submit to their will. Sir William Trussel, in the name of the people of England, then renounced all fealty to "Edward of Caernarvon," so styled from the place of his birth, in Wales; and Sir Francis Blount, High Steward, broke his staff and declared all the king's officers discharged from his service.

Cruelties  
and  
Indig-  
nities  
to the  
Dethroned  
King.

Thus ended the reign of Edward II., which had lasted twenty years (A. D. 1307-1327); but his own miseries were not yet ended. The dethroned king was committed to the custody of some wretches, who did all in their power to kill him by ill usage. They hurried him like a common felon from castle to castle in the middle of the night, only half clothed. One day for sport they ordered him to be shaved in the open fields, with water out of a dirty ditch, and refused to let him have any other. The unhappy monarch shed tears at this treatment; and,

while the tears were trickling down his cheeks, he said, with a smile of grief: "Here is clean warm water, whether you will or no."

But this method of killing the deposed king proved too slow, and compassion for his sufferings was working a reaction in his favor among the people. Finally he was lodged in Berkeley Castle, which he never left alive. By Mortimer's orders the unfortunate Edward II. was horribly murdered one autumn night, the gloomy walls of Berkeley Castle resounding with the most heart-rending shrieks, September 21, 1327; and the next day the distorted features of the dead king told only too well the story of his cruel murder, in the forty-third year of his age.

**His Cruel Murder in Berkeley Castle.**

#### SECTION IV.—THE PLANTAGENETS AND HUNDRED YEARS' WAR WITH FRANCE (A. D. 1327-1455).

THE chivalrous EDWARD III., the son and successor of Edward II., became a powerful monarch; and his reign of fifty years was one of the longest and most brilliant in the annals of England. Unlike his father, he was an energetic and vigorous sovereign, and was one of the greatest of the Plantagenets. He was an able statesman, a great warrior and a gallant knight.

**Edward III., A.D. 1327-1377.**

**His Greatness.**

As Edward III. was only fourteen years of age when he became King of England in 1327, a Council of Regency composed of twelve of the principal lords was appointed to administer the government during the king's minority; but the real power was exercised by his mother Isabella and her paramour, Roger Mortimer, who controlled the Council of Regency. Mortimer soon assumed the title of Earl of March.

**Council of Regency.**

**Isabella and Roger Mortimer.**

The Scots under James, Earl of Douglas, continued their raids across the border, and young King Edward III. led an English army against them; but the light-armed and well-mounted Scots skilfully avoided battles and eluded pursuit, and the young English king was obliged to retire for want of supplies. Finally, England acknowledged the independence of Scotland by the Treaty of Northampton, in March, 1328; and a sister of King Edward III. was betrothed to David Bruce, the son and heir of King Robert I.

**Scottish Invasion**

**Treaty of Northampton.**

Mortimer, who felt sure of his power, conducted himself with such insolence and such reckless disregard of the rights of others that he soon raised a determined opposition to his supremacy. His infamous course in causing the king's uncle, the Duke of Kent, to be executed, and the Earl of Lancaster to be imprisoned, aggravated the hostility with which he was threatened; and finally the young king's eyes were opened to the ambitious schemes of his mother's arrogant favorite.

**Mortimer's Ambition and Arrogance.**

**Edward III., as Ruler.**

When Edward III. was eighteen years of age he resolved to take the government into his own hands and be his own master. Isabella and Mortimer then occupied Nottingham Castle. Every night the keys of the castle gates were brought to the suspicious queen-mother's bedside, while guards were stationed at every avenue of approach. Under the guidance of the governor of the castle, a small but trusty band of the young king's friends entered the castle at night, through a subterranean passage, and, being joined by King Edward III. himself, took the garrison utterly by surprise. Mortimer was seized in Isabella's presence and borne away to prison; the queen-mother piteously entreated her son to "spare the gentle Mortimer."

**Isabella and Mortimer.**

**Mortimer's Imprisonment.**

**Mortimer's Condemnation and Execution.**

**Isabella's Lifelong Imprisonment.**

Thenceforth Edward III. was king in fact as well as in name. He at once summoned a Parliament, before whom Mortimer was brought, charged with various offences and crimes, one of which was the murder of King Edward II. He was pronounced guilty, and was hanged on an elm at Tyburn, in 1330; and the king's mother was consigned to life-long imprisonment in Castle Rising, where she lingered in hopeless captivity for the remaining twenty-seven years of her life, visited once a year by her son.

**Flemish Weavers in England.**

**English Wool Manufacture.**

In 1331 King Edward III. settled colonies of Flemish weavers in the counties of Norfolk, Suffolk and Essex, thus laying the foundation of one of England's greatest industries. These foreign settlers introduced into England the manufacture of the finest woolen cloths. The wool of England was then the finest in Europe, and was the principal article of export from the kingdom. The English people, fearing that the establishment of home manufactures would ruin their commerce, treated the Flemish immigrants with such hostility that King Edward III. was put to much trouble to protect them.

**Restoration of Law and Order.**

England was now in terrible disorder. Robbery and all manner of violence had increased without check, under the weakness of Edward II. and the crimes of Isabella. Edward III. devoted himself with vigor and energy to the restoration of order and justice, and put down many gangs of robbers by his own personal presence. By a series of wise and heroic measures he reëstablished the royal power and the supremacy of the law throughout the kingdom.

**Civil War in Scotland between David Bruce and Edward Baliol.**

**Baliol's Vassalage to Edward III.**

Edward III. next turned his attention to Scotland. King Robert Bruce died in 1329, and the Scottish crown passed to his son David, then only seven years old. Scottish history repeated itself in this instance. Edward Baliol, son of John Baliol, who figured so prominently in the reign of Edward I., now asserted his right to the Scottish throne, as his father had done before him. After defeating the forces of David Bruce, near Perth, in 1332, Edward Baliol seized the crown of Scotland; and David Bruce fled to France. To gain the support of King

Edward III., Edward Baliol, like his father before him, agreed to reign as a vassal of the English crown. The indignant Scots flew to arms and drove him from the country in 1333.

The exiled Edward Baliol sought refuge in England; and, after a show of reluctance because of the treaty still in force between England and Scotland, Edward III. declared in Baliol's favor, led a large army into Scotland, and defeated the Scots in the great battle of Halidon Hill, in 1333, thus restoring Edward Baliol to the Scottish throne and compelling David Bruce to take refuge in France a second time. Edward Baliol ceded the fortresses of Berwick, Dunbar and Edinburgh, and all the south-eastern counties of Scotland, to England; while he and many of the Scottish lords swore fealty to Edward III.

The very name of Baliol was repugnant to the Scots, and after the withdrawal of the English army he was driven from Scotland a second time. The Scots were encouraged and aided by France, and they made Sir Andrew Murray regent for David Bruce, who was still in France. The King of England again marched into Scotland to restore Edward Baliol to the throne of that kingdom; and the Scots, unable to cope with Edward III. in the Lowlands, retreated into the Highlands, where they kept alive their hostility to the usurper Baliol and his master, the English king.

The cause of David Bruce had been warmly supported by King Philip VI. of France, the first of the Valois branch of the royal race of Capet. This conduct of the King of France deeply offended King Edward III., who retaliated by giving a cordial reception to the French king's inveterate enemy, Count Robert of Artois, who fled to England in 1333. King Philip VI. endeavored to force Edward III. to send the Count of Artois away, and also committed many aggressions upon Edward's duchy of Guienne, although the English king had consented to do homage to the King of France for that province.

In 1336 the French king brought matters to a crisis by an insolent demand that the English monarch should give up the Count of Artois, threatening the confiscation of his duchy of Guienne in case of refusal. Edward III. instantly began preparations for war; and, acting on the advice of Jacques van Artevelde, the famous brewer of Ghent and the leader of the Flemings, he claimed the French crown because his mother Isabella was a daughter of Philip the Fair, and assumed the title of King of France; but his pretensions were invalidated by the Salic Law, which prevailed in France, and which prevented females from inheriting the French crown.

The basis of the claim of Edward III. to the crown of France will be best seen in the following statement: Philip the Fair's three sons, who reigned over France in succession, left only female issue; while his

Baliol Aided by Edward III.

Battle of Halidon Hill.

Baliol's Cessions to England.

Scottish Resistance to Baliol and Edward III.

Hostility between Edward III. and Philip VI. of France.

Insolent Demand of Philip VI. of France.

Edward III. Claims the French Crown.

Basis of His Claim.

daughter Isabella, who was excluded from the French throne by the Salic Law, married King Edward II. of England and left only male issue, King Edward III. of England. Thus Edward III. claimed to be the nearest male heir; but the French maintained that the Salic Law, which prohibited female inheritance of the French crown, debarred Edward's claim. Edward III. sought to evade the force of the Salic Law by asserting that, though a female could not inherit the French crown, she could transmit it to her male descendants; but the French replied that a female could not transmit a right which she did not herself possess. It was in accordance with the French view of the Salic Law that on the extinction of the direct male line of the House of Capet, in 1328, the French crown passed to Philip the Fair's nephew, Count Philip of Valois, who then became King Philip VI. of France.

Allies of  
Edward  
III.

Edward III. had powerful adherents in Germany, as well as in Flanders, and the Emperor Louis the Bavarian appointed him Imperial Vicar in the Netherlands; while Jacques van Artevelde, the brewer of Ghent, already alluded to, acknowledged him King of France.

Beginning  
of the  
Hundred  
Years'  
War.

The great struggle that now began between England and France is known as the *Hundred Years' War*, because it lasted more than a century, with intervals of peace. During this long struggle English kings achieved a world-wide renown and English soldiers covered themselves with glory, but the final result was the loss of all the English possessions in France except Calais.

Naval  
Battle of  
Helvoet-  
sluys.

The Hundred Years' War commenced in 1339. The next year the English fleet destroyed the French navy in the great battle of Sluys, or Helvoetsluys, off the coast of Flanders, June 24, 1340. But the English king's unjust wars with Scotland and France had exhausted his treasures. The clergy and people of England refused more taxes, except upon the concession of greater privileges; and thus Edward III. was very reluctantly obliged to conclude peace with the King of France for the time.

Short  
Peace.

Invasion  
of France  
by  
Edward  
III.

A disputed succession to the duchy of Brittany again involved Edward III. in the affairs of France. He invaded France with thirty thousand men, landing at Cape La Hogue, in Normandy, June 12, 1346; and, accompanied by his eldest son, Edward, he marched almost to the gates of Paris, ravaging the country with fire and sword. Upon being pursued by King Philip VI. with an army of one hundred thousand Frenchmen, he retreated to the Somme and crossed that stream, taking position on the edge of the forest of Créçy, about twelve miles from Abbeville, where he was attacked by the French king with his superior army, August 26, 1346; thus bringing on the great battle of Créçy, in which the English, although only one-third as numerous as the French, won a glorious victory.

Battle  
of Créçy.

The French advance troops came up with the English about three o'clock in the afternoon. The engagement was delayed by a short but severe thunder-storm; but in half an hour the sun shone out brightly, darting his rays on the backs of the English, but full in the eyes of the French. The battle began with the archers on both sides, and the superior discipline of the English at once became apparent. Their bows had been carefully secured in their cases during the recent storm, and their arrows fell like hail and with terrible execution among the French; while the arrows of the French fell short of their mark, because their bow-strings were wet and slackened.

**Superiority of the English Archers.**

The battle soon became general. The English employed the new invention of gunpowder by using several pieces of cannon—the first instance of such engines of warfare being used in any great European battle. The front ranks of the French were thrown into confusion; and Prince Edward, with remarkable valor, led a charge right into the disordered mass. King Edward III., who was watching the field from the top of a windmill, was importuned to send him help. He asked: "Is my son dead, wounded, or felled to the ground?" He was answered: "Not so, thank God!" The king then said: "Nay, then, he has no aid from me; let him bear himself like a man; in this battle he must win his spurs."

**Cannon First Used.**

**Valor of Edward the Black Prince.**

The King of France fought with great valor, but without success. His entire army fled in dismay in the evening, and were pursued and slaughtered without mercy. Among the slain was the blind old King John of Bohemia, a singular soldier of fortune, who had fought on most of the battlefields of Europe in his day. He had ordered his horse to be tied to those of two knights of his retinue, who rode one on each side. All three knights lay dead together, while the three horses stood unhurt beside the bodies of their dead masters. The Prince of Wales is said to have adopted the dead Bohemian king's crest and motto; the crest consisting of three ostrich feathers surmounting the motto in German, *Ich dien*, meaning "I serve." This crest and motto has been borne by every Prince of Wales ever since. This young Prince of Wales, the hero of Créçy, was ever afterwards known as *Edward the Black Prince*, from the color of the armor which he wore on that memorable field.

**Defeat of the French.**

**Death of Blind Old King John of Bohemia.**

**The Black Prince's Motto.**

The Scots took advantage of the war between England and France to recall King David Bruce and form an alliance with France. Instigated by the King of France, David Bruce led an army of fifty thousand Scots across the border into the North of England, ravaging the country as far as Durham. With great energy, Edward's heroic queen, Philippa of Hainault, raised an army of twelve thousand men, placing it under the command of Lord Percy, who won a great and

**Scottish Invasion of England.**

**Battle of Neville's Cross.** decisive victory over the Scots in the battle of Neville's Cross, near Durham, October 10, 1346, taking King David Bruce prisoner. The King of Scots was carried a captive to London and confined in the Tower.

**Discovery of Coal at Newcastle.** In her campaign against the Scots, Queen Philippa ascertained that there were rich deposits of coal about Newcastle, and perceiving their vast importance she obtained permission from Parliament to open the mines. England's coal is, directly and indirectly, one of the chief sources of her wealth.

**Siege and Capture of Calais by Edward III.** After his great victory at Crécy, Edward III. laid siege to Calais, the key to France. The city was stubbornly defended by the French for nearly a year, when, reduced by famine, Calais was obliged to surrender. It is said that the English king agreed to spare the inhabitants of Calais, whose long resistance exasperated him, if six of the leading citizens should be sent to him, with ropes about their necks, ready for hanging. The unfortunate inhabitants gave way to despair at these hard conditions; but Eustace St. Pierre, a wealthy merchant of Calais, offered himself as one of the victims. Inspired by his noble example, five others followed him. The entreaties of the English nobles, of Edward's queen, Philippa, and of his heroic son, Edward the Black Prince, finally prevailed over the king's obstinate temper and saved the lives of the six noble-hearted citizens. After the surrender of Calais, Edward III. expelled its French inhabitants, and peopled the city with English; and for two centuries that important town remained in the possession of England.

**Eustace St. Pierre and His Associates**

**Calais Made an English Town.**

**The Black Plague.**

After the capture of Calais a truce of ten months was concluded; but hostilities were not renewed for eight years, as both England and France were frightfully ravaged by the *Black Plague*, which commenced in Western Asia and swept over Europe during the four years beginning with 1348, destroying one-third of the population. It is said that over half the inhabitants of England perished from this dreadful plague.

**Hostilities Renewed.**

Hostilities between England and France were renewed in 1355, when King Edward III. invaded the North of France; while his chivalrous son, Edward the Black Prince, hastened to Guienne. Both these English armies ravaged the French dominions.

**The Black Prince's Invasion of France.**

The next year, A. D. 1356, the Black Prince advanced into the county of Poitou with only eight thousand English and Gascon troops; but at Poitiers he found himself confronted by a French army of sixty thousand men under King John the Good, the successor of Philip of Valois on the throne of France. The English, by the skill and discipline of their archers, won as brilliant a victory in the battle of Poitiers, September 19, 1356, as they had achieved at Crécy ten years before.

**Battle of Poitiers.**



Two days before this battle the Black Prince encamped near Poitiers. The same evening the King of France encamped a mile away. When the Black Prince saw the French army advance upon him so unexpectedly, he exclaimed: "God help us! it only remains for us to fight bravely." The Cardinal of Perigord, who was with the French army, desired peace very much, and rode backwards and forwards between King John the Good and the Black Prince several times for the purpose of effecting a treaty. The Black Prince said to him: "Save my honor, and the honor of my army, and I will readily listen to any reasonable conditions." But the French king would consent to nothing unless the Black Prince and a hundred of his knights would surrender themselves prisoners of war. The Black Prince replied to this demand thus: "I will never be made a prisoner but sword in hand."

The  
Battle  
and King  
John the  
Good of  
France  
before the  
Battle.

Finding his efforts unavailing, the Cardinal of Perigord retired to Poitiers, and both armies prepared for the decisive battle which ensued. King John the Good fought bravely, though deserted by most of his knights. His son Philip, afterwards Duke Philip the Bold of Burgundy, fought gallantly by his father's side, though scarcely fourteen years old. The French king, wearied and overwhelmed by numbers, might easily have been slain; but every English knight was ambitious to take him alive, and he was exhorted on all sides to surrender. King John still cried out: "Where is my cousin, the Prince of Wales?" He seemed unwilling to surrender to any person of inferior rank; but, being told that the Black Prince was at a distance, he finally surrendered to a French knight named Morbec, who had been obliged to leave his country for murder. The French king's heroic son Philip, who acquired the surname of *the Bold*, on account of his gallantry in this battle, likewise surrendered.

Bravery  
of King  
John and  
His Son  
Philip.

They  
Become  
Prisoners.

The Black Prince, who was reposing in his tent from the fatigues of the battle, displayed anxiety for the fate of the King of France, and sent the Earl of Warwick to bring him intelligence. That nobleman found the captive king at a fortunate moment, as his life was exposed to more danger than during the battle. The English had forcibly taken the royal prisoner from Morbec, and quarreled among themselves for the custody of his person. Some brutal soldiers, rather than yield the prize to their rivals, had threatened to put their illustrious captive to death; but the Earl of Warwick overawed all parties, rescued the captive monarch from their turbulence, and led him to the Black Prince.

King John  
and His  
Captors.

The Black Prince treated the captive French king with every mark of respect and sympathy, seeking to soothe and comfort him. He ordered a magnificent supper to be prepared, and himself served at the table, as if he had been one of the retinue. He stood behind the captive monarch's chair, refusing to be seated in his presence, saying: "I

The Black  
Prince's  
Gener-  
osity to  
His Royal  
Captive.

know too well the difference of rank between a subject and a sovereign prince." King John the Good was much affected by the Black Prince's generous treatment, so little to be expected from so youthful a conqueror; and he burst into tears, declaring that though it was his fate to be a captive he rejoiced that he had fallen into the hands of the most generous and valiant prince then living.

King  
John's  
Captivity  
in  
London.

After returning thanks to God for his victory, the Black Prince praised his troops for their valor, and gave rewards and dignities to such as had especially distinguished themselves. On April 24, 1357, he sailed for England with his royal prisoners. On approaching London they were met by a thousand citizens in their best array, who conducted them with great state to Westminster. The Black Prince, in a plain dress and on a little palfrey, rode beside the captive King of France, who was attired in royal robes and mounted on a stately war horse. When they arrived at Westminster, King Edward III. met them and embraced King John the Good with every mark of respect and affection. The French king and his son were sumptuously lodged in the old palace of the Savoy, and during their three years' captivity in England they were treated more like guests than like prisoners.

Gener-  
ously  
Treated  
by  
Edward  
III. and  
the Black  
Prince.

Ransom  
and  
Release of  
King  
David  
Bruce.

Edward III. now had two kings in captivity; but King David Bruce, who had been a prisoner in England eleven years, was soon released, upon the payment of a large ransom by the Scots. After being a captive in England for three years, King John the Good was released by the Peace of Bretigny, in May, 1360, upon the payment of a ransom of three million gold crowns. By this treaty Edward III. renounced his claim to the French crown and to the French provinces of Normandy, Brittany, Maine, Touraine and Anjou; but he retained the town of Calais, the county of Ponthieu, and the duchy of Guienne, with Poitou and Gascony, no longer as a vassal, but as an independent sovereign. Edward III. promised to give no more assistance or encouragement to the rebellious Flemings, and John the Good agreed to abandon the cause of the Scots.

Peace of  
Bretigny  
and  
Ransom  
and  
Release  
of King  
John the  
Good.

King  
John's  
Hostages.

His  
Volun-  
tary  
Return to  
Captivity  
and  
Death.

Edward III. accompanied King John the Good to Calais, on his return to France; and the two kings parted with many expressions of affection and regard, October 24, 1360. King John gave forty hostages to Edward III. for the payment of the ransom, among whom were two of the French king's sons. These princes violated their parole by escaping from England; whereupon King John the Good, thinking that his own honor was impeached by this breach of faith on the part of his sons, voluntarily returned to captivity in London, where he died in 1364.

The government of the English provinces in France was conferred on the Black Prince, who, with his wife, the *Fair Maid of Kent*, estab-

lished their court at Bordeaux. In a few years he was called upon to interfere in the affairs of Castile, one of the Christian kingdoms in Spain. King Pedro the Cruel of Castile had so disgusted his subjects that they dethroned him, with the aid of the French under Du Guesclin, and conferred the Castilian crown upon his half-brother, Henry of Trastamara. The deposed Pedro the Cruel appealed to the Black Prince, who led his army into Spain and defeated Henry of Trastamara at Navarrete, April 3, 1367. Thereupon all Castile submitted, and Pedro the Cruel was restored to his throne, but he proved a worse tyrant than before. Henry of Trastamara, with military aid from France, again dethroned the tyrant, and murdered him with his own hand. John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, the Black Prince's brother, married a daughter of Pedro the Cruel, and claimed the Castilian crown in her name.

**Edward the Black Prince and the Fair Maid of Kent at Bordeaux.**

A change was gradually taking place in the methods of warfare. Hitherto mailed knights had been the chief reliance in battle; but Edward III., by following the example of William Wallace at Falkirk, had achieved his most brilliant triumphs with English archers, whose volleys of arrows discharged with unerring aim threw the knights of France into hopeless confusion at Crécy and Poitiers. Although Crécy was the first great European battlefield in which cannon were used, heavy cannon which hurled stones were used before for siege purposes.

**The Black Prince's Part in the Civil War in Castile.**

**Change in Methods of Warfare.**

During the reign of Edward III., Chivalry was at its height, and his court was Chivalry's capital, whither gallant knights had been in the habit of gathering from all portions of Europe, to mingle in the scenes of feudal splendor that constantly dazzled the eyes of the wondering and admiring people. His plume was always preëminent, alike in the friendly lists of the tournament or in the deadly shock of battle.

**Edward III and Chivalry.**

Edward III. made the English name glorious by his victories over the French and the Scots, and his fame was worthily sustained by his gallant son, Edward the Black Prince. As King of England, Edward III. proved himself worthy to rule a great nation. By the vigor and wisdom of his administration, he forced all classes to acknowledge the supremacy of the law; and by his affability and generosity, and his earnest desire for the welfare and happiness of all his two million subjects, he attached both nobles and commons to his rule, and won their hearty support in all his enterprises.

**Edward III. as a Warrior and a Statesman.**

Though the foreign wars of Edward III. were unjust, they served to occupy the turbulent spirits of the great nobles with adventures adapted to their tastes, and kept England at internal peace. The laws were well administered, and the common people enjoyed greater prosperity than for several centuries before or after.

**England's Prosperity under His Rule.**

Britons,  
Anglo-  
Saxons  
and  
Normans  
Blended  
as  
English-  
men.

The national animosity engendered between England and France by the wars of Edward III. made the feeling of nationality stronger in England. Hitherto feelings of jealousy and antipathy had existed among the people of the different nationalities in England. The native Briton could not forgive his Saxon conqueror, and both Briton and Saxon detested the proud and domineering Norman. During the reign of Edward III. these discordant nationalities were blended into one harmonious nation. They then ceased to be any longer Britons, Anglo-Saxons or Normans; but all became Englishmen. They fought side by side at Crecy and Poitiers, and the animosities of the hitherto discordant nationalities melted away amid the rejoicing of victory over a common enemy of all. National hatred toward the French blended these different nationalities into one people. Thenceforth they looked back with a common pride to a glorious past, and forward with a common hope to a more glorious future.

Forma-  
tion  
of the  
English  
Lan-  
guage.

As a result of the blending of the different nationalities into Englishmen, the English language began to assume its present form during the reign of Edward III. The Anglo-Saxon peasantry had always adhered to their own language; while Latin was the language of business and the graver literature, and French the language of society and the lighter literature. But during this reign the Anglo-Saxon, or Old English, with an admixture of both Latin and French, was slowly becoming the national tongue by developing into the modern English. This result was greatly accelerated by the mighty impetus which it received from the writings of the renowned Oxford professor and reformer, John Wycliffe, which were extensively circulated throughout England. In 1357 Parliament enacted a statute requiring the use of the English language in the courts of justice and in the public deeds, instead of the French. Late in the reign of Edward III. the English tongue was taught in the schools, instead of the French. Even the French romances and other popular literature began to be translated into English.

Use in  
Courts  
and  
Schools.

Writings  
of Sir  
John  
Mande-  
ville.

The earliest writer of English prose whose work remains was Sir John Mandeville, who is supposed to have been born about A. D. 1300, and who died in 1372. He left England in 1327, the year of the accession of Edward III., and spent thirty-four years in visiting Palestine, Egypt, India and China. On his return to his native land, he published an account of his travels, in Latin, which was afterwards translated into French, and from French into English. His work, full of the most entertaining details, freely interspersed with many wonderful and incredible tales, acquired for him an extraordinary reputation among his contemporaries, and was soon circulated over Europe, translated into various languages.

The king's urgent need of money for his wars with Scotland and France made him dependent upon Parliament, and thus the English people's representatives acquired greater dignity and power. Forced by his necessities during his French wars, Edward III. confirmed the Great Charter thirteen times.

Parliament's Power.

Edward III. increased the number of towns allowed to send representatives to Parliament, making the legislative body so large that it was found necessary to divide it into two distinct branches. The branch composed of the nobles, or Lords Temporal, and the bishops, or Lords Spiritual, was thenceforth called the *House of Lords*. The other branch, consisting of the representatives of the cities, boroughs and counties, has ever since been styled the *House of Commons*.

Houses of Lords and Commons.

Thus was perfected the legislative department of the English government. The Witenagemote of the Anglo-Saxons had developed into the Great Council of the Normans; the Great Council had given place to the single Parliament of Simon de Montfort during the reign of Henry III.; and this single Parliament prepared the way for the Parliament in its perfect form of two independent Houses during the reign of Edward III. Thenceforth the Commons, or people's representatives, who had been overawed in the presence of the Lords, assumed a more independent character.

England's Legislative Development.

In 1352 Parliament passed the *Statute of Treasons*, by which the crime of high treason was clearly defined. Edward III. enlarged and improved Windsor Castle, and founded the order of the *Knights of the Garter*.

Statute of Treasons.

At this time the Roman Church owned about one-third of the real estate of England, and the taxes for Church purposes exceeded all the other taxes in the kingdom combined. Although more money was annually raised in England for the Pope than for the king himself, the Pope had demanded the payment of the tribute money, one thousand marks a year, promised by King John to Pope Innocent III. when he made England a papal fief—a tribute now in arrears thirty-three years.

Church Property and Taxation.

Edward III. and Parliament firmly maintained the independence of England against the papal encroachments; and in this they were ably sustained by the Oxford professor and reformer, John Wycliffe, who boldly denied the Pope's assumptions, and maintained that no man could be excommunicated by the Pope "unless he first excommunicated himself." Wycliffe defended Parliament's indignant refusal to pay the tribute demanded by Pope Urban V.—a demand which the Pope was unable to enforce.

John Wycliffe, the Reformer.

During this and the preceding reigns the English serfs had in various ways gradually risen to the condition of freemen. The work of

Gradual Abolition of Serfdom in England.

emancipation had been accelerated by the necessities of the lords themselves, who resorted to every expedient to obtain money to maintain the pomp and splendor of Chivalry, which was expensive in time of peace, and doubly so in time of war. To commute the services of the serfs for their estimated value in money was a ready and productive way with the nobility. Edward III. himself sent agents all over the royal estates to sell to the serfs their freedom, in order to raise funds for his wars with France. Thus, by the middle of the fourteenth century, slave labor had largely given place to free labor, which was then abundant and cheap.

**Scarcity  
of Labor.**

The Black Plague, which swept England with the besom of destruction in 1348, carrying off more than half the inhabitants, was especially malignant among the lower classes. At its close labor was scarce and high; and, as it naturally sought the best market, harvests in some parts of England could not be gathered for want of help.

**Statute of  
Laborers.**

The landowners appealed to Parliament for relief; and an act called the *Statute of Laborers* was passed in 1350, restoring the old price of labor, and compelling the laboring classes to seek employment within the limits of their own respective parishes; thus practically reviving the old and odious system of serfdom, and creating the most intense discontent among the peasantry. The peasants assembled at the various centers to listen to the harangues of their leaders, who depicted in bitter language the wretched condition of the poor and the luxurious estate of the rich. The oppressed peasantry were ready for revolt by the close of the reign of Edward III.

**Peasant  
Discon-  
tent.**

**Stubborn  
Resist-  
ance of  
the Peas-  
antry.**

The repeated reënactment of the Statute of Laborers shows how ineffectual was its enforcement and the stubborn resistance of the peasantry, who found ready allies among the villains, or the very lowest serfs. Throughout Kent and the eastern counties the gatherings of the "fugitive serfs" were supported by an organized resistance and by contributions of money from the wealthier tenantry. In the towns, where the system of forced labor was also rigorously applied, strikes and combinations among the craftsmen became frequent. Imprisonment was the penalty for disobedience of the Statute of Laborers. So ineffectual were the punishments that at last the runaway laborer, who often became a beggar and an outlaw, was ordered to be branded on the forehead with a hot iron; and the harboring of serfs in towns and villages was rigorously suppressed.

**Failure  
of the  
Statute of  
Laborers.**

After his return to Bordeaux from his Castilian campaign the Black Prince became subject to such continued ill-health that he was believed to have been poisoned. His illness had a most unhappy effect upon his temper; and, from being one of the most benevolent and generous of men, he became cruel and morose. After some months of constant

**Illness of  
the Black  
Prince.**

suffering, he became so weak that he was unable to mount his horse, and was obliged to relinquish his command in the army.

Thus far the career of King Edward III. and Edward the Black Prince had been one of brilliant success, but after the retirement of the Black Prince the glory of England departed, and disasters fell thick and fast after the renewal of the war with France in 1368. King Charles the Wise of France—the son and successor of John the Good—slowly and steadily retrieved his father's losses, through the military talents of his great general, Du Guesclin, who deprived the English of all their possessions in France except the seaport towns of Calais, Bordeaux and Bayonne. Castilian fleets had well-nigh destroyed the navy of England and swept English commerce from the seas. Worn out with the struggle, Edward III. obtained a truce in 1375 for two years; and the Black Prince returned to England, as a last hope for the recovery of his health.

King Edward III. was now an old man, scarcely able to administer the government; and Edward the Black Prince, the heir to the throne, was slowly dying. The king's worthy wife, Philippa of Hainault, was dead; and the enfeebled old king fell under the influence of an infamous mistress, named Alice Perrers, who made use of the royal favors for unworthy purposes; while John, Duke of Lancaster, one of the king's sons—called John of Gaunt, or Ghent, from his birth-place, in Flanders—got control of the government and appointed unworthy men to office, so that England was in a deplorable condition. The people were burdened with oppressive taxation, the public funds were squandered, the courts of justice were overawed, and the elections were corrupted.

The *Good Parliament*, which convened at Westminster in 1376, proceeded to reform the abuses that had crept into the affairs of state, and was nobly supported by the Black Prince, who devoted his last remaining energies to the work of reform. The Commons impeached, or accused before the Lords, several of the corrupt officials appointed by the Duke of Lancaster—the first instance in which the Commons used their power to impeach ministers of the crown. The Duke of Lancaster was obliged to retire from the government, and Alice Perrers was forced by a threat of banishment to cease interfering with the administration of justice.

John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, whose corrupt administration was the source of so many of the prevalent abuses, was in accord with the Good Parliament and the English people in resisting the Pope's demands for tribute from England. He was powerfully sustained in this course by John Wycliffe, the Oxford professor and reformer, who boldly denounced the exactions and corruptions of the Roman Church.

English  
Military  
Disaster  
in France.

Castilian  
Fleets.

Truce.

Edward  
III.  
and Alice  
Perrers.

Misrule  
of John  
of Gaunt.

Reforms  
of the  
Good  
Parliament.

First  
Impeachment.

The  
Pope's  
Demands  
Resisted  
by the  
Good  
Parliament,  
John of  
Gaunt  
and John  
Wycliffe.

The Duke of Lancaster, who was selfish and unscrupulous, cared little for the corruptions of the Church, but coveted its vast wealth, and planned a sweeping confiscation of Church property; but Wycliffe, who was of exalted purity of character, opposed the Church on account of its abuses and assumptions.

**Lamented  
Death of  
the Black  
Prince.**

Edward the Black Prince died June 8, 1376, in the forty-seventh year of his age, amid the grief of all England; and he was buried in Canterbury Cathedral. His death was a public calamity, as it brought the reforms of the Good Parliament to a sudden close. His brother, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, at once returned to power, followed by the election of a new Parliament in his interest.

**Melan-  
choly  
Death of  
Edward  
III.**

The death of the Black Prince broke the heart of poor old King Edward III., who survived his illustrious son but one year, dying at Shene, June 21, 1377, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, after a reign of fifty years. His last years were rendered gloomy by the disasters which had befallen him, and his death was peculiarly sad—a striking commentary on the vanity of human glory. As death drew near he was utterly forsaken, being deserted by all his attendants. Even his mistress, Alice Perrers, fled, after snatching a ring from his unresisting finger. A compassionate priest entered the deserted chamber at the last moment, and held a crucifix before the eyes of the dying king. Such was the melancholy end of Edward III., the very prince of the renowned royal race of the Plantagenets, the hero of the French wars, the pride of England.

**Richard  
II., A. D.  
1377—  
1399.**

RICHARD II., the son of the Black Prince, became King of England upon the death of his illustrious grandfather in 1377; but, as the new king was only a boy of eleven years at his accession, Parliament chose a Council of Regency to administer the government. The English people idolized their handsome boy king, as they had his renowned father and grandfather, and his early years gave encouragement to their hopes. No king ever ascended the throne of England more heartily welcomed; as the very fact that he was the son of the Black Prince, that model of Chivalry and idol of the people, gave him a warm place in all English hearts. Though handsome, he was effeminate, a mere lover of pleasure and royal pomp. His retinue numbered ten thousand persons, and its passage through the kingdom was dreaded almost as much as an army of invasion.

**The Boy  
King  
and the  
Council of  
Regency.**

We have already alluded to the discontent of the laboring classes at the close of the preceding reign. When Richard II. ascended the throne of England he was involved in wars with Scotland, France and Castile. One English fleet was beaten by the Castilians; another was lost in a storm; while a campaign in the heart of France terminated disastrously to the English.

**English  
Disasters  
on Sea  
and Land.**



To defray the expenses of these repeated disasters, Parliament in 1381 levied a tax of one shilling on every person in England over fifteen years of age. The injustice of imposing a tax to which the poorest man in the kingdom contributed as large a share as the richest threw all England into a violent ferment, and the insolence of the tax-gatherers fanned this flame of disaffection into open rebellion.

**Unjust  
Taxation.**

One of these tax-collectors insulted the daughter of Wat Tyler, a blacksmith at Deptford, in Kent; whereupon the enraged father knocked the ruffian down with his hammer. The plucky blacksmith's action was heartily applauded by the mob; and the peasants of Essex, Kent and the neighboring counties gathered together, armed with clubs, bows and rusty swords, under the leadership of Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, Hob Carter and Tom Miller. The royal commissioners who had been sent to repress the tumult were driven from the field; and a band of insurgents in Essex under Jack Straw crossed the Thames to summon the men of Kent to arms, but a hundred thousand Kentishmen were already rallying under Wat Tyler.

**Beginning  
of Wat  
Tyler's  
Rebellion.**

The cry of the poor and oppressed peasantry, who had thus risen in revolt, found a terrible utterance in the words of John Ball, "a mad priest of Kent," as the courtly historian Froissart called him. For twenty years this Kentish priest had preached a coarser and more popular type of reform than that of Wycliffe, and the stalwart yeomanry assembled in the Kentish churchyards to listen to his sermons, in defiance of interdict and imprisonment. Though the landowners called John Ball "mad," his preaching was the first declaration of the rights of man in England—the death-knell of Feudalism. The tyranny of property then as ever roused the defiance of Socialism. John Ball's leveling doctrine breathed a spirit fatal to the entire system of the Middle Ages. His sermons set forth the popular grievances in words as extreme as those of any Communist or Chartist of our own time.

**Jack  
Straw,  
Hob  
Carter  
and Tom  
Miller.**

**John  
Ball's  
Preach-  
ing.**

Said this Kentish priest: "Good people, things will never go well in England so long as goods be not in common, and so long as there be villains and gentlemen. By what right are they whom we call lords greater folk than we? On what grounds have they deserved it? Why do they hold us in serfage? If we all came of the same father and mother, of Adam and Eve, how can they say or prove that they are better than we, if it be not that they make us gain for them by our toil what they spend in their pride? They are clothed in velvet, and warm in their furs and their ermines, while we are covered with rags. They have wine and spices and fair bread; and we oatcake and straw, and water to drink. They have leisure and fine houses; we have pain and labor, the rain and the wind in the fields. And yet it is of us and of our toil that these men hold their state."

**His  
Communi-  
stic  
Sermons.**

His  
Rhyme.

Ball expressed his leveling doctrines in the following rhyme, which passed from lip to lip:

“When Adam delved and Eve span,  
Who was then the gentleman?”

The Rebel  
Peasants  
under  
Wat  
Tyler  
and Jack  
Straw in  
Canter-  
bury and  
London.

The revolt of the peasants spread like wildfire over England. From Kent, Sussex and Essex, the revolt spread over Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire and Hertfordshire, and as far west as Somerset and Winchester. But the strength of the outbreak lay in the Kentishmen, who welcomed Jack Straw and his rebels from Essex, who plundered the archbishop's palace at Canterbury and liberated John Ball from its prison; while a hundred thousand Kentishmen under Wat Tyler marched to London, killing every lawyer who fell into their hands as they reached Blackheath, shouting: “Not till all these be killed will the land enjoy its freedom again.” At the same time they fired the houses of the stewards and cast the records of the manor courts into the flames.

John of  
Gaunt's  
Flight to  
Scotland.

The whole population joined the insurgents as they marched along, while the nobles were paralyzed with fear. John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, the head of the Council of Regency, fled before the popular fury, and took refuge in Scotland. Young King Richard II., but a boy of sixteen, addressed the insurgents from a barge on the Thames, June 14, 1381; but the Council of Regency, under the guidance of Sudbury, Archbishop of Canterbury, refused to allow him to land, thus arousing the peasants to the greatest fury; and the great mass of rebels rushed on London, crying: “Treason! treason!” The great gates of the metropolis were flung open by the poorer artisans within the city; and the stately palace of the Duke of Lancaster at the Savoy, the new inn of the lawyers at the Temple, and the houses of the foreign merchants, were all soon in a blaze.

Richard  
II. in His  
Barge.

Outrages  
of the  
Rebels in  
London.

They  
Enter the  
Tower  
and  
Murder  
Arch-  
bishop  
Sudbury.

The next day, June 15, 1381, a daring band of the insurgent peasants, under Wat Tyler himself, forced their way into the Tower, took the panic-stricken knights of the garrison roughly by the beard, and promised to be their equals and comrades in the good time to come. The infuriated mob discovered Sudbury, Archbishop of Canterbury, and some of the ministers who had hindered the young king from a conference with them, in the chapel; whereupon the Primate was dragged from the sanctuary and beheaded on Tower Hill, while the same vengeance was wreaked on the treasurer and the chief commissioner in the levy of the obnoxious poll-tax.

Address  
of  
Richard  
II to the  
Rebels at  
Mile-End.

In the meantime the young king found sixty thousand of the peasant mob waiting for a conference with him outside of the city, at Mile-End. Addressing the vast mob, Richard II. spoke thus: “My good

people, what means this disorder? I am your king and lord, what will ye?" The peasants shouted: "We will that you free us forever, us and our lands; and that we be never named nor held for serfs." The boy king replied: "I grant it." He then requested them to retire to their homes, and pledged himself instantly to issue charters of freedom and amnesty. This promise was welcomed with a shout of joy. During the same day more than thirty clerks were busy writing letters of pardon and emancipation, and when these were handed to the rebels they dispersed quietly to their homes.

His  
Grant of  
Charters  
of  
Freedom.

William Grindecobbe returned to St. Albans with one of these charters of freedom, marched at the head of the townsmen, and summoned the abbot to deliver up the charters which bound the town in serfage to his house. After a long suit at law, the millstones had been surrendered to the abbey, and placed within its cloister as a triumphant witness that no burghess held the right of grinding corn within the bounds of its domain. The men of St. Albans now burst open the cloister gates, tore the millstones from the floor, and broke them into fragments "like blessed bread in church," so that all might have something to show of the day when their freedom was again acquired.

William  
Grinde-  
cobbe  
at St.  
Albans.

Thirty thousand peasants under Wat Tyler, thinking the king's promise was only a stratagem to get them out of the city, still remained to see the royal pledge fulfilled; and the next day, June 16, 1381, Richard II., accompanied by William Walworth, Lord Mayor of London, and a retinue of sixty horsemen, met this part of the mob at Smithfield. Wat Tyler ordered his followers to remain at a distance, while he rode up to the king and behaved toward him with such insolence that Lord Mayor William Walworth struck the audacious blacksmith to the ground with his sword, whereupon Wat Tyler was slain by others of the king's retinue.

Wat  
Tyler's  
Insolence  
to  
Richard  
II.

Tyler  
Killed by  
Lord  
Mayor  
William  
Wal-  
worth  
and  
Others.

The enraged mob, infuriated by the loss of their leader, rushed forward and threatened to overwhelm the king's entire party, shouting: "Kill, kill. They have killed our captain." But the young king's presence of mind saved the lives of himself and his retinue. Riding boldly up to the mob before they had time to recover from their momentary surprise, Richard II. cried: "What need ye, my masters? Be not troubled for the death of your unworthy leader. I, your king, will be your leader! Follow me." Turning his horse, the boy king rode into the open field at the head of the mob, who followed him with a touching loyalty and trust to the Tower, believing that he had abused his youth under the influence of evil counselors.

The Boy  
King's  
Life  
Saved by  
His Own  
Presence.  
of Mind.

The young king's mother welcomed her son with tears of joy. The boy king answered: "Rejoice and praise God: for I have recovered to-day my heritage which was lost, and the realm of England." The

His Reply  
to His  
Mother.

**Freedom and Amnesty to Rebels.** nobles had recovered from their panic, and six thousand knights gathered around the king, eager for the blood of the mob; but Richard II. was still true to his word, and contented himself with issuing the promised certificates of freedom and amnesty to the insurgents who dismissed to their homes.

**Rebels at St. Edmundsbury and Norwich.** But the peasant revolt was not yet over. A strong body of the mob still occupied St. Albans. In the eastern counties, fifty thousand rebels forced the gates of St. Edmundsbury and compelled the trembling monks to grant a charter of enfranchisement to the town. Littester, a dyer of Norwich, headed a strong mass of peasants, under the title of "King of the Commons," and forced the nobles whom he had captured to act as his meat-tasters and to serve him on their knees during his repast.

**Vigor of the Bishop of Norwich and Richard II.** The death of Wat Tyler, however, encouraged the nobles, and deprived the revolted peasants of all decision and all concert of action. The warlike Bishop of Norwich with lance in hand attacked the rebel camp in his own diocese, and dispersed the peasants at the first onset. King Richard II., with forty thousand troops, spread terror by the ruthlessness of his executions as he marched in triumph through Kent and Essex; but the obstinate resistance which he encountered showed the temper of the people.

**The Villagers of Billericay.** The villagers of Billericay demanded that the king should grant them the same liberties that their lords possessed, and when he refused their demand they occupied the woods and were only reduced to submission after two desperate conflicts. Verdicts of guilty against the leaders of the revolt could only be wrung from the Essex jurors by the threat of death. William Grindecobbe was offered his life if he would persuade his followers at St. Albans to surrender the charters of freedom which they had wrested from the monks. He turned bravely to his fellow-townsmen and bade them not to be concerned for his trouble. Said he: "If I die, I shall die for the cause of the freedom we have won, counting myself happy to end my life by such a martyrdom. Do, then, to-day as you would have done had I been killed yesterday."

**William Grindecobbe's Resolution.** But the resolute will of the conquered peasants encountered as determined a will in their lordly conquerors. The Royal Council, however, manifested its sense of danger by submitting the question of enfranchisement to the Parliament which had convened on the suppression of the revolt, with words which suggested a compromise. Said the royal message: "If you desire to enfranchise and set at liberty the said serfs by your common assent, as the king has been informed that some of you desire, he will consent to your prayer." But the reply of the landowners showed their determination to consent to no compromise. They answered that the king's grant and letters of freedom were legally null

**Action of the Royal Council and Parliament.**

**Reply of the Landlords.**

and void; that their serfs were their goods, and that the king could not take their goods from them without their own consent. They closed by declaring: "And this consent we have never given and never will give, were we all to die in one day."

Though the revolts were quelled and the peasants nominally returned to a condition of serfdom, the newly awakened desire for personal liberty could not be extinguished; and the work of emancipation went on slowly but surely, until a century and a-half later, when serfdom finally ceased in England.

Though Wat Tyler's Rebellion was little better than tumultuous gatherings of ill-organized mobs, whose subsidence was as sudden as their uprising, the social and political questions involved raise it to a plane of serious importance. It was a revolt based on social distinctions—the commencement of an irrepressible conflict between the poor and humble oppressed and the rich and noble oppressor—the beginning of an antagonism between labor and capital, that has continued unabated in one form or another to this day. Wat Tyler was an ancestor of John Tyler, tenth President of the United States; and Lord Mayor Walworth was an ancestor of Chancellor Walworth, of New York.

Wat Tyler's Rebellion, which the Church charged to the seditious and heretical teachings of John Wycliffe and his followers, was a serious blow to the *First Reformation*, as Wycliffe's religious movement was called. Wycliffe was forsaken by his most powerful friends, including John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. Another reason for this defection was Wycliffe's extreme views concerning some of the tenets of the Roman Church. He was applauded by all classes so long as he merely exposed the corruptions of the Church; but he lost the sympathy of all good Catholics when he assailed its cardinal doctrines.

It was in this emergency that Wycliffe displayed the real grandeur and versatility of his genius. He no longer addressed scholarly arguments in classic Latin to the learned, but he thenceforth directed his appeals in plain Anglo-Saxon to the English masses. Pamphlet after pamphlet from his prolific pen denouncing the doctrines and practices of the Church alike was circulated broadcast over England. In these pamphlets the clergy were fearlessly assailed for their avarice and exactions, their sale of indulgences for sin, and the gift of Church benefices to foreign priests, "who neither see nor care to see their parishioners, convey away the treasure of the realm, and are worse than Jews or Saracens." These tracts, written in the strong, rough language of the plowmen and mechanics of the time, are the earliest specimens of English prose.

Like Roger Bacon a century before, John Wycliffe was surrounded by a throng of eager disciples; and an order of preachers, called the

**Desire for Liberty.**

**Character of Wat Tyler's Rebellion.**

**Collapse of the First Reformation.**

**Wycliffe's Pamphlets against Church Abuses.**

The Simple Priests and the Lollards.

*Simple Priests*, was instituted to disseminate his doctrines among the English people. These earnest young men, who, scattering to their humble parishes, diffused Wycliffe's teachings throughout England, were derisively called *Lollards*, or "babblers," by their enemies; but the common people heard them gladly, and such progress was made that, in the bitter language of a careful observer of the times, "every other man you met was a Lollard."

Wycliffe's Doctrines in Bohemia.

The first wife of King Richard II., Anne of Bohemia, favored Wycliffe's doctrines; and many of her countrymen, who attended the University of Oxford, carried the great reformer's writings thence to the University of Prague, in Bohemia, where they kindled an extraordinary religious movement; so that Wycliffe was the "Morning Star of the Reformation" for Bohemia as well as for England.

Wycliffe's Banishment from Oxford.

The regency in England, under the influence of the Duke of Lancaster, came to the assistance of the Church in 1381, the very year of Wat Tyler's Rebellion; and Wycliffe was banished from the University of Oxford, while his writings were condemned as heretical and sentenced to the flames. He then retired to Lutterworth, where he devoted the remaining three years of his life to the humble duties of a parish priest, and to the last and greatest work of his life—the complete translation of the Bible into English, for the instruction of the common people. He had a stroke of paralysis while attending mass in the parish church, and died peacefully the next day, December 31, 1384, at the age of sixty years.

His Retirement at Lutterworth.

His Translation of the Bible.

Geoffrey Chaucer, Father of English Poetry.

During the reign of Richard II. flourished Geoffrey Chaucer, the "Morning Star of English Poetry." Chaucer was born in 1328, and died in 1400. Many causes operating through five centuries had so changed the language of England that the prose of Alfred the Great and the poetry of Cædmon required as much special study to be read in Chaucer's day as in ours.

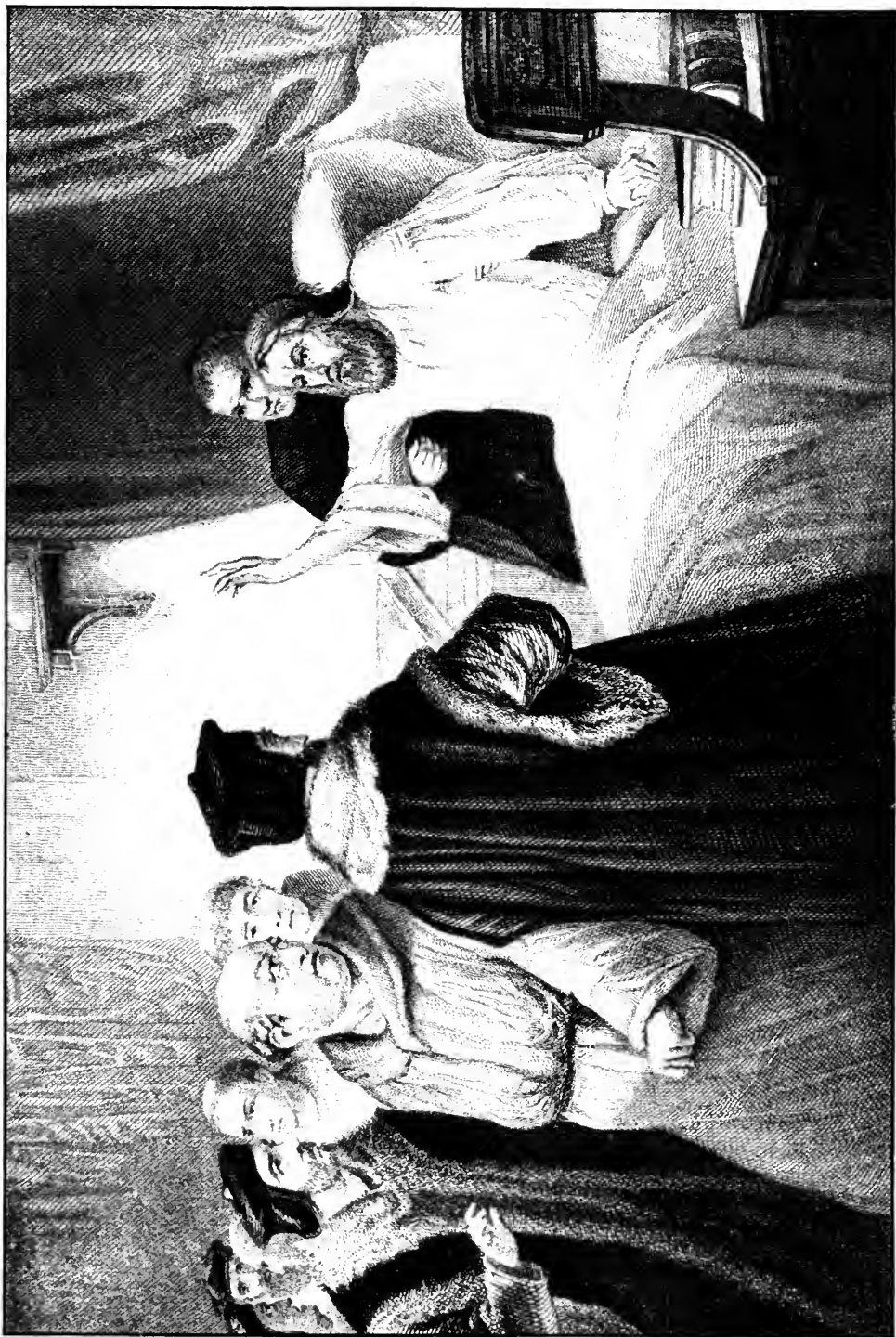
His Canterbury Tales.

Of Chaucer's numerous works the most celebrated is his *Canterbury Tales*, which is still read with delight, and in which thirty pilgrims from all classes are represented as traveling together from London to Canterbury to visit the shrine of St. Thomas à Becket, and as whiling away the tedium of the journey by telling tales, which present lively descriptions of the men and women of his time, in all ranks from sailor to baron, and from doctor to plowman.

Chaucer and Wycliffe.

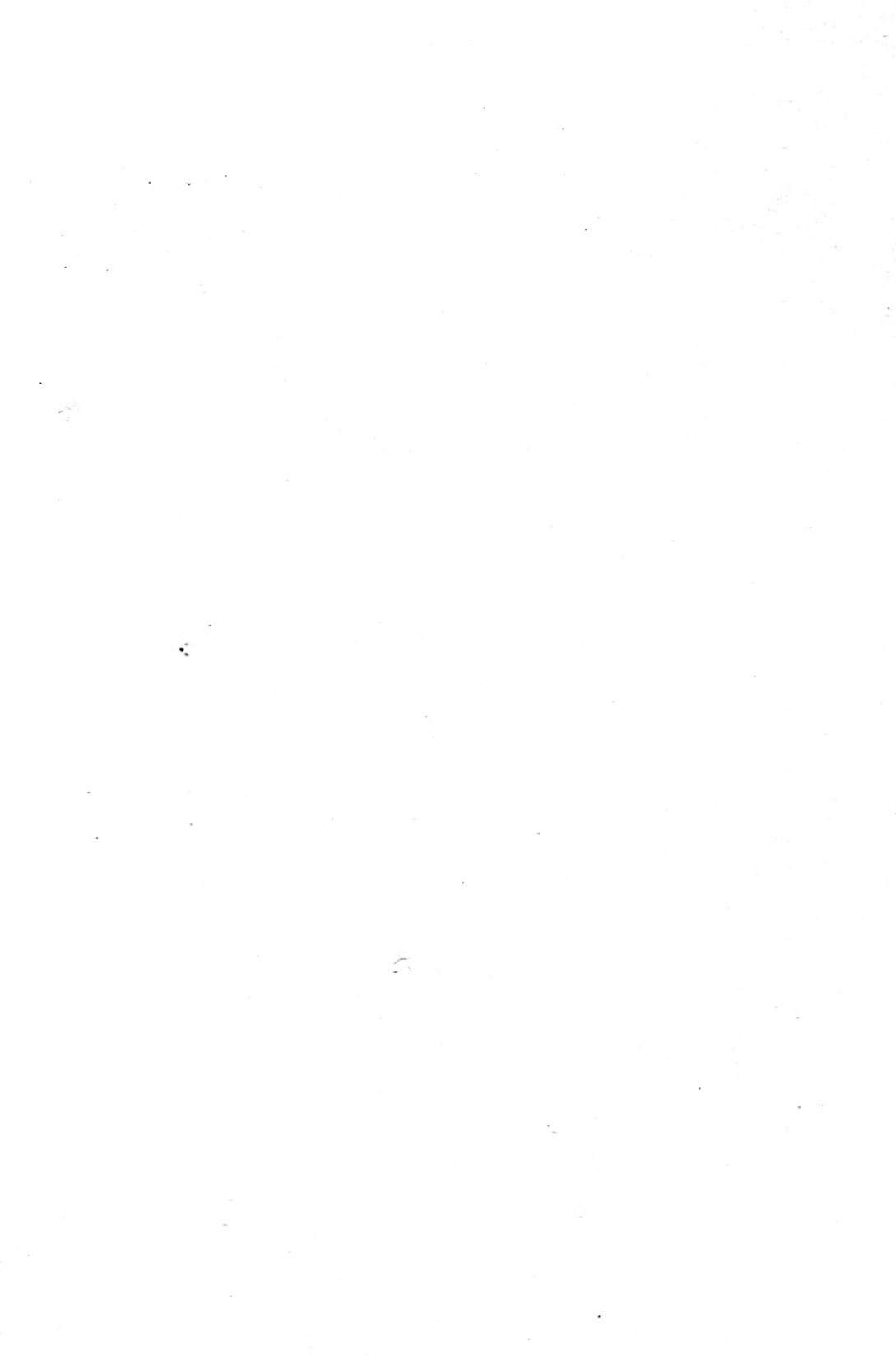
Chaucer's sympathy with Wycliffe is expressed in his praise of the poor parson—who followed "Christ's lore and his Apostles'" before he taught it to his flock—and in his ridicule of the seller of indulgences with his wallet "full of pardons come from Rome all hot."

Chaucer was a favorite with the king and the nobles, and his poetry breathes the perfumed elegance and luxury of the royal court. Wil-



WICKLIFFE REFUSING TO RECANT

From the Painting by George Thomas





liam Langland, who styled himself Piers the Plowman, was the people's poet of the time. He sang in ruder and sadder lines the hunger, the toil and the misery of the poor man's life, made dark by his own ignorance and the remorseless oppressions which he suffered from his lords.

William  
Langland,  
the  
People's  
Poet.

John Gower, called "Moral Gower," was born in 1320, and died in 1402. He was the author of three great poetical works—*Speculum Meditantis*, written in French; *Vox Clamantis*, written in Latin; and *Confessio Amantis*, written in English. The English poem begins by introducing the author himself in the character of an unhappy lover in despair. Venus appears to him; and appoints her priest, called Genius, to hear the lover's confession. This priest plies him with moral tales, the most extraordinary of which is the tale of the Caskets in the fifth book. This is the tale from which Shakespeare is believed to have taken the hint of the incident of the caskets in his Merchant of Venice. Near the end of his English poem, Gower represents Venus as paying a glowing compliment to Chaucer, his friend and brother poet.

John  
Gower  
and His  
Poetical  
Works.

The war with France and Scotland still continued; and Richard II. invaded Scotland with the design of conquering that kingdom, but failed in that undertaking, though the invasion was conducted with great cruelty. The English arms suffered many disasters in other quarters. The immense English trade with Flanders was cut off by the submission of Ghent and the whole of Flanders to a brother of King Charles the Wise of France. A French army landed in Scotland and threatened an invasion of England. The border lands of England and Scotland were wasted by hostile raids; and in 1388 occurred the battle of Otterburn—a mere border-fight between two hostile noblemen, the English Percy and the Scottish Douglas, and their vassals—which has been commemorated by the famous ballad of *Chevy Chase*.

War with  
France  
and  
Scotland.

English  
Disasters.

Battle  
of Otter-  
burn.

Chevy  
Chase.

The men and means which Parliament voted for the common defense were squandered in Spain by John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, who was seeking to obtain the crown of Castile in his wife's name. The hopes which the decisive conduct of Richard II. had raised during Wat Tyler's Rebellion were soon dispelled. He was fond of shows and pageants, and was profligate and dissipated. He abandoned himself to the influence of favorites, who were as obnoxious to the English people as Gaveston and the Spencers had been during the reign of his great-grandfather, Edward II. The chief of these worthless favorites was Michael de la Pole, a London merchant's son, who was created Duke of Suffolk.

Misrule of  
John of  
Gaunt,  
Richard  
II. and  
Michael  
de la  
Pole.

The king's profligacy and dissipation, and his partiality for his worthless favorites, made him so unpopular that his youngest and ablest uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, contrived to vest the whole sovereign

Richard  
II. and a  
Council of  
Regency.

Flight of  
Michael  
de la  
Pole.

power in a Council of Regency, consisting of fourteen noblemen, with himself at the head. Richard II. resisted, but was compelled to submit by force of arms in 1387; and his favorite minister, Michael de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, only saved his life by flight from the kingdom, while many others of the king's favorites were doomed to exile and death.

Execution  
of Samuel  
Buzleigh.

The Duke of Gloucester then resolved to destroy all the friends of his royal nephew. The venerable and respected Sir Samuel Buzleigh, the young king's tutor, was also condemned on a pretended charge of high treason, through the instrumentality of the king's tyrannical uncle; and he was executed like a common traitor, although the young monarch's good wife, Anne of Bohemia, remained on her knees three hours before the inexorable Duke of Gloucester, begging for the old man's life.

Richard  
II.  
Asserts  
His Own  
Power.

After Richard II. had submitted to his uncle's tyranny for about a year and a-half, he suddenly asserted his own right to the sovereign power, and removed the officers appointed by the Duke of Gloucester, filling their places with men of ability. He acted with such prudence and vigor that the Duke of Gloucester and his party were thunderstruck and at once relinquished their authority.

The  
Statute  
of Præ-  
munire.

During the reign of Richard II. the effort to maintain the independence of England against papal aggressions was continued with firmness. In 1393 a powerful blow was struck in defense of the liberties of England by Parliament's passage of the *Statute of Præmunire*, "which enacted that whoever should procure from Rome or elsewhere, excommunications, bulls, or other things against the king and his realm, should be put out of the king's protection, and all his lands and goods forfeited."

The  
First and  
Second  
Wives of  
Richard  
II.

Richard II. conducted the government himself for nine years and ruled well. His first wife, Anne of Bohemia, who endeared herself to her husband and to the English people, died in 1394; and in 1396 Richard II. affianced the Princess Isabella, the daughter of King Charles VI. of France, then only eight years old. This marriage, and the peace which Richard II. concluded with France, were unpopular with the English people.

Arrest  
and  
Imprison-  
ment  
of the  
Duke of  
Gloucester  
at  
Calais.

The opposition of the Duke of Gloucester to the peace with France induced the king to free himself from the danger with which he was menaced by his uncle's ambition. Hearing that the Duke of Gloucester was conspiring against him, Richard II. caused his uncle to be seized by surprise, hurried to Calais and imprisoned in the castle of that city. The imprisoned nobleman was charged with high treason, and a Parliament was summoned at Westminster, September 17, 1397, to try him. So many nobles came to London to attend this trial that

every lodging place in the city and for ten miles around was filled. On the arrival of the day of the trial the governor of Calais was summoned to bring his illustrious prisoner before Parliament. The governor sent word that the Duke of Gloucester had suddenly died in prison of apoplexy, but it was generally believed that he had been murdered by the king's order. The duke's friends were terrified into submission by the king's bold stroke, and none dared to oppose the king's will.

**His Sus-  
picious  
Death.**

Pleased with his new taste of power, and unable to brook opposition, Richard II. endeavored to reign without a Parliament; that body being virtually abolished by a cunningly devised statute, which placed the legislative power in a select number of lords and burgesses, and which granted him a life income and enabled him to resort to forced loans to defray the expenses of government.

**Arbitrary  
Rule of  
Richard  
II.**

The good and bad impulses by which Richard II. was controlled were both fatal to his power, which, though now apparently more secure than ever, was approaching its downfall. The war-loving barons were offended by the peace with France; the landowners by the protection of the serfs; the merchants by the king's demands for money; and the clergy by the favor which the king showed to Wycliffe's followers and their doctrines.

**Growing  
Unpopu-  
larity of  
Richard  
II.**

Some of the nobles openly accused the king of the murder of the Duke of Gloucester. One day Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk, expressed this opinion in the presence of the king's cousin, Henry Plantagenet, Duke of Hereford—called Henry of Bolingbroke, from his birth-place, or Henry of Lancaster, he being a son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. This young nobleman was an able and valiant knight, who had become celebrated as a good soldier and a zealous Christian by fighting in the cause of Christ against the heathen tribes on the eastern shores of the Baltic. He was a great favorite with the soldiers, possessed immense wealth, and was related to all the great families of England.

**Henry  
of Lan-  
caster, or  
Boling-  
broke,  
Duke of  
Hereford.**

Henry of Lancaster, Duke of Hereford, was highly indignant at the charge made by the Duke of Norfolk against Richard II., and accused that nobleman in Parliament of having spoken seditious words against the king in a private conversation. The Duke of Norfolk indignantly denied the charge, called Henry of Lancaster a liar, and offered to prove his innocence by an appeal to Wager of Battle. As there were no proofs for a legal trial, the Lords in Parliament readily assented to that mode of settling the controversy. The time and place for the duel were appointed, and all England awaited the event with anxious suspense.

**His Duel  
with  
Thomas  
Mow-  
bray,  
Duke of  
Norfolk.**

On the day when this personal combat between the two noblemen was to take place, and in the presence of the vast multitude assembled to

**The Duel Stopped and the Combatants Banished by Richard II.**

witness it, just as the trumpets had sounded the charge and the combatants, mounted on their horses, rushed at each other with fixed lances, King Richard II., who appeared upon the scene, threw down his scepter, which was a signal for the heralds to stop the combat. The king then ordered the lances of the combatants to be taken away, and banished the Duke of Hereford for ten years, and the Duke of Norfolk for life.

**General Indignation at the King's Action.**

Thus one of the combatants was condemned to exile without being charged with any offense, and the other without being convicted of any crime. The king's action gave general dissatisfaction. There was a feeling of disappointment at being deprived of the pleasure of seeing a combat, and of indignation at the injustice done to the duelists themselves.

**Death of the Duke of Norfolk.**

The Duke of Norfolk, overwhelmed with grief and despondency at the judgment awarded against him, retired to Venice, where he soon died of a broken heart. Henry of Lancaster, Duke of Hereford, behaved on this occasion with such submission and resignation that the king consented to shorten his banishment four years, and granted him letters-patent insuring him the enjoyment of any inheritance which should fall to him during his exile; but upon the death of Henry's father, John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, in 1399, Richard II. seized all the great estates of the Lancaster family.

**Seizure of the Lancaster Estates by Richard II.**

**Return and Revolt of Henry of Lancaster.**

Roused to intense indignation by the king's outrage, the exiled Henry of Lancaster sailed from France for England to reclaim his rights, embarking at Nantes with a small retinue, and landing at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire, with about twenty followers, July 4, 1399; Richard II. being then in Ireland. Henry of Lancaster immediately raised the standard of revolt, and was joined by the Earl of Northumberland, who had long been disaffected toward Richard II., and by that powerful nobleman's son, Henry Percy, surnamed *Hotspur*, from his fiery temper and his ardent valor. In a few days Henry's army numbered sixty thousand men, and was soon increased by the royal forces under the king's uncle, the Duke of York, who deserted the king's side when Henry of Lancaster persuaded him that he had come only to claim his inheritance, and not to seize the crown.

**Is joined by the Percies and the Duke of York.**

**Desperate Situation of Richard II.**

In the meantime Richard II. remained in Ireland in perfect security. Contrary winds for three weeks prevented him from receiving any news of the rebellion against his authority in England; and when he landed at Milford Haven, in Wales, on his return, with a force of twenty thousand men, he found himself in a dreadful situation, in the midst of an enraged people, without any friend on whom he could rely, and forsaken by those who had been instrumental in encouraging his follies in the time of his prosperity. His little army gradually deserted him,

until at last he discovered that he did not have over six thousand men who followed his standard.

Not knowing whom to trust, or where to turn, Richard II. saw that his only hopes of safety lay in throwing himself upon the generosity of his enemy and in obtaining by pity what he could not win by force of arms. He therefore sent word to Henry of Lancaster that he was ready to submit to whatever terms he deemed proper to impose, and that he earnestly desired a conference. For this purpose Henry of Lancaster requested Richard II. to meet him at Flint Castle, about ten miles from Chester, and there Henry with his army appeared the next day to meet the king.

Richard II., who had been brought thither by the Earl of Northumberland the day before, seeing his rival's approach from the walls, went down to receive him; while Henry of Lancaster, after some ceremony, entered the castle in full armor, only his head being bare in compliment to the fallen king. Richard II. received his triumphant rival with that open air for which he had been remarkable, and kindly bade him welcome. Said Henry of Lancaster, with a respectful bow: "My lord king, I am come sooner than you appointed, because your people say that for one and twenty years you have governed with rigor and indiscretion. They are very ill satisfied with your conduct; but, if it please God, I will help you to govern them better for the time to come." To this declaration Richard II. only replied: "Fair cousin, since it pleases you, it pleases us likewise."

After a short conversation with some of the king's attendants, Henry of Lancaster ordered the king's horses to be brought out of the stable; and when the wretched animals were produced Richard II. was placed on one, while his favorite, the Earl of Salisbury, was placed upon the other. In this humble equipage they rode to Chester, and were conveyed to the castle with a great noise of trumpets, through an immense multitude of people, who were unmoved by the sight. In this manner Richard II. was led from town to town, amid crowds of people, who scoffed at him and extolled his rivals, exclaiming: "Long live the good Duke of Lancaster, our deliverer!" In the poet's pathetic words concerning the king, "None cried God bless him!"

Thus, after repeated indignities from Henry of Lancaster and from the populace, Richard II. was conveyed to London and lodged in the Tower as a close prisoner, where he underwent a still greater variety of studied insolence and flagrant contempt. Humiliated in this manner, the wretched king began to lose a monarch's pride with the splendors of royalty, and his spirit sunk to his circumstances. He therefore willingly signed a deed by which he abdicated the crown of England.

Submission  
of  
Richard  
II. to  
Henry of  
Lancaster.

Meeting  
of  
Richard  
II. and  
Henry of  
Lancaster  
at Flint  
Castle.

Indignities to  
Richard  
II. at  
Chester  
and  
Other  
Towns.

Imprisonment of  
Richard  
II. in the  
Tower of  
London.

His Ab-  
dication.

Richard II.  
Deposed by Parliament.

Upon the abdication of Richard II., Henry of Lancaster founded his principal claim to the English throne; but, in order to secure his pretensions with every appearance of justice, he convened a Parliament, which was readily induced to approve and confirm his claim. A frivolous charge of thirty-three articles was drawn up and found valid against Richard II., whereupon he was solemnly deposed by act of Parliament; and that body unanimously chose Henry of Lancaster to the English throne with the title of HENRY IV., the new king being conducted to the vacant throne by the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, September 30, 1399. Thus began the royal House of Lancaster, which furnished England with three kings, whose aggregate reigns numbered sixty-two years (A. D. 1399–1461).

Henry IV., First of the House of Lancaster, A. D. 1399–1413.

Imprisonment and Suspicious Death of Richard II. in Pontefract Castle.

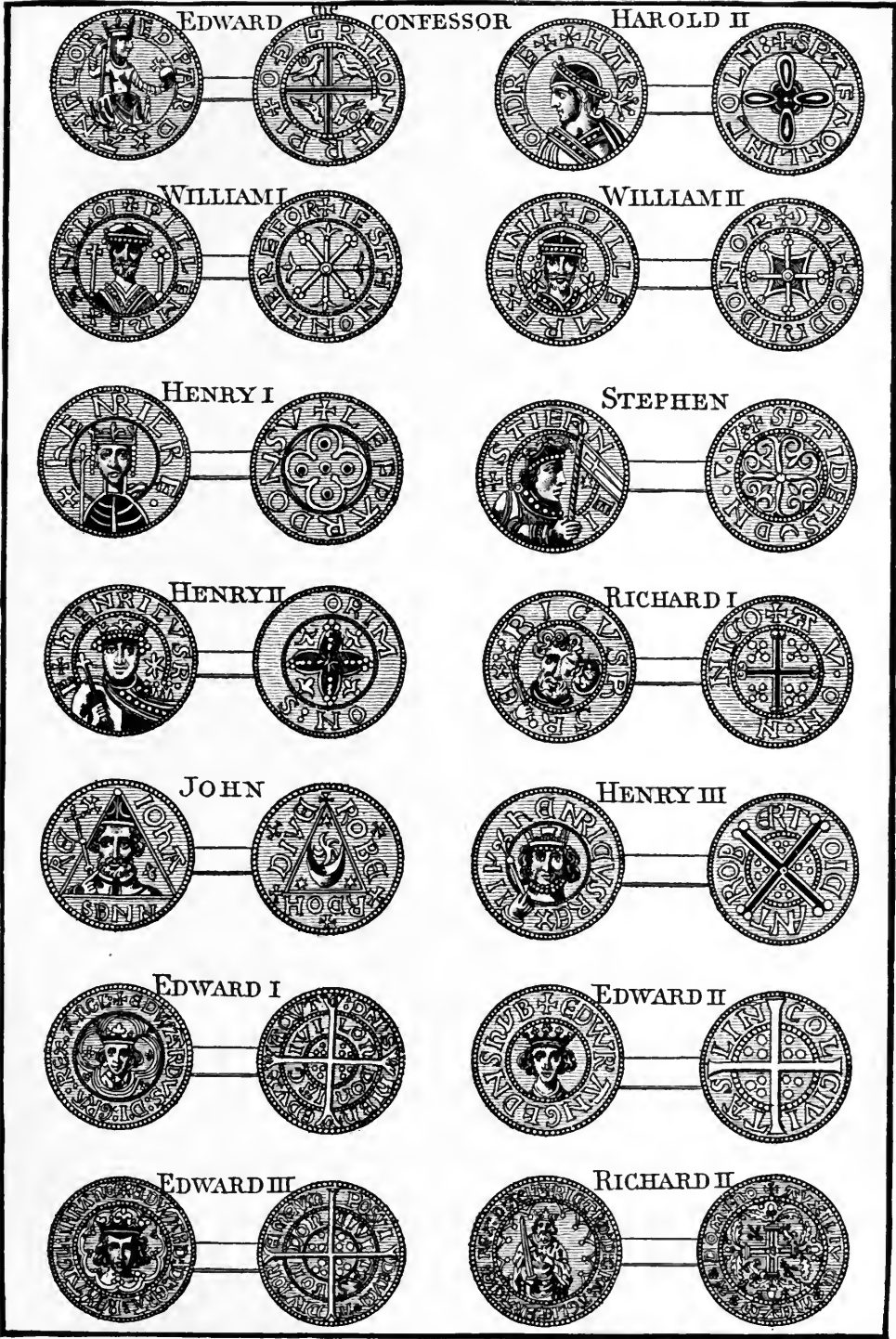
When Richard II. was deposed, the Earl of Northumberland made a motion in the House of Lords demanding the advice of Parliament concerning the future treatment of the dethroned king. Parliament decided that he should be imprisoned in some secure place, where his friends and partisans would be unable to find him; and Richard II. was accordingly confined in Pontefract Castle. But the usurper could not hope to remain in safety while the deposed monarch was still living, and some plots and commotions which occurred soon afterward induced Henry IV. to desire the death of his dethroned cousin; and Richard II. was found dead in Pontefract Castle in the beginning of the year 1400, at the age of thirty-three years and after a reign of twenty-two years, believed to have been murdered or starved by the new king's order.

One Account of His Supposed Murder.

Some writers say that an assassin agreed to murder the fallen king for a reward, and that he took eight companions with him for the purpose. When the assassins rushed into the king's apartments in Pontefract Castle the deposed king knew that their design was to murder him, and he determined to sell his life as dearly as possible; wherefore he wrested a pole-ax from one of the murderers and soon laid four of them dead at his feet, but was finally overpowered and struck dead by a blow from a pole-ax.

Conflicting Claims of Henry IV. and Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March.

Though elected King of England by Parliament, Henry IV. was not satisfied to rest his claim on the national will; but asserted that he held the throne by right of his birth, he being the son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, and the grandson of Edward III. But, according to the strict principles of hereditary succession, the nearest heir to the English throne was Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, who was a lineal descendant of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, John of Gaunt's elder brother, and whom Parliament had declared heir to the English crown. The young Earl of March was a child of seven years, and Henry IV. sought to avoid a conflict with his claims by keeping him in a sort of mild captivity at Windsor Castle. As the English crown had always



ENGLISH COINS, FROM EDWARD THE CONFESSOR TO RICHARD II





been in some degree elective, Henry IV. no doubt had all the claim that could be derived from the national will. The conflict between the elective and hereditary principles was not settled until three centuries afterward.

Henry IV. soon found that the throne of a usurper is a bed of thorns; as conspiracies and rebellions were still undertaken in the interest of Richard II., who, some of the enemies of Henry claimed, was not dead, and whom some one tried to personate. The nobles taken in arms were beheaded; and, to prevent any more rebellions in the dead king's interest, Henry IV. caused the body of Richard II. to be brought from Pontefract Castle to London, and to be publicly exposed at St. Paul's Cathedral, with the face uncovered for three days; after which it was buried at Langley. Still some of the enemies of Henry IV. claimed that Richard II. was still alive and in exile in Scotland, and that the body shown at St. Paul's Cathedral was that of another person.

The very first Parliament that convened under Henry IV. gave evidence of the unsettled condition of the kingdom. The House of Lords broke up in a furious quarrel, and forty challenges were given and received, and forty gauntlets were thrown down as pledges of the sincerity of the resentment of the angry barons. Some of the disaffected nobles endeavored to seize King Henry IV. at Windsor; but the king withdrew to London, where he raised an army of the citizens and quelled the outbreak of the discontented lords. The Earls of Kent and Salisbury, and some of the other leaders of the outbreak, were beheaded for their rebellion. A rebellion against the authority of Henry IV. in Gascony was also suppressed. Many plots disturbed the usurping king. One night he found a steel instrument with three sharp points, concealed in his bed, just as he was about to lie down.

The most serious of the rebellions against Henry IV. was that of the Welsh, under Owen Glendower, who claimed descent from the royal race of Llewellyn and the ancient Princes of Wales. As in the time of Edward I. patriot bards, who journeyed from place to place with song and story of the ancient heroes of Welsh history, fired the Welsh heart afresh with its old love of liberty. After being defeated in the open field, Owen Glendower retired to the fastnesses of Mount Snowdon, and defied the whole power of England throughout the reign of Henry IV. For some years after this reign he lived as a wanderer and an outlaw, rejecting all overtures of peace, and sojourning in hidden caves among his native hills. His fate has never been known. A cave still called *Owen's Cave* can be seen on the coast of Merioneth.

In one of his raids into England, Owen Glendower captured Sir Edward Mortimer, the uncle of the young Earl of March, and carried him a prisoner into Wales. Henry IV., dreading and hating the whole of

**Elective and Hereditary Principles.**

**Rebellions in the Interest of Richard II.**

**His Dead Body in St. Paul's Cathedral.**

**Quarrel and Challenges in House of Lords.**

**Revolts and Plots against Henry IV.**

**Leaders Beheaded.**

**Welsh Revolt under Owen Glendower.**

**His Fate.**

**Owen's Cave.**

**His Capture of Sir Edward Mortimer.**

the Mortimer family, allowed Sir Edward Mortimer to remain in captivity, and refused to permit Mortimer's kinsman, the Earl of Northumberland, to treat with Owen Glendower for his ransom; thus offending the family of the Percies, who were the king's most powerful partisans.

Scottish  
Invasion  
of  
England.

In 1402 a Scottish army of twelve thousand men, under Archibald, Earl of Douglas, invaded England. The Earl of Northumberland and his son, Henry Percy, surnamed *Hotspur*, took the field against the Scots and defeated them at Homildon Hill, in Northumberland, September 14, 1402, taking the Earl of Douglas and many of the leading nobles of Scotland prisoners. Henry IV. sent the victorious Earl of Northumberland strict orders forbidding him to admit any of his prisoners to ransom, as he desired to make better terms with Scotland by the possession of one of the great Scottish nobles. According to the laws of war in that age of Chivalry and Feudalism, the captor had the right to the ransom of his prisoner; and the proud Earl of Northumberland considered himself both insulted and robbed by the king's demand.

Battle of  
Homildon  
Hill.

The  
Percies  
Offended  
by  
Henry IV.

Rebellion  
of the  
Percies.

Their  
Allies.

The angry Earl of Northumberland now rebelled against King Henry IV., thus seeking to overthrow the monarch whom he had been chiefly instrumental in raising to the throne of England. He instantly released his Scottish captives, and made an alliance with the Earl of Douglas and with the Welsh leader, Owen Glendower. The Earl of Westmoreland, the brother of the Earl of Northumberland, joined in the rebellion against Henry IV.; and the rebels openly avowed their purpose to dethrone Henry IV. and to place the young Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, upon the English throne.

Move-  
ments of  
Henry IV.  
and His  
Foes.

Henry IV. had raised a small army, with which he intended to invade Scotland, when he was astounded by the news of the rebellion of the Percies. This rebellion was wholly unexpected by the king, but he was not disconcerted thereby. He fully appreciated the importance of swift and decisive movements in civil wars, and accordingly he at once marched against the rebels. The rebel forces under the Percies and the Scots under the Earl of Douglas marched southward into Shropshire, where they effected a junction with the Welsh under Owen Glendower.

Battle of  
Shrews-  
bury.

Henry IV. encountered the combined forces of his enemies at Shrewsbury, July 21, 1403. Each army numbered about twelve thousand men. The battle which ensued was desperate and sanguinary, and the animosities on both sides were inflamed to the highest pitch. Great bravery was displayed by the commanders on both sides. The Earl of Northumberland being absent through illness, the command of his forces devolved on his fiery-tempered son, Henry Percy, *Hotspur*. Henry IV. displayed great valor, being in the thickest of the fight;

Valor of  
Henry  
Percy,  
*Hotspur*.

while his valiant son Henry, the Prince of Wales, fought gallantly by his father's side, and performed astonishing feats of valor even after he had been wounded in the face with an arrow. The daring Hotspur also sustained his renown for bravery, and sought to engage the king in person, but could not distinguish him from others who wore the same armor. The death of Hotspur from an unknown hand finally decided the victory in favor of Henry IV. The Scottish Earl of Douglas was taken prisoner.

**His  
Defeat  
and  
Death.**

The king's victory in the battle of Shrewsbury put an end to the rebellion of the Percies. The Earl of Northumberland threw himself upon the generosity of Henry IV., who, remembering the former services of this powerful baron, and pitying the old man's bereaved condition, pardoned him, and soon afterward restored to him almost all of his honors and estates.

**Triumph  
of  
Henry IV.**

**The Elder  
Percy  
Pardoned**

Two years later, A. D. 1405, another rebellion broke out against Henry IV., headed by Scrope, Archbishop of York, and Thomas Mowbray, Earl Marshal of England; and the rebels were joined by the Earl of Northumberland, who had again taken up arms against the king; but the outbreak was quickly quelled, and Archbishop Scrope was beheaded as a traitor—the first instance of a bishop being punished with death in England. This was considered a sacrilegious act, and Henry IV. was soon afterward afflicted with a loathsome eruption in the face, which was believed to be a direct punishment from Heaven. After several years of exile and wandering, the Earl of Northumberland finally lost his life in a last effort to overthrow Henry IV.

**Rebellion  
of the  
Arch-  
bishop of  
York and  
the Earl  
Marshal,  
Thomas  
Mowbray.**

**Arch-  
bishop  
Scrope  
Be-  
headed.**

By accident Henry IV. got the heir to the Scottish throne into his possession. King Robert III. of Scotland stood in deadly fear of his violent and unscrupulous brother, the Duke of Albany, who had already caused the heir-apparent to be starved in a dungeon, and who appeared resolved to make his way to the throne of Scotland by destroying the lives of all the legitimate heirs. To save his only surviving son's life, King Robert III. sent this son, Prince James, to France, in 1406; but the vessel in which the Scottish prince sailed was seized by an English cruiser, although a state of peace then existed between England and Scotland; and the prince, then nine years of age, was detained by Henry IV., and remained a state prisoner in England for over eighteen years, two of which were spent in the Tower, and sixteen in Windsor Castle.

**Robert  
III. of  
Scotland  
and the  
Duke of  
Albany.**

**Prince  
James of  
Scotland  
and His  
Captivity  
in  
England.**

Upon being brought before Henry IV., the Earl of Orkney, who accompanied the young prince, told the English king that the prince was going to France to learn French; whereupon Henry IV. replied: "I understand French, and therefore ought to be intrusted with his education." Henry IV. then committed Prince James and the Earl of Orkney to the Tower. Grief at his son's capture broke the heart of

**Order of  
Henry IV.**

**Death of Robert III. from Grief.** poor old King Robert III., who died three days after he had received the news. His brother, the Duke of Albany, ruled Scotland as regent for the remaining eighteen years of his life, but would do nothing to obtain the release of Prince James.

**Education of the Captive Prince.** Henry IV. made some amends for his injustice by giving the captive Scottish prince the best education afforded by the times. The prince was provided with good instructors, and became the famous "Poet-King of Scotland." He was a poetic genius, and some of his ballads continue to be popular to the present day. He was released upon the death of the Duke of Albany in 1424, when he became King James I. of Scotland. He married Lady Joanna Beaufort, an English princess, for whom he had formed an attachment while in prison. James I. was the best king that ever reigned over Scotland, and his name is revered by his countrymen to this day.

**Persecution of the Lollards by Henry IV.** Henry IV. sought to please the clergy by persecuting the Lollards, and the fires of persecution were kindled in England for the first time in her history. As the Archbishop of Canterbury had given Henry IV. valuable aid in his efforts to secure the English crown, the king in his turn assisted the Roman Church with all his power to root out Wycliffe's doctrines, which had taken a strong hold upon the English people.

**Statute of Heretics.** An act of Parliament, passed in 1401 and called the *Statute of Heretics*, empowered the bishops to imprison all writers, teachers and preachers of heresy, and, if they refused to abjure their heretical doctrines, to hand them over to the civil authorities to be burned. Under this cruel law, William Sawtre, a London preacher, was the first martyr at the stake in England. After being condemned by the bishops, he was handed over to the civil authorities and burned to death, in accordance with the Statute of Heretics, February 12, 1401.

**William Sawtre's Martyrdom.** Thus Henry IV. has the infamous reputation of being the first King of England who imposed by statute the awful penalty of death by fire upon his subjects simply on account of religious belief. Thus was commenced the system of horrible religious intolerance that blackens the pages of English history for so long a period—an intolerance whose only palliation is the spirit of the age.

**Beginning of Religious Intolerance.** But the Commons in Parliament were not as subservient to the priests as the Lords. When it was found that the clergy were resolved to resist the payment of their share of the taxes of the kingdom, notwithstanding their vast wealth, the Commons sided with the Lollards in order to check the power of the priesthood. The Commons asked the king for a mitigation of the law of burning, and advised him to seize the wealth of the Church and employ it as a permanent fund to serve the necessities of the state. They even framed a bill for this purpose.

**The Commons Side with the Lollards**

But Henry IV. refused to mitigate the law against heretics, saying that he wished one more severe had been passed, and to show the Commons that he was in earnest he immediately signed the death-warrant of John Badbie, a poor tailor, for holding Wycliffe's doctrines; and thus another martyr perished at the stake. Instead of checking the growth of Lollardism, these barbarous measures only served to extend the new doctrines.

**John  
Badbie's  
Martyr-  
dom.**

The position of Henry IV. as King of England was an unenviable one. He lived in constant dread of the Lollards, who were known to be active in inciting insurrections. He was also conscience-smitten at the part he had taken in the persecution of that sect, as well as at the means which he had employed to obtain the English crown. He was obliged to be ever on the alert against the friends of the murdered Richard II. and those of the living Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March. His consciousness of the irregular manner of his own accession made him suspicious of his own son Henry, Prince of Wales, of whose constantly growing popularity he was morbidly jealous. This feeling made the king stern and cruel to all whom he suspected of plotting against him.

**Anxiety,  
Remorse  
and Sus-  
picions of  
Henry IV.**

Henry IV. was also a sufferer from ill health, and was distressed at the wild and reckless conduct of his son Henry, the Prince of Wales, called *Madcap Harry*. This prince led a most disorderly life. One of his companions was arrested for a highway robbery, and was brought before Chief Justice Gascoigne for trial. The evidence was strong against the prisoner, but the prince demanded that he should be released. The Chief Justice refused to comply with the prince's insolent demand; whereupon the prince became so angry as to forget himself, and he actually struck the Chief Justice as he sat upon the bench. The judge vindicated the dignity of his office by sending Prince Henry to prison. The prince at once acknowledged the impropriety of his conduct toward the judge, and submitted to the punishment. Upon hearing of this, the king exclaimed: "Happy the monarch who possesses a judge so resolute in the discharge of his duty, and a son so willing to submit to the law!"

**Prince  
Henry's  
Assault  
of Chief  
Justice  
Gas-  
coigne.**

**The  
Prince's  
Imprison-  
ment  
by the  
Chief  
Justice.**

The king's health now rapidly declined. He was shattered mentally and physically by epileptic fits, which hurried him to a premature grave. As his strength declined his fears of conspiracies and insurrections increased even to childish anxiety, and he could not sleep unless the royal crown was laid upon his pillow. One day, when he had fallen down in a fit of epilepsy, the Prince of Wales, believing him actually dead, took the crown from his pillow and carried it away. When the king recovered his consciousness he instantly missed his crown, and sternly asked who had dared to remove it. Prince Henry made a dutiful apology, thus pacifying the king, who said with a sigh: "Alas!

**Epileptic  
Fits and  
Anxiety  
of  
Henry IV**

**Prince  
Henry  
and the  
Royal  
Crown.**

fair son, what right have you to the crown when you know your father has none?" The prince replied: "My liege, with your sword you won it, and with the sword I will keep it." The king replied: "Well, do as you please; I leave the issue to God, and hope he will have mercy on my soul."

**Death of Henry IV.**

Soon afterward Henry IV. died in a fit of epilepsy, while kneeling in prayer before the shrine of Edward the Confessor in Westminster Abbey, March 20, 1413, at the age of forty-four years, and after a reign of thirteen years. Shakespeare's sage reflection on the stormy years of the reign of Henry IV. was: "Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown." The Commons greatly increased their power during his reign—a natural result when the king's best title to his crown rested upon their consent.

**Power of the Commons.**

**Henry V.,  
A. D.  
1413–  
1422.**

**His  
Personal  
Reforma-  
tion.**

HENRY V., the son and successor of Henry IV., had a short but brilliant reign. As soon as he heard of his father's death he retired to his own chamber and spent the remainder of the day in prayer. The next morning he sent for the companions of his youthful follies and told them that he was going to reform and lead a better life, and forbade them to come again into his presence until they should follow his example by reforming their habits of life. He then sent for his father's wise ministers, who had checked his wild and reckless conduct, and retained them in office. Among these was Chief Justice Gascoigne, who had sent Henry to prison for interfering with the course of justice, as we have observed.

**Henry V.  
and  
Edmund  
Mortimer.**

Thus Henry V. happily disappointed those who feared that the reckless prince would make a reckless king. He did much to conciliate the enemies of the House of Lancaster by several just and noble acts at the very beginning of his reign. He pacified the House of York by releasing the imprisoned Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, and honoring the bones of Richard II. with a truly royal burial among the remains of the Kings of England in Westminster Abbey. Mortimer showed his gratitude by disclosing to the king a plot formed by some nobles to place him on the English throne. Henry V. won the support of the powerful family of the Percies by recalling the son of Hotspur and restoring to him all the honors and estates of his family.

**Charac-  
teristics  
and  
Popular-  
ity of  
Henry V.**

Henry V. was the idol of his subjects, for his extraordinary talents in war and government, and also for his gay and genial disposition, which formed a strong contrast to his father's gloomy temper. He possessed in a great degree the qualities which were most calculated to make him a favorite with the English people. His person was tall and slender, his hair was dark, and his features were exceedingly beautiful. His accession to the English throne was hailed with general joy on the part of his subjects,

But Henry V. stained his character by a cruel persecution of the Lollards, whose doctrines had been gradually spreading, not only in England, but also in Continental Europe. Through the influence of Wycliffe's writings, John Huss, Rector of the University of Prague, in Bohemia, had become a convert to Lollardism, and openly preached it until he was silenced at the stake by command of the Council of Constance in 1415.

Henry V.  
and the  
Lollards.

It was in the early part of the reign of Henry V., thirty years after Wycliffe's death, that the Council of Constance, which condemned John Huss and Jerome of Prague to suffer the death of martyrs at the stake, caused Wycliffe's remains to be disinterred and burned, and his ashes to be cast into a little brook that runs past Lutterworth. Said Fuller: "Thus the brook conveyed his ashes into Avon; Avon into Severn; Severn into the narrow seas; they into the main ocean; and thus the ashes of Wycliffe are the emblem of his doctrine, which is dispersed over all the world." And Wordsworth wrote the following beautiful lines concerning the scattering of Wycliffe's ashes:

Wycliffe's  
Ashes  
Scattered.

Fuller's  
Remark.

"As thou these ashes, little brook, wilt bear  
Into the Avon—Avon to the tide  
Of Severn—Severn to the narrow seas—  
Into main ocean they—this deed accurst,  
An emblem yields to friends and enemies,  
How the bold teacher's doctrine, sanctified  
By truth, shall spread throughout the world dispersed."

Words-  
worth's  
Lines.

Charles Knight, the popular English historian, truly said: "Out of Wycliffe's rectory, at Lutterworth, seeds were to be borne upon the wind which would abide in the earth till they sprang up into the stately growth of other centuries."

Charles  
Knight's  
Remark.

Early in the reign of Henry V., Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury, perceived the necessity of acting more vigorously and rigorously toward "the new heresy." The leader of the Lollards in England was Sir John Oldecastle, who was created Lord Cobham, and whose castle was a place of refuge for the Lollards. Sir John Oldecastle had been an old friend of Henry V., and had formerly been very wicked, but from the time that he adopted Wycliffe's doctrines he had lived a moral and religious life. The king, inspired by his old friendship for Sir John Oldecastle, and thinking him a very wise and virtuous man, sought to convince him of the fallacy of his new opinions. After a long conversation, Henry V. became so shocked at Oldecastle's obstinacy in defense of his faith that he turned him over to the vengeance of the Roman Church.

Sir John  
Oldecastle,  
Lord  
Cobham.

Oldecastle, or Lord Cobham, was imprisoned in the Tower; and, after being tried and condemned by the bishops for disbelieving the doctrine

**His  
Condem-  
nation,  
Imprison-  
ment and  
Escape.**

of transubstantiation and other Catholic dogmas, he was delivered into the hands of the civil authorities to be burned to death. The king again interposed, granting him a respite of fifty days, during which Lord Cobham escaped from the Tower, and was suspected of planning a Lollard insurrection against the king. This act added treason to heresy; and the king dreaded to see Lord Cobham, who was an experienced soldier, at the head of the movement.

**Persecu-  
tion  
of the  
Lollards.**

**Lord  
Cobham's  
Martyr-  
dom.**

Henry V. at once took a decided stand against the First Reformation, and the most violent persecution followed. The severest statutes were enacted by Parliament, ordering the arrest of all persons, even if only suspected of heresy, and entailing forfeiture of estate and blood on all who were convicted. A price was set on the head of Lord Cobham, and many of his followers suffered martyrdom. Lord Cobham concealed himself for four years, but was finally captured, and was first hanged at London as a traitor, after which his body was burned as a heretic, to combine the punishments due to the two crimes of treason and heresy. The charge of treason did much to bring the Lollards into disrepute, and the First Reformation was soon at an end in all that was outward and visible.

**Sup-  
pression  
of the  
First  
Reforma-  
tion.**

The First Reformation had declined among the influential classes on account of its connection with Wat Tyler's Rebellion during the reign of Richard II. Some of the leaders of the Lollards, lacking the single-ness of purpose that inspired Wycliffe, sought to bring about the abolition of social distinctions and the equalization of property—our modern Communism. In addition to this, the First Reformation, at the time of its suppression during the reign of Henry V., rested under the odium of conspiring to subvert the government. Thus branded as Communistic and dangerous to society, and as revolutionary and destructive to public order, the First Reformation had arrayed the rich and powerful, also the more thoughtful and conservative, against itself. Though the Reformation ceased to exist outwardly, there was all the time a simple and a purer faith taking root in the hearts of many—a faith based on the open Bible that Wycliffe had placed in their hands.

**Renewal  
of the  
Hundred  
Years'  
War with  
France.**

Henry IV. on his death-bed had charged his son not to let the English remain long at peace, as foreign wars alone could save England from internal troubles; and Henry V. followed his father's advice by renewing the Hundred Years' War with France, reviving the old claim of Edward III. to the French crown. The title of Henry V. to his English crown required to be strengthened by military renown. His barons' thirst for stirring adventures might have made trouble at home if it had not been gratified abroad. Henry V. renewed the attack on France at an opportune moment. King Charles VI. was insane; and his son, the Dauphin, was too young to rule; while the Dukes of Bur-



gundy and Orleans had involved France in a sanguinary civil war concerning the regency during the Dauphin's minority.

When the demand of Henry V. that the French should acknowledge his claim to the crown of France and that the Princess Catharine should be given in marriage to him was rejected, he assembled a fleet and army at Southampton and crossed the English Channel and invaded France, landing at Harfleur, in Normandy, with a well-equipped and powerful army of thirty thousand men, in August, 1415. He captured that place in September, 1415, after a siege of five weeks, but lost two-thirds of his army by sickness and death.

**Invasion  
of France  
by  
Henry V.**

**His  
Capture of  
Harfleur.**

Henry V. was now in a perilous situation. He sent his ships away with his sick and wounded, and he had no means of returning to England but by marching to Calais with his remaining ten thousand troops. The whole distance lay through the enemy's country. There were strong towns to pass, and deep rivers to cross; while a French army of a hundred thousand men was already in the field to oppose his progress. Against the advice of his nobles, he undertook his march for Calais, starting from Harfleur in October, 1415, and following the old route of Edward III.

**His  
Perilous  
Situation.**

Henry V. proceeded by easy marches and enforced the strictest discipline. He paid the country people liberally for everything that he obtained from them, and they accordingly brought him supplies of provisions, in spite of the orders that they received not to do so. During the march the young king fared no better than the meanest soldier, and he encouraged his troops by the cheerful and familiar manner in which he conversed with them.

**Henry V.  
and His  
Troops.**

The French army, one hundred thousand strong, was drawn up to oppose the English king's little army of ten thousand men at the village of Agincourt, in the county of Artois, not far from the famous field of Créçy. In the battle of Agincourt, October 25, 1415, although the French army was ten times as large as his own, the superior skill and efficiency of the English archers prevailed, and Henry V. won as brilliant a victory over the flower of the chivalry of France as those of Edward III. and the Black Prince at Créçy and Poitiers.

**Battle of  
Agin-  
court.**

The day before the battle Henry V. took his position on a rising ground, surrounded by trees and brushwood. He placed guards and lighted fires; and the army, excepting some who passed the night in prayer, retired to rest. As some of the English nobles were conversing together, one of them said that he wished all the brave men in England were there to help them. The king answered: "No! I would not have one more here. If we are defeated, we are too many; but if it please God to give us the victory, as I trust He will, the smaller our number, the greater our glory." The French passed the night in noisy

**Day  
before the  
Battle.**

festivity; and, confident of victory on the morrow, they agreed among themselves to put all the English to the sword, excepting the king and the principal nobles, who were to be spared for their ransoms.

The  
English  
Archers.

Heavy rains had made the ground difficult for cavalry, while the English light-armed archers were able to move with ease. These opened the battle with one well-aimed volley of arrows; after which they seized the hatchets which hung from their necks, and rushed forward with a deafening shout, thus increasing the confusion of the wounded Frenchmen and horses before them. The gallant knights and gentlemen of France, weighted with their steel armor, sank to their saddle-girths in mud and marsh.

Valor of  
Henry V.

Henry V. displayed a valor worthy of the Black Prince. Arrayed in shining armor, with a gold crown adorned with precious gems on his head, he was easily to be distinguished in the thickest of the conflict. Eighteen French knights had made a vow to kill or take the English king, and they all lost their lives in attempting to fulfill their vow, being all slain by David Cam, the English king's faithful squire, and two other Welshmen, who lost their own lives in defending their king. Henry V. knighted these brave men on the battlefield, as their life-blood was ebbing away at his feet.

French  
Defeat  
and  
Heavy  
Losses.

The French lines gave way one by one, and after a battle of three hours the English victory was won. The French left ten thousand dead upon the field; among whom were seven princes of the blood royal, over a hundred noblemen, and eight thousand knights. The Constable d'Albret and the Dukes of Alençon and Brabant were among the slain, while the Dukes of Orleans and Bourbon were among the fourteen thousand prisoners taken by the victorious English. This battle destroyed the old nobility of France, and left the French throne unsupported. The English loss was only about forty men.

The  
Name  
Agin-  
court.

When this remarkable battle was ended, Henry V. called upon the French herald, who was named *Mountjoy*, and asked him what was the name of a neighboring castle, to which he pointed with his finger. The herald replied: "It is called Agincourt." Then said the English king: "This action shall henceforth be called *the Battle of Agincourt*."

The  
Brilliant  
English  
Victory.

Considering all the circumstances, the battle of Agincourt, which added new glory to the English arms and new laurels to the English kings, was the most brilliant victory ever gained by English soldiers over the soldiers of France. Agincourt at once took its place beside Créçy and Poitiers, but outshone both those famous conflicts. But the expense of maintaining a modern army made the victory almost useless to the English; and Henry V., after making his way to Calais unopposed, crossed the Strait of Dover to England, "covered with glory and buried in debt,"

The English people gave their warrior king a joyful welcome when he returned from his brilliant campaign. They rushed into the water as he approached the land, and bore him on their shoulders to the shore. Throngs of delighted people from all the towns went out to meet him, strewing flowers in his path. His entrance into London finds a parallel in the magnificent Triumphs which the people of ancient Rome gave to their returning victors.

**Tri-  
umphal  
Popular  
Welcome  
to  
Henry V.  
in  
England.**

All efforts at a permanent peace failed; and in August, 1417, Henry V. again invaded France, landing in Normandy with a well-equipped army of forty thousand men, when France was once more distracted by the quarrels of its own nobles and princes. Towns and castles in Normandy surrendered at the summons of Henry V., or fell before his assaults. The siege of Rouen lasted six months. Its two hundred thousand inhabitants refused to open their gates until reduced to the most desperate extremities by famine. Said Henry V.: "War has three handmaidens—Fire, Blood and Famine; and I have chosen the meekest maid of the three." While the merciless English king was drawing his lines closer around the devoted city, Famine was doing its terrible work within its walls. One-half of the inhabitants of Rouen had perished; and the survivors, in despair, had resolved to burn the city and die in battle before its walls, when Henry V., fearing that Fire and Blood would finally deprive him of his coveted prize, offered the inhabitants terms of capitulation, January, 1419.

**Second  
Invasion  
of France  
by  
Henry V.**

**His  
Siege and  
Capture  
of Rouen.**

By the capture of Rouen, Henry V. completed the conquest of Normandy; and an event that occurred soon afterward hastened and completed the conquest of France. After a solemn treaty of peace between Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy and the Dauphin Charles, the former was assassinated by a servant of the latter, A. D. 1419. The murdered Burgundian duke's son and successor, Philip the Good, in revenge, formed an alliance with the King of England; and the entire Burgundian party threw itself into the scale against the Dauphin, offering to do all in their power to make Henry V. King of France.

**His  
Alliance  
with the  
Bur-  
gundian  
Party in  
France.**

By the Treaty of Troyes, in May, 1420, concluded with Henry V. of England by Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy and Isabella of Bavaria, the wife of the poor old crazy King Charles VI. of France, it was agreed that Henry V. should marry the Princess Catharine, the daughter of the French king; while the English king's brother, the Duke of Bedford, was to marry a sister of the Duke of Burgundy. Charles VI. was to remain King of France during his life-time; but Henry V. of England was invested with the regency of France for the same period, and was to receive the French crown upon the death of the crazy French king, to the exclusion of the latter's son, the Dauphin Charles. The States-General of France solemnly ratified this treaty.

**Treaty of  
Troyes.**

**Royal  
Inter-  
mar-  
riages.**

**Henry V.  
and the  
French  
Crown.**

**Union of the Crowns of England and France.**

Kings Henry V. and Charles VI. made a triumphal entry into Paris in May, 1420, just after the Treaty of Troyes had been agreed to; and the union of the crowns of England and France was celebrated with great outward demonstrations of joy. In accordance with the Treaty of Troyes, Henry V. married the Princess Catharine, June 2, 1420; and the next year she bore him a son, an event celebrated with equal rejoicings in the capitals of England and France. But the Dauphin Charles refused to submit to the loss of his inheritance, and held that part of France south of the Loire, while the King of England was in possession of almost all of the French kingdom north of that great river.

**The Dauphin Charles.**

**Death of Henry V. in France.**

While engaged in the task of establishing his authority in France, in the very prime of life and the very midst of his power and glory, Henry V. was suddenly attacked with a painful and incurable illness, of which he died at Vincennes, August 31, 1422, at the age of thirty-three years, and after a reign of nine years; after appointing his brother, the Duke of Bedford, regent of France, and his other brother, the Duke of Gloucester, regent of England, while committing the guardianship of his infant son to the Earl of Warwick. His body was conveyed to England with great pomp and buried in Westminster Abbey. Tapers were kept burning on his tomb day and night for almost a century. His widow married Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman, and from them was descended the renowned Tudor dynasty of England.

**His Burial in Westminster Abbey.**

**The First English War Ship.**

The first ship of war ever owned by the English government was built during the reign of Henry V. Previous to this period the maritime towns had furnished all the ships required for war or national purposes. During the reign of Henry V. it was settled that no laws should be valid without the assent of the House of Commons.

**Henry VI., A. D. 1422-1461.**

HENRY VI., the infant son of Henry V., was proclaimed King of England, upon his father's death; and, upon the death of the poor old crazy King Charles VI., two months later, he was also proclaimed King of France, and was crowned at Paris as King of England and France, being then only nine months old, A. D. 1422. The infant king's uncles—the Duke of Gloucester, regent of England, and the Duke of Bedford, regent of France—were men of integrity and excellent virtues; the Duke of Gloucester being called the "Good Duke Humphrey."

**Crowned at Paris as King of England and France.**

**Charles VII. of France.**

The Dauphin, the son of Charles VI., had never consented to the Treaty of Troyes, which set aside his claims to the French throne; and, upon the death of his father, in 1422, he assumed the title of Charles VII., King of France. The English wittingly called him "King of Bourges," that city being the extent of his actual dominion, though the sovereignty of France was his birth-right. For six years the English were constantly victorious, taking town after town, until in 1428 they laid siege to Orleans, the only important stronghold yet remaining in

**His Desperate Situation.**

the possession of the Dauphin's troops. The capture of that city by the English would have exposed to them the whole of France south of the Loire, and the cause of Charles VII. would have been irretrievably ruined. This danger filled the French with consternation.

At this darkest hour in the fortunes of France and her legitimate, native king, when no gleam of hope appeared visible, Orleans was relieved and the deliverance of Charles VII. effected by one of the most extraordinary occurrences in history. In the history of France we have related the remarkable career of Jeanne d' Arc, the poor peasant girl of Domremy, in Lorraine; her visions of angels and "Voices," which she declared told her to raise the siege of Orleans and have Charles VII. crowned at Rheims; the faith of the French king and people in her mission; her commission from Charles VII. to command the French armies; her appearance at the head of the army destined to raise the siege of Orleans, when she was clad in armor and mounted on a snow-white horse, with her consecrated banner borne before her; the irresistible enthusiasm which she inspired among the French and the dismay which she caused among the English; her rescue of Orleans by entering the city and compelling the English to raise the siege; her repeated victories over the English; her capture of Rheims, in which city Charles VII. was then crowned; her expressed desire to return to her father's home to take care of his flocks; the French king's refusal to consent to her retirement from the army; the jealousy of the French officers on account of her fame; their treacherous abandonment of her at a sally from the town of Compègne, where they allowed her to be taken prisoner by the Duke of Burgundy, who sold her to the English; and the base conduct of the English, who caused her to be tried, condemned and burned by a court of bishops as a witch and a heretic, at Rouen, May 30, 1431.

Though her ungrateful king made no effort to rescue the valiant *Maid of Orleans*, as the heroine was called, and took no interest in her fate, her name is held in grateful remembrance by her countrymen, and excites a tender respect and admiration wherever the strange, sad story of her wonderful career is told; and this is a far nobler and more enduring monument to her than the one erected to her memory on the spot where she suffered a martyr's death.

Although the Maid of Orleans no longer led the French armies, victory still perched upon the French banners, the spell of English ascendancy was broken, and the English dominion in France was fast hastening to a close. All France submitted to her hereditary and legitimate king when a reconciliation was effected between Duke Philip the Good of Burgundy and King Charles VII., who then hurled their united forces against the English invaders. The Duke of Bedford soon after-

Jeanne  
d'Arc, the  
Maid of  
Orleans.

Her  
Wonder-  
ful  
Deliver-  
ance of  
France.

Her  
Capture  
and Cruel  
Death  
at the  
Stake.

The  
Memory  
of Her  
Martyr-  
dom.

Crum-  
bling  
of the  
English  
Dominion  
in France.

ward died of vexation at the disasters which had befallen the English cause. Paris opened her gates to Charles VII., and the English power gradually grew weaker and weaker during the remaining twenty years of the war.

**Expulsion of the English from all France Except Calais.**

The English fought bravely, but were defeated on every side, and finally retired into Normandy in the hope that they might at least save that province. A truce and a treaty both failed to stop the war. Normandy in the North of France, and Guienne in the South, both revolted from the English dominion. The English were steadily driven toward the sea-board, though they fought with desperate valor, and they finally sought refuge within the walls of Calais, which was the only place in France that remained in their possession by 1453, when the Hundred Years' War finally closed, and the dream of an English empire in France was over.

**End of the English Conquests in France.**

The campaigns of Edward III. and the Black Prince, and those of Henry V., were brilliant, but unsubstantial, gratifying the national pride of the English, but exhausting their national resources. As soon as those great warriors retired from the scenes of their triumphs and conquests, those conquests melted away like mist before the rising sun.

## SECTION V.—LATER PLANTAGENETS AND CIVIL WARS OF THE ROSES (A. D. 1455-1485).

**Weak Character of Henry VI.**

HENRY VI. was a man of weak intellect and of gentle and amiable disposition. He was a most insignificant character, and would have been satisfied to remain in the background his entire life, as his timid and quiet disposition entirely unfitted him for the cares of royalty. He inherited neither the fine qualities nor the majestic figure of his father, nor any of the delicate beauty of his mother. His personal appearance was inelegant, and his countenance was dull and unmeaning. An old historian thus describes his character:

**An Old Historian's Account.**

“There never was a more holy, nor a better creature, a man of a meek spirit and a simple wit, preferring peace to war, and rest to business, and honesty before profit. He was governed of those he should have ruled, and bridled of those he should have sharply spurred.”

**His Infancy and Childhood.**

When Henry VI. was only eight months old he was kept quiet in his mother's lap to listen, or rather to appear to listen, to a long address from Parliament, in which he was called a “most toward prince and sovereign governor.” When he was eight years old he was solemnly crowned at Paris as King of France.

**Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick.**

But Henry VI. was very fortunate in having a wise and sincere friend in the good old Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, who reprimanded the

king when he was eleven years old, and desired that the Royal Council would in a body admonish him of his faults.

The death of the Duke of Bedford produced effects in England almost as disastrous as in France. England was divided between two parties, led respectively by the Duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle and the regent of the kingdom, and by this duke's uncle, Cardinal Beaufort, a son of John of Gaunt. One great object of rivalry between these two men was the choice of a wife for the young king.

As Henry VI. was of a gentle and harmless disposition, and resembled his imbecile maternal grandfather, King Charles VI. of France, rather than the three great Kings of England from whom he was more immediately descended, it was hoped that a spirited wife of masculine qualities would supply his defects; and the Beaufort party selected a French princess, Margaret of Anjou, reputed to be the most beautiful, clever and accomplished princess of her time, though she was then only fifteen years old. The Beaufort party succeeded in their plan, and a secret article of the marriage contract ceded England's province of Maine, in France, to Margaret's uncle, Duke Charles of Anjou. The marriage between Henry VI. and Margaret of Anjou occurred in 1445.

The new queen became a warm adherent of the Beaufort party, which had secured her marriage. She never forgave the Duke of Gloucester for opposing it, and she came to England vowing vengeance against him in her heart. Cardinal Beaufort and William de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk, were her willing allies in her opposition to the good Duke of Gloucester, who had tried to prevent the marriage because he foresaw the miseries that it would entail upon the kingdom.

Cardinal Beaufort and the Duke of Suffolk commenced their machinations by accusing Eleanor Cotham, the wife of the Duke of Gloucester, of witchcraft. She was charged with having caused a waxen image of the king to be made and laid before a gentle fire, and as the wax dissolved the king's strength was wasted, so that his life would become extinct upon the total dissolution of the waxen image. The Duke of Gloucester's wife was found guilty upon this absurd charge, and was condemned to do public penance and then to be imprisoned for life on the Isle of Man. To prove that she was a witch a paper of mathematical figures written by her priest was produced, and the ignorance of the people who found it believed it to be some very mysterious magical incantation.

Supported by the queen, Cardinal Beaufort and the Duke of Suffolk next sought the ruin of the Duke of Gloucester himself. They accused him of high treason; but the council, though composed wholly of his enemies, was obliged to pronounce him innocent of this charge. Nevertheless, he was imprisoned, and soon afterward found dead in his bed,

Rival Parties of the Duke of Gloucester and Cardinal Beaufort.

Margaret of Anjou, Wife of Henry VI.

Her Enmity to the Duke of Gloucester.

The Duke of Gloucester's Wife Imprisoned on the Isle of Man for Witchcraft.

Imprisonment and Suspicious Death of the Duke of Gloucester.

believed to have been murdered by his enemies. His wicked uncle, Cardinal Beaufort, died several weeks afterward in agonies of remorse.

English  
Discon-  
tent at  
the Losses  
in France.

Queen Margaret was unpopular with the English people. When her kinsman, King Charles VII. of France, reconquered Normandy and Guienne from the English, they suspected the same kind of treachery that had deprived them of Maine; and though they were generally unwilling to vote money for the king's wars in France, which were really opposed to their interests, they considered the loss of any conquered territory as a national disgrace.

Desperate  
Situation  
of  
Henry VI.

Poor King Henry VI. was then at a low ebb in his fortunes. The crown-lands and revenues had been squandered during his minority, and his household was only maintained by a system of robbery politely styled the "royal right of purveyance."

Accusa-  
tion,  
Exile and  
Execution  
of the  
Duke of  
Suffolk.

The popular indignation at this state of affairs, and at the loss of the English possessions in France, forced Parliament to bring charges of high treason against the Duke of Suffolk in 1450. Queen Margaret hoped to save him from summary vengeance by inducing the king to banish him for five years. But his enemies, fearing that Margaret would recall him, caused him to be pursued on the high seas by a large vessel, called *Nicholas of the Tower*. He was overtaken and ordered on board this ship, and as he reached its deck he was greeted with the salutation: "Welcome, traitor." He was brought to Dover, and two days later he was let down into a small boat and beheaded with a rusty sword on a block of wood, his body being cast into the sea, to make sure that he would never be recalled.

Edmund  
Beaufort,  
Duke of  
Somerset.

Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, a relative of the king and a favorite of the queen, was held responsible for the more recent losses of English territory in France; but he continued to defy his enemies and remained in office a while longer.

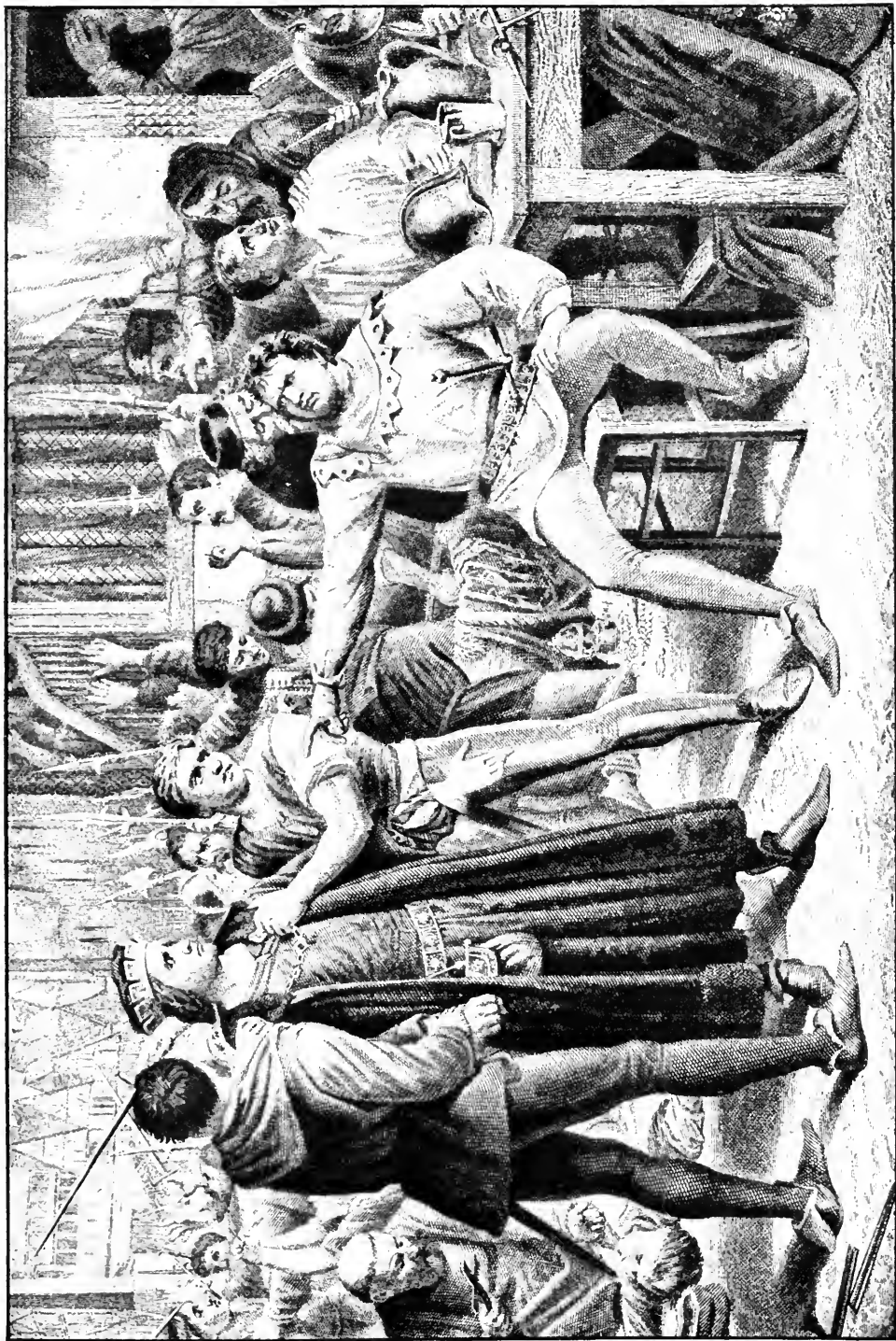
Jack  
Cade's  
Rebellion.

In 1450, soon after the murder of the Duke of Suffolk, several insurrections broke out in various parts of England, but these were all soon suppressed. The most formidable of these revolts was that of Jack Cade, an Irishman, who assumed the more dignified name of John Mortimer, intending to pass himself off as a son of Sir John Mortimer, who had been sentenced to death by Parliament at the beginning of this reign, without any trial or evidence, merely upon an indictment of high treason. Sir John Mortimer had been popular in Kent, the seat of Jack Cade's Rebellion; and his name gave Jack Cade his chief strength.

Its Com-  
parison  
with Wat  
Tyler's  
Rebellion.

Jack Cade's Rebellion grew out of the general discontent at the mismanagement of affairs at home and in France. It is an interesting fact that Jack Cade's Rebellion had its chief seat in Kent, the old home of Wat Tyler, and among the very classes which had been implicated in Wat Tyler's Rebellion.





LORD SAY AND SELE BEFORE JACK CADE

From the Painting by Charles Lucy



Jack Cade led twenty thousand Kentishmen to London, defeating the royal forces under Sir Humphrey Stafford on the way, at Sevenoaks. The victorious rebels encamped on Blackheath, whence Jack Cade sent to the Royal Council his "Complaint," embodying a statement of grievances, chief of which were maladministration in the government, the king's favoritism to his evil counselors, the interference of the nobles in the county elections, the extortions of the tax-collectors, and the hardships imposed on the peasants by the Statute of Laborers.

Appreciating the fact that Jack Cade's demands were reasonable, the Royal Council removed the king to Kenilworth Castle, whereupon Jack Cade entered London. He held the city for three days, and caused Lord Say and Seal, the treasurer, and that official's son-in-law, Cromer, the Sheriff of Kent, to be beheaded at Cheapside for their extortions. Cade then exclaimed: "Now I am master of London!"

Cade's followers now plundered private property, in disobedience of his orders. The citizens then rose against Cade, and when he retired at night to Southwark they held London Bridge, with the aid of some soldiers from the Tower, thus preventing his return. After a council of six hours the Royal Council granted Jack Cade's demands, and most of the insurgents dispersed and returned to their homes upon being promised a pardon for their rebellion. Jack Cade, with a price on his head, fled almost alone into Sussex, but was pursued and killed by a Kentish gentleman named Iden; and many of his followers were executed.

The loss of the English possessions in France compelled the English nobles to confine their ambitious schemes at home, and these nobles were divided into two parties which contended for supremacy in the nation. The party which adhered to the reigning family, the House of Lancaster, was headed by Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, the representative of the illegitimate branch of the House of Lancaster. The other party, which adhered to the rival House of York, was under the leadership of Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, who aspired to the English throne, which he claimed as a descendant of Edward III. both on his father's and his mother's side. By his father he was descended from the youngest son of Edward III. From his mother, who was the last of the Mortimers, he inherited the claim of that family from Lionel, second son of Edward III.

Although it was believed that the Duke of Somerset aspired to the English throne, his influence was all powerful at court; but he was unpopular with the English people, because he was considered responsible for the loss of Normandy by the English. The Duke of York, who had commanded with credit both in France and in Ireland, was very popular with the English people. He was a brave, able and generous

Jack Cade's March to London.

His Demands.

His Occupation of London.

Execution of Lord Say and Seal.

Cade's Demands Granted.

His Flight and Death.

Rival Parties of the Houses of York and Lancaster.

The Dukes of Somerset and York.

Unpopularity of the Duke of Somerset

Popularity of the Duke of York.

man, and was closely related by marriage to the Earls of Salisbury and Warwick, the most powerful noblemen in England.

Claims of Richard, Duke of York, to the Crown.

If Henry VI. had been an able man like his father his subjects might have forgotten by this time that his grandfather was a usurper; but his incapacity reminded them of the imperfection of his royal title and of the superior claim of the Mortimers, who, though extinct in the male line, had their rights to the English crown transferred by marriage to the House of York.

Birth of a Prince of Wales.

The birth of a Prince of Wales, instead of strengthening the cause of the imbecile King Henry VI., removed all hope of the peaceable succession of the Duke of York to the English throne, and thus hastened the approaching civil war. In 1454 the king sunk into a condition of total bodily and mental weakness, so that he was unfit to govern. Queen Margaret and her council were obliged to yield to the popular will, and Parliament appointed the Duke of York to the office of Protector of the kingdom. The first use that the Duke of York made of his power was to send the Duke of Somerset to the Tower; but Henry VI. soon recovered his reason, whereupon the Duke of York was removed from the Protectorship, and the Duke of Somerset released from prison and restored to power in the government.

The Duke of York's Temporary Protectorship.

The Duke of Somerset's Temporary Imprisonment.

Civil War.

The quarrel between the Dukes of Somerset and York soon threw all England into a violent ferment. Both assembled their partisans and vassals, and in the first battle of St. Albans, May 3, 1455, the Duke of Somerset was defeated and killed. King Henry VI., whom the Duke of Somerset had dragged into the battle much against his will, was wounded, and took refuge in the house of a tanner, where the victorious Duke of York found him. The Duke of York fell upon his knees before the king, declared himself his loyal subject, and ready to obey his commands; to which the king replied: "If so, stop the pursuit and slaughter."

First Battle of St. Albans.

Henry VI. Wounded and a Captive.

Beginning of the Wars of the Roses.

Thus began the *Wars of the Roses*—the badge of the House of Lancaster being a red rose, and the badge of the House of York a white rose. This civil war for thirty years deluged England with the blood of her own people, destroyed eighty princes of the blood royal, and almost annihilated the ancient nobility of England, founded by William the Conqueror.

The Duke of York Claims the Crown.

Desertions of His Partisans.

The victorious Duke of York conducted Henry VI. to London and treated him with great respect; but, notwithstanding his professions of loyalty to the king, he continued the civil war against the queen and her party, under the pretense of freeing the king from evil counselors. At last the Duke of York threw off the mask in the House of Lords by boldly declaring Henry VI. a usurper and claiming the English crown as his own by right of inheritance; whereupon many of his supporters,

who had joined him because they had supposed that he was only contending for the public welfare, deserted his standard.

Seeing himself thus abandoned, the Duke of York retired into Ireland; but he left a very able and zealous friend in England—his wife's brother, Neville, Earl of Warwick; afterwards called the *King-maker*, because he was able to raise up and pull down kings at will. The Earl of Warwick was the richest nobleman in England, and was the last of the great barons who held their broad lands on the feudal tenure of military service. This powerful nobleman maintained thirty thousand persons on his various estates and manors—a very great number when the whole kingdom had a population of less than two and a-half millions. He was idolized by the soldiers and the people as the greatest representative of the national aristocracy of England.

Stow, a writer of that day, describes the great Earl of Warwick coming to London with a retinue of six hundred men, all in red jackets, embroidered on the sleeves with the "bare and ragged staff," the badge of the Warwick family. He lodged in his house on Warwick Lane, and six fat oxen were frequently consumed in one breakfast. All his own people were fed at his cost, and even all who were acquainted with his household were permitted to carry away as much boiled or roasted meat as they could take on their daggers; so that it is no wonder that he was extremely popular.

The Yorkists were victorious at Bloreheath, in Staffordshire, in 1459; and the Earl of Warwick defeated the Lancastrians at Northampton, July 10, 1460, compelling them to flee in all directions. Queen Margaret and her son fled to Scotland. King Henry VI. was found sitting alone in his tent, by the Earl of Warwick, who carried him a prisoner to London.

When Parliament convened in the fall of 1460 the Duke of York returned from Ireland and presented his claim to the English crown. There was no doubt that he was the direct heir of Edward III., but Parliament was unwilling to dethrone the reigning king. Parliament therefore decided that Henry VI. should remain King of England during his life, but that on his death the Duke of York and his heirs should succeed to the throne.

But Queen Margaret was not disposed to see her son thus set aside. By great exertions she raised an army of twenty thousand men, whom she induced to enter her service by promising them the plunder of the fertile lands of England. With this army Margaret advanced toward London, and encountered the Duke of York at the head of only five thousand men at Wakefield, in Yorkshire, where he was defeated and slain, December 30, 1460. The spot where he fell is still fenced off in a corner of a field near Sandal. His death was sincerely lamented by

Neville,  
Earl of  
Warwick,  
the King-  
maker.

His Great  
Liber-  
ality.

Battles of  
Blore-  
heath  
and  
North-  
ampton.

Henry VI.  
a  
Prisoner.

Parlia-  
ment's  
Decision  
as to the  
Crown.

Marga-  
ret's  
Army.  
Battle of  
Wake-  
field  
and Death  
of the  
Duke of  
York and  
His Son.

his partisans. The cruel Margaret caused his head to be cut off and fixed on the gate of York with a paper crown, in derision of his claim. His son Edmund, Earl of Rutland, a handsome boy of twelve years, was murdered in cold blood by Lord Clifford, on Wakefield hedge, where a small chapel, afterward erected, still commemorates the bloody deed. The cruel queen also caused the most noble and valiant of her prisoners to be beheaded without trial.

Children  
of the  
Duke of  
York.

The Duke of York left three sons and three daughters. The sons were Edward, Duke of York, afterward King Edward IV.; Richard, Duke of Gloucester, afterward King Richard III.; and George, Duke of Clarence. His eldest daughter became the wife of the renowned Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy.

Battle of  
Mortimer's  
Cross.

Edward Plantagenet, the young Duke of York, took up the cause and claim of his lamented father, defeated the Lancastrians in the battle of Mortimer's Cross, in Herefordshire, early in 1461, and followed up his victory by the bloody execution of the Lancastrian nobles who fell into his hands. After her victory in the battle of Wakefield, Queen Margaret resumed her advance toward London; her followers fully availing themselves of the liberty to plunder by pillaging and burning every church and dwelling, marking their way by fire and devastation. The Earl of Warwick led an army against her, taking the poor passive king with him.

Ravages  
of Mar-  
garet's  
Army.

Second  
Battle  
of St.  
Albans.

Margaret  
Shut Out  
of  
London.

In the second battle of St. Albans, February 17, 1461, Margaret won a victory over the Earl of Warwick, who fled, leaving behind him the king, who was rejoiced at being restored to his wife and son. But the queen's triumph was of short duration. The city of London was firm in the interests of the Yorkists, while the citizens also feared to admit Margaret's tumultuous army and refused to open their gates. The queen was therefore again obliged to retreat northward.

The  
Young  
Duke of  
York in  
London  
and Pro-  
claimed  
King.

The young Duke of York, with the remains of the army of the Earl of Warwick, entered London amid the acclamations of the populace, March 3, 1461. The Earl of Warwick then assembled the people, presented the young duke to them, and asked whether they would have him or Henry VI. for their king. The multitude shouted: "A York! a York! Long live King Edward!" The young Duke of York was that day proclaimed King of England with the title of EDWARD IV. The next day he went in solemn procession to Westminster Hall, took his seat on the throne, and received the homage of a large assemblage of nobles, bishops and magistrates, March 4, 1461. Thus ended the reign of the poor, idiotic Henry VI., the last of the three English kings belonging to the House of Lancaster; and thus began the royal House of York, which also furnished three kings to England, whose united reigns aggregated twenty-four years (A. D. 1461-1485).

Edward  
IV., First  
of the  
House of  
York,  
A. D.  
1461-  
1483.

Edward IV. was only in his nineteenth year when he found himself so unexpectedly seated on the throne of England. He was brave, active and enterprising, with a capacity far beyond his years. Comines, the contemporary French historian, says that "he was tall of person, fair of face, of a most princely presence, and altogether the goodliest man that ever mine eyes beheld." But these brilliant qualities were blackened by the darkest vices. In peace Edward IV. reveled in all kinds of self-indulgence, and in war he was sanguinary beyond all who had preceded him. He was willing to wade through seas of blood to secure possession of his throne.

**His Bad Character.**

Immediately after his accession the new king mustered an army of sixty thousand men, which he led northward in pursuit of the Lancastrian army of sixty thousand men under the deposed Henry VI. and Margaret. Edward IV. overtook the fleeing Lancastrians at Towton, about eight miles from York, in the midst of a severe snow storm, about four o'clock in the afternoon of Palm Sunday, 1461. The Yorkists had their backs toward the storm, while the Lancastrians faced it and were thus greatly incommoded by it. The sanguinary battle raged all that night and part of the next day, until finally the Lancastrian army fled in a panic from the bloody field, leaving thirty-three thousand men dead in the snow. Henry VI. and his wife and son awaited the result at York, and when they were informed of the defeat of their army they fled with the utmost haste to Scotland.

**Battle of Towton.**

**Flight of Henry VI. and Margaret to Scotland.**

It had been the practice from the beginning of the war for either party, when victorious, to execute the nobles of the other party and to confiscate their estates. After the battle of Towton there was a sweeping confiscation of Lancastrian estates, many of which were conferred on the Earl of Warwick, the main pillar of the House of York. Edward IV. also satiated his revengeful temper by many bloody executions, and every Lancastrian who fell into his hands was condemned as a traitor. He strengthened his own party by conferring titles and honors on all his friends. It was very necessary to create new peers, as the numbers of the nobility had been vastly reduced by the recent exterminating battles and by the sanguinary executions which followed them. Thus some of the noblest heads in England fell upon the scaffold, and their confiscated wealth went to build up the despotic power on which Edward IV. had set his heart, as it enabled him to support the expense of his government without the necessity of having recourse to Parliament.

**Sweeping Confiscations of Lancastrian Estates.**

**Wholesale Executions of the Lancastrian Nobility.**

Margaret's energy was only increased by these reverses of fortune. She made two voyages to France, in hopes of receiving assistance from there. Finally, by her untiring exertions, she raised an army, with which she invaded England by way of Scotland. After some slight

**Margaret's New Army.**

**Battles of Hedgley Moor and Hexham.** successes, she was defeated by King Edward IV. at Hedgley Moor, April 25, 1464, and three weeks later at Hexham.

**Margaret and Her Son and the Robbers.**

This last defeat was so decisive that Henry VI. escaped capture only by the swiftness of his horse. Margaret and her eleven-year-old son sought a hiding place in the woods, but there they fell among robbers, who took all their valuables from them. Fortunately, the robbers then quarreled about the division of the plunder, thus giving Margaret and her little boy an opportunity to escape. As she and her son were wandering about in the woods they met another robber. Margaret boldly approached him with her boy, saying: "Behold, my friend, the son of your king. I commit him to your protection." This appeal aroused the pity of the robber, who accordingly led the fallen queen and her little son to a hiding place, where they remained until the pursuit was over. The robber then led them to the sea-coast, whence they escaped to France.

**Captivity of Henry VI. in London.**

**His Indignities from the Earl of Warwick.**

The unfortunate Henry VI. wandered from one hiding place to another for the space of a year, suffering many hardships. While sitting at dinner at Waddington Hall, in July, 1465, he was betrayed by a monk to Sir James Harrington, who conveyed him to London and turned him over to his great enemy, the Earl of Warwick. The Earl of Warwick treated the fallen king with the utmost indignity; tying his feet under his horse's belly, as if he had been a criminal, and thus compelling him to ride round the pillory three times, while the populace were forbidden to show him any respect or compassion. The poor ex-king was then imprisoned in the Tower.

**Distress of the Lancastrian Nobles.**

The partisans of Henry VI. were now reduced to such distress that many of the most distinguished Lancastrian nobles were actually begging their bread in foreign lands, while the triumphant Yorkists were reveling in their estates. Says Comines: "I have seen the Duke of Exeter, barefooted and barelegged, begging from door to door; but becoming known, the Duke of Burgundy bestowed on him a pension."

**Extermination of the Lancastrian Nobility.**

With savage ferocity, Edward IV. did all in his power to exterminate the Lancastrian nobles, and those remaining in England could save themselves only by hiding. The son of that Lord Clifford who murdered young Edmund, Earl of Rutland, the brother of Edward IV., on the bloody field of Wakefield, was brought up as a shepherd. Another Lancastrian was hidden for five years in a cave on the banks of the river Derwent. The Countess of Oxford supported herself and her family for some time by working with her needle, and when that failed she was obliged to beg about the streets of London.

The Earl of Warwick very much desired that Edward IV. should marry into some powerful foreign family. The great earl was accordingly sent abroad to negotiate a match, and was successful in pro-



curing for the king the hand of Bona, sister to the wife of King Louis XI. of France. In the meantime, Edward IV., while one day hunting in Witchwood Forest, happened to stop at the manor of Grafton, where he met Lady Elizabeth Gray, daughter of Sir Richard Woodville and widow of Sir John Gray, a Lancastrian knight, who was slain at St. Albans. This lady became a suitor to the king for some lands which had been confiscated for the part that her husband had taken in the civil war.

Edward IV. and Lady Elizabeth Gray.

Edward IV. was so much charmed by the grace and beauty of Lady Elizabeth Gray that he in turn became a suitor to her. She received his addresses favorably, and he presently married her. The new queen claimed all the gifts and honors of the court for her kinsmen, and improved every opportunity to thwart and injure the Earl of Warwick. The king, who was deeply in love with his wife, filled the court with her kindred, showering riches and honors upon them. Her father, Sir Richard Woodville—whom her mother, the Duchess of Bedford, had married after the death of her first husband, the Duke of Bedford—was raised to the rank of nobility; as were also the queen's three brothers and her five sisters, all of whom married into the greatest families. Her eldest son, by her first husband, Sir John Gray, was married to the king's niece, the daughter of the Duke of Exeter. Edward IV. abandoned himself to pleasure, and the court was one continued scene of revelry; but under this external gayety and amusement was hidden a smothered fire of hatred and envy, as the sudden advancement of the new queen's family made them objects of jealousy to all the old nobility.

Their Marriage.

The New Queen's Kindred Enriched and Honored by Edward IV.

The king's marriage with an English subject led to his estrangement from the Earl of Warwick, whose indignation was aroused by the removal of his friends from office in rapid succession; and from being the best friend of Edward IV. the Earl of Warwick soon became his most powerful enemy, but concealed his resentment until the most favorable opportunity arrived for taking revenge, which opportunity soon presented itself.

Quarrel of Edward IV. and the Earl of Warwick.

The king's brothers—George, Duke of Clarence, and Richard, Duke of Gloucester—were likewise affronted at beholding themselves supplanted by the new royal favorites. The Duke of Clarence had married the daughter of the Earl of Warwick, and in 1469 the two conspired against the king. To further their designs, they proceeded to France, where they were joyfully welcomed by all the Lancastrians in that country. The exiled Queen Margaret hastened to secure the friendship of the Earl of Warwick by marrying her son to his daughter Anne. Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy, whose wife was the English king's eldest sister, warned Edward IV. of the coming storm;

The King's Brothers and the Earl of Warwick Desert to the Lancastrians.

but the king, heedless of his brother-in-law's admonition, continued to pass his time in idle diversions.

**The Earl of Warwick Master of England.**

The Earl of Warwick returned to England, landing with a few followers on the Kentish coast, September 13, 1470. No preparations had been made to oppose him, and he was at once joined by many nobles and by a great army, so that he was master of England in eleven days. Edward IV. and his brother, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, fled on horseback and escaped from the kingdom by taking passage on a trading vessel to Friesland, embarking so hastily that they had no money to pay their passage, so that the fugitive king was obliged to reward the captain of the vessel by giving him his cloak.

**Flight of Edward IV. from England.**

**Henry VI. Restored by the King-maker.**

Edward's queen took refuge in a sanctuary at Westminster, where her son, afterward King Edward V., was born. The Earl of Warwick, the King-maker, dragged the poor, forgotten Henry VI. from the Tower and replaced him on the English throne. But the Yorkists, who had been stunned by so sudden a blow, soon recovered from their momentary consternation. Edward IV., with the aid of his brother-in-law, Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy, soon mustered a small fleet and army, with which he returned to England, effecting a landing in Yorkshire. He soon had possession of the two great cities of York and London, and returned the poor, helpless Henry VI. to his prison in the Tower, after which he rallied all his forces to oppose the Earl of Warwick, who was marching against him; with a large and well-equipped army.

**Edward IV. Returns and Recovers His Throne.**

**Battle of Barnet and Death of the Earl of Warwick.**

The hostile armies met at Barnet, near London, April 13, 1471. During the night the fickle Duke of Clarence deserted with twelve thousand men from the army of his father-in-law, the Earl of Warwick, and joined his brother, King Edward IV. The battle of Barnet was fought the next day, when the great Earl of Warwick, the King-maker, was defeated and slain while fighting bravely for the Lancastrians, many of the nobles perishing with him on that fatal field, April 14, 1471.

**Margaret's Despair.**

Queen Margaret and her son had been detained by contrary winds, and did not land in England until the evening of the day on which the battle of Barnet was fought. Finding all hopes blasted by the fatal result of that day, Margaret's undaunted spirit forsook her for the first time, and she sank fainting to the ground. When she revived she fled with her son to a sanctuary, with the intention of returning to France; but some of the Lancastrians gathered around her and persuaded her to stay and make one more effort to recover the kingdom for her son. In the bloody battle of Tewkesbury, in Gloucestershire, May 4, 1471, the Lancastrians were again defeated, and Margaret and her son were taken prisoners.

**Battle of Tewkesbury and Captivity of Margaret and Her Son.**



THE DEATH OF THE EARL OF WARWICK

From the Painting by J. A. Houston

The Duke of Clarence and His Brothers as Enemies.

Although the Duke of Clarence had rendered such great service to his brother, King Edward IV., in the battle of Barnet, the king had never forgiven him for his aid to the Earl of Warwick just before that battle; and the Duke of Clarence now had the misfortune to gain the enmity of the queen and of his youngest brother, Richard, Duke of Gloucester.

The Dukes of Gloucester and Clarence and Anne Neville.

The Duke of Gloucester very much desired to marry Anne Neville, the widow of the murdered Prince Edward of Lancaster and the daughter of the great Earl of Warwick, the King-maker. The Duke of Clarence had married Anne's eldest sister, and wished Anne to remain a widow, so that he might secure to himself her inheritance, and thus come into possession of the whole of the Warwick estates. As the Duke of Gloucester was not very attractive, the Duke of Clarence very easily persuaded Anne Neville to reject the addresses of the murderer of her husband. But the Duke of Gloucester did not have any scruples about resorting to violence for the accomplishment of that which he was unable to effect by persuasion, and Anne was obliged to resort to many artifices to conceal herself. Finally he discovered her, disguised as a cook, in London, and immediately married her.

Marriage of the Duke of Gloucester with Anne Neville.

Edward IV. and Thomas Burdet's Buck.

The Duke of Gloucester sought in every way to excite the king's jealousy of the Duke of Clarence, and at length a trifle afforded an opportunity of gratifying his malice. One day, as Edward IV. was hunting in the park of Thomas Burdet, who was a friend of the Duke of Clarence, it happened that the king killed a white buck, a great favorite of the owner. Burdet, vexed at his loss, fell into a violent passion, during which he expressed the wish that the horns of the buck might cause the death of the person who had advised the king to kill the animal. As no one had advised the king to kill the buck, it was agreed that these words could apply to none but the king himself; and Burdet was accordingly tried, condemned and executed for wishing the king's death.

Burdet's Condemnation and Execution.

Condemnation and Death of the Duke of Clarence.

The Duke of Clarence was very free in expressing his opinion of the injustice of this act. The Duke of Gloucester reported these expressions to Edward IV., whereupon the Duke of Clarence was arrested; and Parliament, which then dared not oppose the king's wishes, condemned the arrested brother to death. As a royal and brotherly favor, Edward IV. permitted the Duke of Clarence to choose the manner of his death. The condemned duke desired to be drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine, and his wish was gratified. He had a son, who inherited his grandfather's title of Earl of Warwick, and a daughter, afterwards Countess of Salisbury; both of whom died violent deaths.

Tyranny of Edward IV.

Edward IV., so sagacious and unscrupulous in matters of state, became a tyrant and established a despotism. He introduced the odious

spy system into England, and made it so thorough that the lightest court gossip, as well as the most serious state intrigue, reached the king's ear. He also instituted the system of *benevolences*, which were gifts of money which he invited his wealthy subjects to make to him, and which none dared to refuse—an ingenious method of observing the letter, while violating the spirit, of the law against arbitrary taxation.

Spy  
System  
and  
Benevo-  
lences.

The greatest event of the reign of Edward IV. was the introduction of the new art of printing into England by William Caxton, a worthy London merchant, who had retired from trade and become a copyist in the service of the king's sister, the wife of Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy. When Caxton heard of the invention of this art in Germany, which was rapidly multiplying the number of books, he learned to be a printer in his sixtieth year; and three years later, A. D. 1476, he carried his press and types from Burgundy to England. The old man toiled in London until his eightieth year; and his industry and zeal is attested by the sixty-five books which he printed, of many of which he was the author and translator as well as the printer.

William  
Caxton  
and the  
Art of  
Printing  
in  
England.

In the Treaty of Arras, December 23, 1482, Louis XI. of France offered a mortal insult to Edward IV. by setting aside the marriage engagement of his son, the Dauphin Charles, to the English king's daughter Elizabeth, and betrothing the Dauphin to Anne, the daughter of the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, afterwards the Emperor Maximilian I. Edward IV. prepared to avenge the French king's insult by a fresh invasion of France; but he died in the midst of his warlike preparations, April 9, 1483, at the age of forty years, and after a reign of twenty-two years, his life being very much shortened by his excesses.

Insult of  
Louis XI.  
to  
Edward  
IV.

Death of  
Edward  
IV.

We now come to the shortest and most pathetic reign in English history. Edward IV. left two sons and five daughters. The sons were Edward, Prince of Wales, thirteen years of age, and Richard, Duke of York, ten years old. The eldest of these was proclaimed King of England with the title of EDWARD V. The public in general acknowledged his title; but his uncle, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, had long intended to put the innocent boy king out of the way, for the purpose of usurping the English crown for himself.

Edward  
V., A. D.  
1483.

Designs  
of the  
Duke of  
Gloucester.

The Duke of Gloucester profited by the jealousy which the nobles felt for the widow of Edward IV. and her relatives. The young king had been intrusted to the care of his maternal uncles, Lords Rivers and Gray. Richard's first step was to remove these noblemen from about the person of Edward V.; and in this he was willingly assisted by Lord Hastings, a loyal and honest man, but a bitter enemy of the queen-mother and her relatives.

His  
Plottings  
against  
Lords  
Rivers  
and Gray.

His  
Teach-  
erous  
Imprison-  
ment of  
Lords  
Rivers  
and Gray  
in Ponte-  
fract  
Castle.

Richard, Duke of Gloucester, and Lord Hastings set out to meet the boy king, who was on his way from Ludlow Castle to London to be crowned, being accompanied by his maternal uncles. The two parties met at Stony Stratford, where Lords Rivers and Gray passed the evening with the Duke of Gloucester in mirth and pleasantries, wholly unsuspecting of their impending fate. The next morning these two noblemen were seized and sent to Pontefract Castle, and all the rest of the youthful king's attendants were dismissed and forbidden to come near the court on penalty of death.

Alarm of  
Edward  
V.

Little King Edward V. was struck with grief and terror upon finding himself alone and in the power of his wicked uncle Richard, whom he had early been taught to dread; but the Duke of Gloucester fell on his knees, and assured his royal nephew, with strong professions of loyalty and affection, that all that he had done was for his preservation. After being soothed into composure, the boy king proceeded with his uncle Richard to London, where the news of these violent acts had arrived before them and caused great alarm. The king's mother instantly fled into the sanctuary at Westminster, taking with her her younger son, Richard, Duke of York, and her five daughters. Rotherham, Archbishop of York, a faithful servant of the crown, hastened to comfort the alarmed and distressed queen-mother.

Falsely  
Calmed  
by the  
Duke of  
Gloucester.

Flight  
of the  
King's  
Mother  
to West-  
minster.

The  
Duke of  
Gloucester  
Made  
Protector.

The Duke of Gloucester conducted his royal nephew into London, May 4, 1483, riding bareheaded before him, and frequently calling out to the people: "Behold your king!" A great council was held two days afterward, which appointed the artful Duke of Gloucester to the office of Protector of the kingdom. To keep up the deception, a day was appointed for the little king's coronation, and the preparations were immediately commenced for that event.

Lords  
Rivers  
and Gray  
Beheaded.

In the meantime, those to whom the Duke of Gloucester had disclosed his design to seize the English crown were actively employed. Sir Thomas Ratcliffe, one of the duke's chief confidants, entered Pontefract Castle with five thousand men, May 13, 1483, and beheaded the imprisoned Lords Rivers and Gray without any trial. The death of Lord Rivers was deeply lamented, as he was the most accomplished English nobleman of his time.

Plot  
against  
Lord  
Hastings.

Catesby, another creature of the Duke of Gloucester, had sought to win the support of Lord Hastings to the duke's schemes; but Hastings was firm in his devotion to the boy king, whereupon it was resolved to put him out of the way. On the very day that Lords Rivers and Gray were murdered in Pontefract Castle, the Duke of Gloucester summoned the council to meet in the Tower. The duke seemed to be remarkably gay and good-natured, but left the council-chamber as if called out upon business.

He soon returned with an angry countenance and demanded the punishment of those who plotted against his life. Lord Hastings, who was president of the council, replied that they should be treated as traitors. Said the Duke of Gloucester: "These traitors are the sorceresses, my brother's wife and another of his late friends. See to what they have reduced me by their witchcraft." Thereupon the duke laid bare his withered arm. The councilors looked at one another with amazement, well knowing that Richard's arm had been withered from his birth. Lord Hastings ventured to defend the late king's friend, Jane Shore, against the charge of witchcraft. Thereupon the duke exclaimed: "And do you reply to me with your *ifs* and your *ands*? You are yourself the chief traitor; and I swear by St. Paul I will not dine before your head be brought to me!" Thereupon Richard struck his hand upon the table as a signal; and armed men rushed into the chamber, seized Hastings and instantly beheaded him in the presence of the council.

The next object of the Duke of Gloucester was to get the little king's brother, the youthful Duke of York, into his power; declaring that it would be highly improper to permit the boy to remain in the sanctuary, because thieves and murderers found refuge therein. The Duke of Gloucester accordingly sent the Archbishop of Canterbury, who had no suspicion of Richard's evil designs, to persuade the queen-mother to surrender her little son. She had begun to suspect the ambitious designs of the Duke of Gloucester, although she had not heard of the murder of Lords Rivers and Gray. She knew that her little boy would be taken from her by force if she refused to consent to let him go. She clasped him to her breast and took leave of him with a flood of tears. Little King Edward V. was delighted to see his brother, and hoped long to enjoy his company.

After getting both his little nephews in his power, the Duke of Gloucester commenced acting more openly. He employed a popular preacher to harangue the people in his favor, but he met with little success. The Duke of Buckingham next addressed them; describing the miseries of the reign of Edward IV., dwelling upon the unfitness of the boy king to govern, and enlarging upon the virtues of the Duke of Gloucester. The Duke of Buckingham expressed his apprehension that the Protector could not be induced to accept the English crown, but he hoped that the people would do all in their power to persuade him to do so. He concluded by desiring every man to speak his real sentiments and to declare without fear whether they would have little Edward V., or his virtuous uncle, for their king.

After a short silence some of the servants of the Duke of Gloucester slipped in among the multitude and exclaimed: "Long live King Rich-

Jane  
Shore  
Accused  
by  
Richard  
III. of  
Bewitch-  
ing His  
Arm.

Lord  
Hastings  
Defends  
Her and  
Is Be-  
headed.

The  
Duke of  
Gloucester  
Gets  
Posses-  
sion of  
the Boy  
King's  
Little  
Brother.

His  
Mother's  
Grief on  
Parting  
with Him.

The Duke  
of Buck-  
ingham  
Addresses  
the People  
in Favor  
of the  
Duke of  
Gloucester  
as  
King.

The Duke of Gloucester's Pretended Surprise and Reluctance.

ard!" A few of the mob joined in the cry, and the duke induced the Lord Mayor and the Aldermen of London to accompany him to the Protector's palace and to offer him the English crown. The Duke of Gloucester pretended to be very much surprised at seeing such a concourse of people. When he was informed that their design was to offer him the royal crown he declined accepting it, saying that his love of his brother's children was greater than his love of a crown; but he finally allowed himself to be persuaded by the Duke of Buckingham and announced his acceptance.

Richard III., A. D., 1483-1485.

The Duke of Gloucester was at once proclaimed King of England with the title of RICHARD III., June 22, 1483; and the preparations which had been made for the coronation of Edward V. served for that of his uncle, who was crowned at Westminster, July 6, 1483, and who repeated the ceremony at York in order to please the people in the North of England. Richard III. claimed that the English crown was rightfully his, on the ground that his nephews were illegitimate on account of a marriage of Edward IV. contracted before his union with Lady Elizabeth Gray. In order to strengthen his claim he did not hesitate to insult his own mother, who was still living, by declaring that he was the only one of all her sons who was legitimate. Edward V. had reigned about two months and a-half (April 9-June 22, 1483).

His Coronation at Westminster.

His Claim.

Secret Murder of Edward V. and His Little Brother.

The fate of Edward V. and his little brother, the Duke of York, was unknown for a long time with certainty; but they were never seen again. Some years afterward several persons confessed themselves to have murdered them, and said that their bodies were buried at the foot of a staircase in the Tower. The story was not credited at the time, it being believed to have been fabricated for political effect; but it was confirmed in an extraordinary manner two centuries later, when a staircase in the Tower was altered. Then a chest was found buried under that staircase, and in that chest were the bones of two children corresponding in size to the ages of Edward V. and his brother.

Plots of the Duke of Buckingham in Favor of Henry Tudor.

No sooner had Richard III. obtained the crown of England than he sought to secure the future support of those who had aided him, by conferring liberal rewards upon them. The Duke of Buckingham, who had the largest claim, received the largest share of the royal favors. But even this ample compensation failed to satisfy the avarice or ambition of this nobleman; and he was soon engaged in a conspiracy to depose Richard III. and to place on the throne Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, a grandson of the Welshman Owen Tudor and his wife Catharine, the widow of Henry V. Henry Tudor was thus, through his paternal grandfather, a descendant of Llewellyn and the ancient Princes of Wales; and through his paternal grandmother he was the only remaining heir of the House of Lancaster. He was then an exile





THE PRINCES IN THE TOWER

From the Painting by Paul Delacroix



in France under the protection of the Duke of Brittany, who had brought him up and secured him against every attempt of Edward IV. to get him into his power.

In order to supply the defects of Henry Tudor's title to the crown, it was agreed that he should marry the Princess Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of Edward IV., and therefore the heiress of the House of York. The vigilance of Richard III. never slept, and when he perceived the impending storm he raised an army and summoned the Duke of Buckingham to attend him. This nobleman answered the summons by taking the field against the king, at the head of a military force which he had raised in Wales and with which he advanced into England.

When the Duke of Buckingham had arrived near the river Severn an extraordinary flood, long known as *Buckingham's Flood*, prevented his crossing. His Welsh troops, influenced by superstition and suffering from hunger, deserted his standard and returned to their homes. Their deserted officers fled from the kingdom or took refuge in sanctuaries. The Duke of Buckingham sought refuge in the house of a dependent of his own named Bannister, on whose fidelity he thought he could rely; but this man was unable to resist the temptation of the large reward offered for his master's apprehension, and betrayed him to the Sheriff of Shropshire, who found the duke in the disguise of a peasant hidden in an orchard behind Bannister's house, and took him to London, where he was executed.

Richard III., whose heart appeared callous to the sufferings of others, was vulnerable in one point. His only child, Edward, died April 9, 1484; and it is said that the king's grief was so intense that he almost "run mad." The queen's grief was just as violent, and her death several months later is usually ascribed to it, though some assert that she was poisoned by her husband. Richard III. now sought to win the favor of the widowed queen of Edward IV.; and in this he was so successful that he induced her to consent to his own marriage with her daughter, the Princess Elizabeth, although he was the paternal uncle of the princess and had murdered her two brothers and her two maternal uncles.

Notwithstanding all his spies, Richard III. did not appear to have been aware that Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who was supposed to be all the while in France, had actually passed much of his time in Wales, gaining adherents among his own countrymen. Once the young earl came so near being discovered by the king's spies that he only escaped by jumping out of a back window and getting through an opening, which is still called the *King's Hole*. On his return to France, Henry Tudor heard the report of the intended marriage of Richard III.

Henry  
Tudor  
and  
Princess  
Eliza-  
beth.  
Opposing  
Forces of  
Richard  
III.  
and the  
Duke of  
Bucking-  
ham.

Bucking-  
ham's  
Flood.

Desertion  
of the  
Duke of  
Bucking-  
ham's  
Follow-  
ers.

His  
Flight,  
Capture  
and  
Execu-  
tion.

Death  
of the  
Son and  
Wife of  
Richard  
III.

His  
Proposed  
Marriage  
with  
Princess  
Eliza-  
beth.

Henry  
Tudor,  
Earl of  
Rich-  
mond,  
in Wales  
and  
France.

**He Takes  
the Field  
against  
Richard  
III.**

with the Princess Elizabeth of York. He therefore hastily raised an army of three thousand men, consisting of English exiles and a few French troops, and with this small force he landed at Milford Haven, in Wales, August 7, 1485.

**Alarm of  
Richard  
III.**

When Richard III. heard how small an army Henry Tudor had with him, and what a ragged, beggarly crowd they were, he despised so weak an enemy. But when the king discovered that the young earl's force was fast increasing in numbers, and that some Welsh troops who had been sent against Henry Tudor had actually joined him, he began to perceive the danger by which he was threatened. Richard III. might still have quelled the rising against him had he known in whom to confide.

**Ratcliffe,  
Catesby  
and  
Lovel.**

The chief agents in the king's wicked schemes were Ratcliffe, Catesby and Lovel, which gave rise to the following verses, which an old chronicler says passed for excellent wit in those times:

"The Cat, the Rat, and Lovel the Dog,  
Rule all England under the Hog."

The term *Hog* referred to Richard III., whose badge was the white boar.

**Richard  
III. and  
Lord  
Stanley.**

Richard III. knew that these three men were not the friends on whom he could rely in the time of his own need. With good reason, he distrusted all around him; as Lord Stanley, to whom he had assigned the chief command of his army, was secretly in league with the Earl of Richmond, whose mother he had married.

**Battle  
of Bos-  
worth.**

Richard soon aroused himself to action, quickly raised an army and marched with great pomp against the Earl of Richmond, wearing a crown on his helmet. The two armies met on the field of Bosworth, in Leicestershire, August 22, 1485, where they were that day drawn up in line of battle, Lord Stanley drawing up the royal troops under his command a short distance away from the rest of the king's army. The Earl of Richmond, who was no soldier, sent a request to Lord Stanley to aid him in forming his troops in line; but Stanley replied to the earl that he must form them himself, and that he would come to him at a convenient moment.

**Lord  
Stanley's  
Treachery  
to  
Richard  
III.**

**Lord  
Stanley's  
Desertion  
to Henry  
Tudor  
during  
the  
Battle.**

Richard III. was very angry when he saw how Lord Stanley had drawn up his troops; but it was then too late to do any more than to summon Stanley's instant attendance—a summons which Stanley disobeyed. When the battle began no vigor or spirit was displayed in the king's army. When Lord Stanley suddenly turned and attacked the royal troops under the king's immediate command, Richard III. saw that all was lost. In the courage of despair, he plunged into the thickest of the fight, crying: "Treason! treason!" Hewing down all be-

fore him, the desperate king made his way to the Earl of Richmond, who shrank back at his approach. The earl's attendants gathered around Richard III., who fought like a lion at bay until he fell covered with wounds, and expired. His helmet was so beaten in by the blows it had received that its form was quite destroyed. The royal crown, which had rolled under a hawthorn-bush when the king fell, was placed upon the head of the victorious Earl of Richmond, who was crowned on the battlefield by Sir William Stanley, brother of Lord Stanley, and was hailed from all parts of the field with shouts of "God save King Henry VII.!"

Desperate  
Valor and  
Death of  
Richard  
III.

Henry  
Tudor  
Crowned  
on the  
Battle-  
field as  
Henry  
VII.

There was unbounded rejoicing throughout England because of the defeat and death of the royal murderer and usurper, who had committed so many crimes to obtain the English crown.

Rejoicing  
in  
England.

Most of the English nobles had deserted Richard III.; but the Duke of Norfolk was one of the few who had remained loyal to him. Some friend had tried to save him from his impending fate, and had that morning thrown an admonitory letter into his tent, which read thus:

The  
Duke of  
Norfolk's  
Loyalty  
to  
Richard  
III.

"Jockey of Norfolk, be not too bold,  
For Dickon, thy master, is bought and sold."

Richard III. had reigned little more than two years (June 22, 1483—August 22, 1485); and was thirty-four years of age when he was slain. He fell near a brook which runs through Bosworth-field, the water of which long remained stained with blood; and it is said that the people in the vicinity are averse to using it even at the present day. After suffering many indignities, the body of Richard III. was finally buried in a church at Leicester; but his bones were not permitted to rest even there. At the time of the destruction of the religious houses, during the reign of Henry VIII., they were torn from their grave; and his stone coffin was converted into a watering-trough for horses at an inn at Leicester.

Indig-  
nities  
to the  
Remains  
of  
Richard  
III.

The battle of Bosworth—the most important in English history since that of Hastings—ended at once, not only the House of York and the Wars of the Roses, but also the renowned royal race of the Plantagenets and the Feudal System in England; and with HENRY VII., the first Tudor who occupied the English throne, began modern England. The Tudor dynasty furnished five sovereigns to England, whose aggregate reigns amounted to one hundred and eighteen years (A. D. 1485—1603).

Impor-  
tance  
of the  
Battle  
of Bos-  
worth.

Henry  
VII.,  
First  
of the  
Tudor  
Dynasty.

The great results of the Wars of the Roses were the destruction of the ancient nobility of England and the overthrow of the Feudal System, the loss of constitutional liberty, and the decline of civilization.

Results  
of the  
Wars  
of the  
Roses.

**Destruction of the Old Nobility of England.**

The Wars of the Roses were peculiarly the wars of the English nobles. All the great feudal families, gathered around the rival standards of the Houses of York and Lancaster, were hurled against each other in battle after battle with terrible loss. Confiscations, executions and exile still further diminished the numbers and power of the nobility, until at the end of these bloody civil wars the ancient baronage of England was left in a hopeless wreck. It is said that at some time during these civil wars the crown held one-fifth of all the real estate of England as its share of the spoils. Both lands and titles remained, some of them to return to their former owners or their kindred, but more went to enrich the king and to ennoble the king's favorites, who were loaded with wealth and dignities.

**The New Nobility.**

The nobility, which was thus reëstablished by royal clemency and royal bounty, was deprived of its traditional power and independence. It very little resembled the grand feudal race that, descending from William the Conqueror, was as old and as proud as the throne which he reared. It little resembled the lordly race that had stood so firmly between the throne and the people for centuries, the support of the throne against faction, and the defense of the people against tyranny.

**The Old-time Baron of England.**

It is impossible not to feel an admiration for the old-time baron of England, whether we think of him in time of peace, in the old ancestral castle, extending a hearty though rude hospitality, or in time of war, closing his gates and bidding defiance to all his foes. He feasted and fought with the same relish, and was no respecter of persons, as he buckled on his armor with the same readiness for a tilt with the king's forces as with those of his quarrelsome neighbor. Said Earl Warrenne, upon flinging his sword upon the table before the commissioners which Edward I. had sent to examine his title-deed: "That, sirs, is my title-deed." Said Henry III. to Earl Bigod, who had refused the king's demand for aid: "I will send reapers and reap your fields for you." The fearless earl replied: "And I will send you back the heads of your reapers."

**Earls Warrenne and Bigod.**

**The Barons and the Great Charter.**

We must honor the patriotism of these old-time barons of our mother country, as well as admire their fearlessness. They came to the front in periods of national peril time and again. The barons of England wrested the Great Charter of English freedom from the tyrant King John. History is silent as to which of the immortal twenty-four was the Thomas Jefferson who originated and framed that wonderful instrument—the origin and basis of all English and American liberty. But history is sufficiently definite as to the name of Simon de Montfort, the leader of that other immortal twenty-four who founded the House of Commons, the republican portion of the English system, in the very face of the throne itself.

The Feudal System fell with the ancient baronage. Feudalism, as a power in England, expired in a bright but lurid flame, when the great Earl of Warwick, after towering high above the throne itself for a short time, suddenly fell on the bloody field of Barnet. We can only regret that the Earl of Warwick, "the Last of the Barons," was not the best as well as the last of his race.

The Earl of Warwick, "the Last of the Barons."

From Magna Charta to the Wars of the Roses there was a slow but real development of constitutional freedom, almost every reign being signalized by either a limitation of the royal prerogative or an enlargement of popular rights.

Constitutional Freedom.

When the Wars of the Roses commenced, the following principles had been established, so far as the intelligence of the people and the arbitrary dispositions of kings permitted: The king had lost the right to levy taxes, to make or alter the laws, and imprison or punish subjects arbitrarily. Parliament had gained, in addition to the control of laws and taxes, the right to impeach and remove the ministers of the crown, the right to direct and investigate expenditures, to depose the king, and to settle questions of peace and war.

Power of King and Parliament.

All these great principles and guaranties, won through centuries of toil and suffering, were rudely swept away during the Wars of the Roses; and the English nation did not sufficiently recover itself to reassert and reestablish them for more than a century later. When the king lost the right to levy taxes without the consent of Parliament, during the reign of Edward I., England passed from an absolute to a limited monarchy. Edward IV. reestablished absolute monarchy in England, which continued growing more and more absolute, until, during the reign of Henry VIII., it became a despotism as unmitigated as that of the Czar of Russia.

Loss of Constitutional Liberty.

This will not appear so strange when we consider that the English nobility, so shattered and dependent, were without power or prestige, and were no longer able, if willing, to stand between the English people and royal oppression. The Church, which had so frequently stood side by side with the nobility in the struggle with tyranny, was infected with heresy and paralyzed through fear of another reformation. The people of England were not yet sufficiently enlightened to understand or maintain their own rights. Thus the English crown was left with little or no restraint, and the descent in the direction of absolutism was easy and rapid. Charters, statutes and human rights were trodden under the sovereign's feet with perfect impunity. In the language of Green: "The crown, which only fifty years before had been the sport of every faction, towered into solitary greatness."

Weakness of Nobility and Church and Growth of Absolute Royal Power.

Although constitutional liberty appeared to have been lost to England after the Wars of the Roses, none of the great statutes which had

Perma-  
nence  
of  
Magna  
Charta  
and the  
House of  
Commons.

advanced the cause of human rights was ever abrogated. Kings and ministers recognized Magna Charta as the supreme law of the land, even while they trampled its provisions under their feet. The House of Commons was never abolished, though the Monarchy and the House of Lords once were. The popular branch of the English Parliament never ceased to exist for a moment, though hated by tyrants, and thus prorogued, dissolved, overawed and ignored.

Brutalizing and Demoralizing Effect of the Wars of the Roses.

The barbarous manner in which the Wars of the Roses were conducted was most debasing, to the people who were spectators in the horrible drama, as well as to the soldiers who were the actors. The savage order in many of the battles of these sanguinary civil wars was: "No quarter." But the cold-blooded executions which followed almost every battle were still more demoralizing. The hideous and sickening spectacle of ghastly heads and limbs of human bodies, impaled on stakes and placed on walls in public places, and constantly staring the people in the face, had a most brutalizing effect.

Debasing Influence of these Civil Wars.

No Principle at Stake.

The Wars of the Roses had a most pernicious and debasing influence upon the young. The fierce animosities which these destructive civil wars engendered consumed the nobler qualities of individual character. During the entire gloomy period there is scarcely a chivalrous deed to be found recorded. There was no principle whatever at stake in the Wars of the Roses. It was simply a struggle for power between two rival families. The welfare of the English nation was sacrificed to the interests of the rival Houses of York and Lancaster. The patriot was sunk in the partisan. The baser passions reigned supreme, and civilization was on the decline.

## SECTION VI.—ACCESSION OF THE TUDORS AND END OF FEUDALISM (A. D. 1485-1509).

Henry VII., A. D. 1485-1509.

His Marriage with Princess Elizabeth, Daughter of Edward IV.

HENRY VII. was formally crowned at Westminster, and was married to Elizabeth of York, the daughter of Edward IV., January 18, 1486. His hatred of the House of York was so great that he was very much averse to this marriage, and he is said to have treated his wife with great coldness as a result of this feeling. The throne of Henry VII., under ordinary circumstances, would have been imperiled, from the fact that he was the heir of the House of Lancaster; but his marriage with the heiress of the House of York, by uniting the claims of the two rival families which had for thirty years drenched England with the blood of her own people, entirely appeased all jealousies; while the universal national joy and general satisfaction at the overthrow and death of the infamous Richard III. fully reconciled all parties of the English peo-



ple to Henry Tudor's usurpation. The union of the Red and White Roses, in the marriage of Henry VII. with Elizabeth of York, was a source of great strength to all the Tudor sovereigns of England.

Henry VII. was only thirty years of age when the victory of Bosworth-field made him King of England. He was of a tall and slender physical form, a pale complexion, and of a grave, sedate deportment. He was cold, cautious and designing, and was without a single amiable quality. He did not possess any brilliant natural abilities, but he made up for want of quickness by the most diligent application, and was rewarded for his perseverance by gaining a reputation for wisdom which he lacked. He was an unkind husband, a careful though not an affectionate father, a rigorous master and a bitter enemy.

His whole conduct and policy, from the beginning to the end of his reign, were swayed by two ruling passions—his avarice, and his hatred of the House of York. The first command that he issued, even before he had left the bloody field of Bosworth, where he had been proclaimed king, was that persons should be sent into Yorkshire to seize young Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence.

Henry's avarice was not without its advantages to his kingdom, though an odious vice in itself, and particularly obnoxious in a king. It led him to encourage commerce, and to lay the foundations of the English navy. The *Great Henry*, a four-masted ship which he caused to be built, was, properly speaking, the first ship in the English navy; as hitherto, when the king wanted a fleet, his only expedient was to hire or purchase ships from foreign merchants.

The harshness of Henry VII. toward the House of York naturally irritated the members of that family against him, and thus gave rise to two Yorkist insurrections, headed by two impostors who claimed the English crown. The first of these risings was in 1487, when an Oxford priest, named Simon, instructed Lambert Simnel, an Oxford baker's son, to personate the young Earl of Warwick, the son of the Duke of Clarence. This young earl had been imprisoned in the Tower by Henry VII., and it was now pretended that he had escaped therefrom.

Lambert Simnel, the pretended Earl of Warwick, was furnished with troops by Margaret, the widow of Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy and the sister of Edward IV., for the purpose of enforcing his pretensions to the English throne. He was joined by the Earl of Lincoln and Lord Lovel. When Henry VII. heard of this false Earl of Warwick he caused the real earl to be taken from the Tower and carried in procession through London, permitting all to converse with him who so desired. This proceeding satisfied the people of England; but it did not convince those of Ireland, who were warmly attached to the House of York, and especially to the Duke of Clarence, who had been Lord

Union  
of the  
Red and  
White  
Roses.

Char-  
acter of  
Henry  
VII.

His Two  
Passions.

The  
Great  
Henry.

Lambert  
Simnel's  
Impos-  
ture.

The Real  
Earl of  
Warwick  
Shown  
to the  
People.

Lieutenant of Ireland. When Lambert Simnel landed in Dublin as Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick, all Ireland greeted him with loyal acclamations as "King Edward VI."

Lambert  
Simnel's  
Irish and  
German  
Forces in  
England.

With the few nobles who joined him, and some troops which he had raised in Ireland, Lambert Simnel invaded England, landing in Lancashire, where he expected to be joined by the inhabitants; while the dowager Duchess of Burgundy, who had been so easily convinced or so willingly deceived by the imposture, sent over a German army to invade England in concert with the impostor's Irish forces. Simnel was disappointed in his expectations of an English rising in his favor, and he had advanced as far as Stoke-upon-Trent without receiving any reinforcements from the inhabitants. He was utterly defeated and his cause irretrievably crushed by the royal army under King Henry VII. in the battle of Stoke-upon-Trent, August 16, 1487. Simnel was taken prisoner in this battle, and was punished with less severity than he could have expected under the circumstances, as the king contented himself with degrading the impostor by making him a scullion in the royal kitchen. Simnel was subsequently promoted to the office of falconer to the king, thus lessening his degradation. Most of Simnel's followers lost their lives in the battle of Stoke-upon-Trent, among them the Earl of Lincoln; while Lord Lovel fled, and was no more seen afterward.

Battle of  
Stoke-  
upon-  
Trent.

Simnel's  
Capture  
and  
Degrada-  
tion.

Benefits  
of the  
Avarice  
of Henry  
VII.

A  
Benevo-  
lence.

Invasion  
of France  
by Henry  
VII.

Bribed to  
Return.

Perkin  
War-  
beck's  
Impos-  
ture.

The notorious avarice of Henry VII. was so far a benefit to England that it restrained the king from engaging in expensive foreign wars. In 1487 he availed himself of a quarrel with France about the duchy of Brittany to fill his own coffers. Under the pretense of aiding the young Duchess Anne of Brittany, he obtained liberal supplies of money from Parliament, and extorted a forced loan called a *benevolence* from the rich merchants. In 1492 he invaded France and besieged Boulogne for a few days, after which he suffered himself to be bought off by King Charles VIII. of France for the sum of one hundred and forty-nine thousand pounds sterling, and returned to England. Thus, like a shrewd merchant, Henry VII. made a double profit out of friends and foes by filling his coffers at the expense of both the English and French nations.

The dowager Duchess of Burgundy, seeing how easily many people in England had been deceived by the fraud of Lambert Simnel, resolved upon a new project, contrived with more art and plausibility. She first caused a rumor to be circulated that the young Duke of York, the brother of Edward V., was alive and had escaped from the Tower after his imprisonment there by Richard III. She then found a youth, named Perkin Warbeck, son of a Jewish merchant of Tournay, in Flanders. This youth, with his courtly manners and speech, with his intel-

lectual gifts and accomplishments, made him more presentable as a prince than poor Lambert Simnel, the Oxford baker's boy, had been. Perkin Warbeck bore a strong resemblance to the Plantagenets; and his winning manners and demeanor, his princely and dignified bearing, fascinated all who conversed with him and persuaded them that he was a prince.

Perkin Warbeck first presented himself at the court of France, and was well received by King Charles VIII. He was dismissed at the demand of Henry VII., but with courtesy; after which he sought the protection of his "aunt," as he called the Duchess of Burgundy. She received him as if he had been a complete stranger to her, and pretended to disbelieve his story; after which, as if suddenly convinced by his answers to her questions, she embraced him with a transport of joy, declaring that he was actually her long-lost nephew, and giving him the title of the "White Rose of England."

Henry VII. was now anxious to convince the world that the real Duke of York had been murdered in the Tower by the secret orders of Richard III., and he obtained the confession of two persons who acknowledged that they had been concerned in putting him to death. But these confessions received little credit at the time, though they were corroborated two centuries later, as we have before remarked.

Henry VII. also sought to ascertain the true story of Perkin Warbeck; but the secret was kept so well, and his origin was so obscure, that this was no easy matter. Finally the king won over one of the impostor's confidants, and from this individual Henry VII. obtained a knowledge of almost the entire history of the conspiracy, with the names of all those in England who favored it. The story was published for the information of the English nation; and those concerned in it were all seized in one day, and were immediately tried, condemned and executed. Sir William Stanley, who had saved the life of Henry VII. in the battle of Bosworth, and who had also crowned the king on that famous field, was beheaded for having been heard to say that if he were sure that Perkin Warbeck was the real Duke of York he would never bear arms against him. As Sir William Stanley was one of the richest gentlemen in England, it was believed that the king had put him to death for the purpose of confiscating his vast wealth to the crown.

After two unsuccessful efforts to effect a landing in England, Perkin Warbeck proceeded to Scotland, in 1496, where he was kindly welcomed by King James IV., who espoused the impostor's cause with the utmost warmth. The Scottish king also gave to Warbeck in marriage the Lady Catharine Gordon, one of the noblest and most accomplished ladies of the time. James IV. did not content himself with simple promises; but in October, 1496, he invaded England with a Scottish army

His Reception by Charles VIII. of France and the Dowager Duchess of Burgundy.

Confessed Murderers of Edward V. and His Brother.

Disclosure of the Conspiracy and Execution of the Conspirators.

Sir William Stanley Beheaded.

Perkin Warbeck Received and Aided by James IV. of Scotland.

**Scottish  
Invasion  
of  
England.**

for the purpose of placing Perkin Warbeck on the English throne, inviting all the people of England to rally to the standard of their rightful sovereign, "King Richard IV." The Scots immediately commenced plundering, in accordance with their usual custom; and Warbeck expostulated with King James IV. on this barbarous manner of conducting the war, declaring that he would rather lose a crown than to obtain it by the ruin of his subjects.

**War-  
beck's  
Retreat  
to  
Scotland.**

It was expected that upon Perkin Warbeck's first appearance in England all the partisans of the House of York would rise in his favor, but in this he was disappointed. None came to his assistance, and he was obliged to retreat toward Edinburgh. King Henry VII. was always a better diplomat than soldier, and preferred concluding a treaty with King James IV. to meeting him on the battlefield, and a truce was made between the two sovereigns.

**Truce  
with  
Scotland.**

**Warbeck  
in Ireland  
and  
Cornwall.**

In consequence of the treaty between the Kings of England and Scotland, Perkin Warbeck went to Ireland with about one hundred and twenty followers, and with his devoted wife, who would not forsake her husband. The next year, A. D. 1497, the impostor returned to England, landing in Cornwall, where the poor miners had in the meantime been driven to rebellion by oppressive taxation. The pretended Duke of York was soon at the head of seven thousand Cornishmen, and besieged Exeter; but on the approach of the royal forces, Warbeck, seeing that all resistance would be in vain, deserted his companions and fled for refuge by night to the sanctuary of Beaulieu, in the New Forest. This unkingly cowardice satisfied the English people that the pretended Duke of York was no Plantagenet.

**His  
Flight  
and  
Cowardice.**

**His  
Capture,  
Imprisonment,  
Escape,  
Recapture  
and Confession.**

The king's troops soon surrounded the sanctuary, and Henry VII. would have gladly forced open its gates and seized his victim, but was persuaded to attempt to entice the impostor out by a promise of sparing his life. On receiving this pledge, Warbeck surrendered himself to the king, and was conveyed a prisoner to the Tower. He escaped from that prison, but was soon recaptured and brought back; after which he was exposed upon a scaffold, and forced to read aloud a written paper in which he confessed himself to be an impostor.

**His Plot  
with the  
Earl of  
Warwick  
for  
Escape.**

**Execution  
of Both.**

Perkin Warbeck afterwards found means to have some communication with his fellow-prisoner, Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick; and the two contrived a plan for their escape, the discovery of which was followed by the execution of both. Perkin Warbeck was hanged at Tyburn, the place of execution for common malefactors, November 23, 1499; while the Earl of Warwick, from the respect due to his undoubted rank, was beheaded on Tower Hill a few days later.

After Perkin Warbeck had been taken a prisoner to the Tower, his young and beautiful wife was sent for by King Henry VII., who, not-

withstanding the hardness of his heart, appears to have been touched by her youth, her beauty, her grief, and her devotion to her husband. The king said some kind and soothing words to her, and presented her to his queen, with whom she remained as an attendant. She had an adequate allowance conferred on her, and was much beloved at the English court, where she was called the "White Rose of England."

**War-  
beck's  
Widow  
Called to  
Reside at  
the Royal  
Court.**

The king's revengeful act in executing the Earl of Warwick destroyed whatever love the English people may have felt for their king. The young earl was not executed because he was guilty of any offense deserving death, but because he was the last male Plantagenet, and, as such, was a source of possible danger to the throne of Henry VII.

**The  
Execution  
of the  
Earl of  
Warwick.**

The attempts of the impostors, Lambert Simnel and Perkin Warbeck, caused Parliament to pass the *Statute of Allegiance*, providing that none should be punished for allegiance to the reigning king, whether he be king *de jure* (by right), or king *de facto* (in fact). This statute was intended to guard against such wholesale executions, in case of a change of dynasty, as followed the fortunes of the Red and White Roses, when men were pronounced traitors one day for adhering to the House of York, and beheaded the next day for supporting the House of Lancaster.

**The  
Statute  
of Alle-  
giance.**

As we have already remarked, the reign of Henry VII. was the beginning of the modern era. The fall of the ancient baronage of England was a great benefit to the nation, as their iron hand had rested heavily upon the English people; though the immediate effect was to increase the power of the king, thus giving the Tudors greater power than the Plantagenets had possessed. Nevertheless, the diffusion of intelligence through printed books, the revival of learning and the new enthusiasm awakened in the study of Greek and Roman literature, the numerous cheap editions of the printed Bible, and the mental excitement caused by the stirring events in general which ushered in the modern era, led to great progress in art, science, literature and the refinements of home life.

**Beginning  
of the  
Modern  
Era.**

During this period the Greek and Hebrew languages began to be studied in the great universities of England and throughout Europe. Mediæval superstitions were passing away; and men were beginning to think for themselves, in philosophy and science, also in politics and religion. Here began modern civilization, based not on the essential slavery of the Feudal System, as was the mediæval, but on the growing intelligence and increasing importance of the masses.

**Growth  
of  
Learning  
and  
Rise of  
Modern  
Civiliza-  
tion.**

It was during this time that the great Portuguese navigators discovered the sea-passage to India around Southern Africa; that Columbus, in the services of Spain, made his voyages of discovery, which opened the New World to the eyes of Europe. England had her share

**Discovery  
of  
America  
by  
Columbus  
and the  
Cabots.**

in these maritime enterprises, as it was under the auspices of Henry VII. that John and Sebastian Cabot made their several voyages which revealed the existence of the North American continent to European eyes; and the brave and hardy English, inclined to the sea, both from their Saxon and Norman blood and from their island home, were soon to be found in the remotest quarters of the globe.

**Diffusion of the English Race.**

**Exactions and Extortions of Henry VII.**

Henry VII. had always been avaricious and miserly, but in the latter part of his reign his exactions caused him to be cordially hated by his subjects, from whom he extorted money by many unlawful devices. His chief instruments in these extortions were two lawyers, Richard Empson and Edmund Dudley, who searched out obsolete statutes to enable the king to impose unjust fines and penalties for the most trifling offenses; and forgotten tenures and petty violations of law were so many traps to bring multitudes of men into the courts of justice, and the fines exacted from these filled the royal treasury with a constant stream of wealth.

**His Chief Instruments, Empson and Dudley.**

**Nature of the Benevolences.**

The royal miser also increased his wealth by means of taxes and benevolences. A benevolence originally meant a voluntary contribution for the king's expenses, made among his immediate vassals. Edward IV. extended it to the entire kingdom; and, though the name implies a free gift, a benevolence became a very arbitrary tax, as the king could quarter soldiers on those who refused to contribute, and could annoy them in many other ways, for which reason the people called these benevolences *malevolences*.

**Morton's Fork.**

Edward IV. had exacted benevolences from the rich only, but Henry VII. extorted them from the poor as well. By a crafty device, called from its author, *Morton's Fork*, the king extorted money from those who made a display in their style of living, as display was evidence of wealth; and from those who made no display he exacted gifts, on the ground that they must have become rich by their economy. Thus both the extravagant and the thrifty were the king's victims.

**Statute of Liveries.**

Henry VII. neglected no opportunity to seize the estates of those attainted, and acquired a large income by the rigid execution of the *Statute of Liveries*. In feudal times castles of the barons resembled armed camps. Crowds of idle vassals, supported by the bounty of their lords, were always ready, at their bidding, to storm a castle or menace a throne. The Statute of Liveries, which had been enacted in a previous reign, was intended to break up these great military establishments. This statute had fallen into disuse, but was revived and executed by Henry VII. with fine and forfeiture.

**The Star Chamber.**

A new court, called the *Star Chamber*, was appointed to have special reference to cases coming under the Statute of Liveries. This court, which received its name from the star decorations of the room in which

the sessions were held, was solely under the king's control, and became an instrument of great oppression in subsequent reigns.

By sharp practice and rigid economy, Henry VII. amassed a fortune equal to ten million pounds sterling. Though avaricious and miserly by nature, there was policy in his desire for wealth. The one grand purpose which he had in view was the establishment of the throne of the Tudors on a solid and secure basis. He knew very well that the great power of the Commons lay in their control of the public funds, and that the possession of adequate means on the king's part was the royal road to independence. He therefore exerted himself to obtain money without having recourse to Parliament, and in this he succeeded so well that there was but one session of Parliament during the last thirteen years of his reign.

Henry VII. also endeavored to strengthen the Tudor dynasty by marriage alliances with other reigning families of Europe. In 1501 his eldest son, Arthur, Prince of Wales, was married to Catharine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, the reigning sovereigns of Spain, then the most powerful kingdom in Europe. The young prince died five months after his marriage; and Henry VII., unwilling to part with the rich dowry of the Spanish princess, obtained a dispensation from Pope Alexander VI. permitting his next son Henry, who then became the heir to the English crown, to marry the young widow. Prince Henry, who was then only twelve years of age, and therefore much younger than his bride, was very much opposed to the match; but his father forced him into it. In 1503 the Princess Margaret, the eldest daughter of Henry VII., was married to King James IV. of Scotland—a marriage from which the Stuarts derived their title to the crown of England.

In 1506 the Princess Catharine had a forced visit from her eldest sister, the wife of the Archduke Philip of Austria. The archduke's vessel was driven by a storm into an English harbor; and Henry VII. refused to allow his guests to depart until he had wrested from them a new treaty of commerce with the Netherlands, and some other concessions equally as advantageous to himself.

The only feeling which was strong enough to overcome the avarice of Henry VII. was his ambition to have a splendid tomb. With this view he erected what is known as the Chapel of Henry VII., at Westminster Abbey. He called upon the best architects of the time to furnish designs for this magnificent structure, on which the king did not grudge the expenditure of large sums of his hoarded wealth. This chapel is still one of the most beautiful edifices in England.

A violent attack of the gout warned Henry VII. that his end was approaching, and he devoted his remaining days to preparations for

**Purpose of Henry VII. in Acquiring Wealth.**

**Prince Henry's Marriage with Catharine of Aragon.**

**Princess Margaret's Marriage with James IV. of Scotland.**

**Forced Treaty of Commerce with the Netherlands.**

**Chapel of Henry VII. at Westminster Abbey.**

- Avarice in His Dying Acts.** the next world. Even his dying acts were tinged by that calculating, money-loving spirit which had been the ruling passion of his life. He ordered two thousand prayers to be said for the repose of his soul, and for these prayers sixpence apiece was to be paid.
- His Last Good Acts.** Several of his bequests, however, showed that he still had some conscience. He ordered that restitution should be made to those persons from whom Empson and Dudley had extorted more than the law would warrant. He also ordered the payment of the debts of all persons who were imprisoned in London for sums less than forty shillings. He died at his new palace of Richmond, April 21, 1509, in the fifty-fourth year of his age and the twenty-fourth of his reign, and was buried in the magnificent chapel which he had built for his tomb at Westminster Abbey.
- His Death.**

#### SECTION VII.—NEIGHBORING KINGDOM OF SCOTLAND IN MEDIÆVAL TIMES (A. D. 843–1513).

- Ancient Caledonia.** From the earliest period, the northern part of the island of Britain—anciently called *Caledonia* (now Scotland)—had been occupied by two wild Celtic tribes, known as *Scots* and *Picts*, whom the Romans could not subdue, and who made plundering raids into Britain. Bands of Scots continued their migrations from Ireland to Scotland as late as the sixth century. The Scots settled along the western shores of Caledonia, to which they gave their name. They were led by Fergus Mac Erc, who founded a kingdom.
- Picts and Scots.**
- Northumbria and Strathclyde.** In the sixth century hordes of Angles from Germany settled in the south-eastern part of Caledonia, which constituted a part of the Angle kingdom of Northumbria; while the Celtic, or British kingdom of Strathclyde embraced South-western Scotland and the modern English counties of Cumberland and Westmoreland.
- Introduction of Christianity by St. Columba.** Christianity was introduced into Scotland in the sixth century by St. Columba, an Irishman, who was welcomed by Conal, the King of the Scots, who gave him the island of Iona, west of Mull. There St. Columba and his comrades erected a church and several dwellings, and converted the Picts; the Scots having been converted before their migration from Ireland. From the school of theology established at Iona zealous missionaries were sent to Britain, Gaul, Germany, Helvetia and Italy.
- D'Aubigne's Remarks.** Says D'Aubigné: "The free church of the Scots and Britons did more for the conversion of Central Europe than the half-enslaved Church of Rome." The same writer says: "The sages of Iona knew nothing of transubstantiation, or of the withdrawal of the cup in the



Lord's Supper, or of auricular confession, or of prayers for the dead, or tapers, or incense. They celebrated Easter on a different day from Rome. Synodal assemblies regulated the affairs of the Church, and the papal supremacy was unknown."

The Angles of Northumberland were converted to Christianity in the seventh century. Oswald, King of Northumbria, extended his conquests beyond the Friths of Forth and Clyde; and his son and successor, Oswin, reduced the Scots to tribute; but the Angles were routed in the next reign, their king was slain, and the Picts and Scots recovered their independence.

**North-umbrian Conquests in Scotland.**

In 843 KENNETH MACALPIN, King of the Scots, reduced the Angles, or English, north of Adrian's Wall under his dominion. He also extended his authority over the Picts, and thus founded the *Kingdom of Scotland*.

**Kingdom of Scotland.**

The reigns of Kenneth's brother DONALD (A. D. 854-858) and his son CONSTANTINE I. (A. D. 858-874) were passed in struggles with the Northmen, who ravaged Scotland, as well as England and Ireland. Harald Fairhair, King of Norway, conquered the Orkney and the Shetland Isles. A Danish chief named Cyric, or Grig, seized the throne of Scotland and reigned eighteen years.

**The Northmen in Scotland.**

CONSTANTINE II., the great-grandson of Kenneth MacAlpin, reigned over Scotland from A. D. 900 to 943. He placed his kingdom under the protection of Edward the Elder, King of England. In 937 he joined the Danes in an effort to recover Northumberland, from which they had been driven by the English king Athelstan, but the allies were beaten by the English in the bloody battle of Brunanburgh. Constantine II. abdicated in 943, and became a monk in the monastery of St. Andrews.

**Constantine II. and His Defeat in England.**

MALCOLM I. was the next King of Scotland (A. D. 944-954). He obtained the Kingdom of Strathclyde from the English king as a fief. During the reign of INDUFF (A. D. 954-961), Edinburgh, or Edwin's Burgh, founded by King Edwin of Northumberland, came into the possession of the Scots. The reigns of DUFF, COLIN, KENNETH II., CONSTANTINE III. and KENNETH III. were passed in wars with the Kingdom of Strathclyde or with their own rebellious subjects, and all of them died in battle.

**Malcolm I. and Strathclyde.**

MALCOLM II. (A. D. 1003-1033), the grandson of Malcolm I., was the last of the dynasty of Kenneth MacAlpin. He wrested Lothian from the Earl of Northumberland in 1018, and annexed it to Scotland. In 1031 Malcolm II. acknowledged Canute the Great, King of England and Denmark, as his suzerain. Malcolm II. died in 1034, transmitting the Scottish crown to his grandson DUNCAN, after having caused the legitimate heir, grandson of Kenneth III., to be murdered.

**Malcolm II. and Lothian.**

**Duncan.**

**His  
Defeat  
and Death  
by  
Macbeth.**

Gruach, the murdered prince's sister, was married to Macbeth, Earl of Moray, one of the most powerful of the Scottish chiefs. Duncan took the field against the rebellious Highland clans. Macbeth determined to avenge the murder of his brother-in-law, and now attacked Duncan in his province and defeated him in battle, and afterward killed him, A. D. 1040.

**Mac-  
beth's  
Good  
Reign.**

MACBETH then made himself King of Scotland, and reigned seventeen years (A. D. 1040-1057). He governed with firmness and wisdom, and Scotland prospered under his rule. He and his queen were very kind to the poor, and sent alms to the poor at Rome. Crinan,

**His Sons.**

Abbot of Dunkeld, Duncan's father, instigated Siward, Earl of Northumberland, to take up the cause of Malcolm and Donald Bane, Duncan's sons. Macbeth was driven from the Scottish throne, but recovered it immediately after Siward's withdrawal. Siward again invaded Scotland some years later in behalf of Duncan's sons, whereupon a struggle of four years followed, ending in Macbeth's defeat and death in the battle of Lumphanan, in Aberdeenshire, A. D. 1057.

**His  
Defeat  
and  
Death.**

**Malcolm  
Canmore.**

MALCOLM III., CANMORE, "the Great Head," then became King of Scotland. The Norman Conquest of England drove many Anglo-Saxons into Scotland, and these were kindly welcomed by Malcolm Canmore. Among these English refugees were Edgar Atheling, his mother and his two sisters, Margaret and Christina. Immediately after the Norman Conquest of England, Malcolm Canmore had sent in his nominal homage to William the Conqueror. The Scottish king now espoused the cause of Edgar Atheling as the rightful King of England, and made a bloody raid into England, in the districts of Cleveland and Durham. Soon afterwards Malcolm Canmore married Edgar Atheling's sister Margaret.

**His Raid  
into  
England.**

**His  
Submis-  
sion to  
William  
the  
Con-  
queror.**

In 1072 William the Conqueror invaded Scotland with an Anglo-Norman fleet and army to chastise Malcolm Canmore for his raid into England. The Norman King of England advanced as far as Abernethy, on the Tay, where Malcolm Canmore met him and did homage to him as his vassal, and placed his son Duncan, the child of his first wife, in William's hands as a hostage for his good behavior.

**His  
Second  
Raid into  
England.**

When William the Conqueror was absent in Normandy several years afterward, Malcolm Canmore made another raid into England, ravaging the country as far as the Tyne. William's eldest son, Robert, marched towards the Scottish border to repel this invasion, but the matter was settled by negotiation between Malcolm Canmore and Robert.

**His Third  
and  
Fourth  
Raids  
into  
England.**

In 1092, during the reign of William Rufus in England, Malcolm Canmore invaded England a third time. The English king marched into Scotland, and Malcolm Canmore averted his wrath by renewing his homage as a vassal monarch of the English sovereign. As William

Rufus failed to fulfill his part of the agreement, Malcolm Canmore invaded England a fourth time in 1093, with a powerful Scottish army, but was defeated and slain in a battle at Alnwick Castle. His son and heir, Edward, also perished on this fatal field. Malcolm Canmore's queen, Margaret, died of grief upon hearing of the death of her husband and son. She had used her influence over her husband to reform many abuses in the kingdom, and had introduced more refinement and civilization into Scotland than the Scots had ever known before.

His  
Defeat  
and  
Death.

DONALD BANE, Malcolm Canmore's brother, was elected King of Scotland by the chiefs of the Scottish clans. Duncan, Malcolm Canmore's eldest son, who had been kept in England as a hostage, induced the English king to aid him with an army to recover the Scottish throne, which he promised to hold as a vassal of the English crown. With this aid DUNCAN drove Donald Bane from the Scottish throne and reigned for a few months, A. D. 1094.

Donald  
Bane.

Duncan.

Donald Bane, aided by Edmund, Malcolm Canmore's eldest surviving son by his marriage with Margaret, renewed the civil war, defeated Duncan, put him to death, and exiled the other members of his family. Donald Bane then reigned three years (A. D. 1094-1097), at the end of which he was defeated by an English army under Edgar Atheling, who placed his nephew EDGAR upon the throne of Scotland, and put out Donald Bane's eyes and cast him into prison. Edmund took refuge in an English monastery, where he died.

His Over-  
throw and  
Death.

Donald  
Bane's  
Over-  
throw.

Edgar, who was the son of Malcolm Canmore and Margaret, carried out the reforms commenced by his mother; and during his reign the people of the Lowlands of Scotland generally adopted the Anglo-Saxon civilization, and the old Celtic customs disappeared. This change in the customs and manners of the Southern Scots widely separated them from the real Scots of the Highlands, who thenceforth were considered the natural enemies of law and order, and the perpetual disturbers of the peace and prosperity of the Scottish kingdom.

Edgar.

The Low-  
landers  
and High-  
landers.

Edgar reigned over Scotland ten years (A. D. 1097-1107). In the early part of his reign, Magnus Barefoot, King of Norway, seized the Orkneys and the Scandinavian earldom on the mainland of Scotland, placing them under the government of his own son, Sigurd; after which he invaded and ravaged the Hebrides. At the death of Magnus Barefoot the Orkneys and the Hebrides again fell into the possession of the Scots. The chiefs of these islands, called *Lords of the Isles*, thenceforth had a convenient way of declaring themselves vassals of the Kings of Norway whenever they desired to evade their feudal obligations to the Kings of Scotland.

Nor-  
wegian  
Invasion  
of the  
Orkneys  
and  
Hebrides.

The Lords  
of the  
Isles.

During Edgar's entire reign the relations between Scotland and England were friendly, and Edgar's sister Edith was married to King

Edgar's  
Sister  
Edith.

Henry I. of England. She took the Norman name of Matilda, or Maud, and was very much beloved by her husband and by the English people. On his death-bed, in 1107, Edgar separated Strathclyde from the rest of the dominions of the Kingdom of Scotland, bestowing it upon his brother David.

Alex-  
ander I.  
and His  
Triumph  
over  
Rebels.

Edgar was succeeded on the throne of Scotland by his brother, ALEXANDER I., a man of great energy and of strong, unyielding will. He was involved in constant trouble with his unruly subjects by his efforts to govern them. In the early part of his reign Alexander I. was confronted by a formidable revolt of the men of Merne and Moray. Alexander I. promptly marched against the rebels and defeated them in a battle on the northern shore of the Frith of Moray. He took a bloody vengeance on the rebels, and founded the Abbey of Scone to commemorate his victory.

Alex-  
ander I.  
and the  
Arch-  
bishop  
of York.

Alexander I. vigorously maintained the independence of the Church of Scotland against the Archbishop of York, who claimed ecclesiastical jurisdiction over the entire Kingdom of Scotland. Alexander I. would not permit any appeal to the Pope, and refused to listen for a moment to any claim of the Northern Metropolitan of England to ecclesiastical authority in Scotland.

David I.  
and the  
Moray  
Rebell-  
ion.

Alexander I. died in 1124, and, as he was childless, his brother, DAVID I., ascended the Scottish throne; whereupon Strathclyde again became a part of the Scottish kingdom. In the early part of David's reign a rebellion broke out in Moray, but it was suppressed by the king, with the assistance of some Norman knights whom he had gathered about him when he was Prince of Strathclyde. He declared Moray forfeited, and divided it among his Norman knights.

David I.  
and the  
Civil  
War in  
England.

David I. took part in the civil war in England between his niece Matilda and Stephen of Blois, in behalf of his niece. Stephen forced the Scottish king to retire from the struggle. David I. would not violate his oath of fealty to Matilda, but evaded it by investing his son Henry with the Honor of Huntingdon, an English barony which he had previously held. The English king conferred Carlisle and Doncaster on Prince Henry, who went to London with Stephen, and took precedence of the English barons at Stephen's court. Jealous of this honor to the Scottish prince, the English barons left Stephen's court in a body. David I. resented this insult by recalling his son to Scotland and preparing to invade England.

His  
Defeats in  
England.

In 1138 David I. ravaged the northern counties of England, but was defeated by the English in the great Battle of the Standard, at North Allerton. Peace was concluded at Durham the next year. David's son Henry was invested with the English earldom of Northumberland. In 1141 David I. again took up arms in Matilda's behalf, and was al-

most taken prisoner when her army was defeated in the battle of Winchester.

David I. was one of Scotland's greatest, as well as one of her best kings. He labored to promote the welfare of his subjects at home, and firmly upheld the honor and renown of Scotland abroad. He steadily promoted the civilization of Scotland, introduced many foreign manners and customs, and induced many Norman barons to settle in his kingdom and granted them estates. He was a warm friend of the commons, and promoted the growth of the Scottish towns, conferring many important privileges upon them. He was always accessible to the poorest of his subjects, patiently listened to their complaints, and promptly redressed their grievances.

His  
Great and  
Good  
Reign.

David I. founded Holyrood palace, and made Edinburgh the Scottish capital. He founded many abbeys, and also the bishoprics of Dunblane, Brechin, Aberdeen, Ross, Caithness and Glasgow. He also made many reforms in the government of the Church in Scotland. During his reign Scotland made wonderful progress in civilization, wealth and fertility. His last years were rendered sad by the death of his only son, Prince Henry, who was greatly beloved by the Scottish nation. David I. died in 1153, after a reign of twenty-nine years.

Holyrood  
and Edin-  
burgh.

Reforms  
and  
Civiliza-  
tion.

MALCOLM IV., the eldest son of Prince Henry, became King of Scotland upon his illustrious grandfather's death. He was less than twelve years of age at his accession, but the principle of hereditary succession had gained such a foothold in Scotland that his accession was generally acquiesced in. When he was nineteen years old a rebellion broke out in Galloway, but was suppressed, and that district was reduced to direct dependence on the Scottish crown. Several years afterward the Lord of Argyle revolted against the Scottish king, but was slain by treachery, and his estates were annexed to the royal territories. But Henry II. of England forced Malcolm IV. to relinquish the sovereignty of the northern English counties which David I. had held. Malcolm IV. was then invested with the Honor of Huntingdon, as a fief of the English crown.

Malcolm  
IV.

Revolts  
Sup-  
pressed.

Malcolm IV. died in 1165, and was succeeded on the Scottish throne by his brother WILLIAM THE LION, whose reign is the longest in Scottish history, lasting almost half a century (A. D. 1165-1214). At the beginning of his reign William the Lion demanded that Henry II. of England should restore to him the earldom of Northumberland, which his father had held and which his brother had lost. Henry II. refused to grant it, whereupon William the Lion invaded England while the English king was absent in France, and overran a large part of the northern English counties; but the Scottish king was taken prisoner with several of his chief nobles near Alnwick Castle in the summer of

William  
the Lion.

His  
Invasion  
of  
England.

Defeat  
and  
Captivity.

1174, and was thereupon sent into captivity to the Castle of Falaise, in Normandy.

His  
Release  
and  
Vassalage  
to  
Henry II.  
of  
England.

At the end of the year William the Lion was released, upon agreeing to hold the Scottish crown as a vassal of the English monarch, and requiring his nobles and clergy to do homage to the same king. The chief strongholds of Scotland were garrisoned with English troops, and William the Lion and his nobles and clergy did homage to Henry II. of England at York as their feudal lord. This humiliating treaty remained in force until the death of Henry II. in 1189.

His  
Relations  
with  
Richard  
the Lion-  
hearted  
and John  
of  
England.

Richard the Lion-hearted, the next King of England, released William the Lion from his obligations and restored the Scottish castles upon the payment of a ransom of ten thousand marks; but he refused to restore the earldom of Northumberland to the Scottish king. When John became King of England, William the Lion did such homage as the Scottish kings had formerly paid to the King of England for their fiefs in that kingdom. The two kings thoroughly distrusted each other; and for several years William the Lion was under the necessity of keeping a considerable force on the border to protect Berwick, the largest trading town of Scotland, from King John's efforts to ruin its commerce.

Claims  
of the  
Arch-  
bishop  
of York.

In 1176 the Archbishop of York again claimed ecclesiastical jurisdiction over Scotland. The Scottish clergy appealed to Pope Clement III., who confirmed their claim of independence in 1188, and declared Scotland subject to the Holy See only in matters of religion. During the captivity of William the Lion a formidable revolt had broken out in Galloway, but had been suppressed by his nephew Roland, who was confirmed in the possession of the district.

Revolt in  
Gallo-  
way.

Alex-  
ander II.

William the Lion died at Stirling in 1214, and was succeeded on the throne of Scotland by his only son, ALEXANDER II. Alexander II. took part in the civil war in England between King John and his barons, espousing the cause of the barons, in the hope of recovering the earldom of Northumberland. The Scottish king received the homage of the barons of the North of England, united his forces with theirs, and marched to Dover to welcome and do homage to Prince Louis of France, whom the English barons had invited to come to England and assume the English crown. The struggle was ended by King John's death in 1216 and the acceptance of his son Henry III. as their king by the English barons.

Aids the  
English  
Barons  
against  
King  
John.

His  
Homage  
to  
Henry III.  
of  
England.

Alexander II. did homage to Henry III. of England in 1217, and was invested with the Honor of Huntingdon. In 1221 the Scottish king married the Princess Joanna, the sister of the King of England. This marriage was followed by a peace of almost a century between Scotland and England. Alexander II. consented to renounce his claim to the earldom of Northumberland in return for a grant of the lands

of Penrith and Tynedale. The relations between the Scottish and English kings were so cordial that when Henry III. of England went to France he left the border under the protection of Alexander II. In 1222 the two kings appointed a joint commission to settle the boundary between Scotland and England. The result of their labors was the boundary line which still divides the two countries. A wide district on both sides was left as a neutral ground.

Present  
Boundary  
Estab-  
lished.

Alexander II. died in 1249, while engaged in an expedition against the Hebrides, and was succeeded as King of Scotland by his son, ALEXANDER III., who was then only eight years of age. Alexander III. was solemnly crowned at Scone, and was married to the Princess Margaret, the daughter of King Henry III. of England, at York, on Christmas day, A. D. 1251. On this occasion Alexander III. did homage to the English monarch for the lands which he held in England. Henry III. demanded that the Scottish king should also do homage for Scotland, but Alexander III. evaded this by declaring that he must consult the Scottish lords on a question of such importance.

Alex-  
ander III.

His  
Relations  
with  
Henry III.  
of  
England.

In 1278 Alexander III. went to Westminster to do homage to Edward I. of England. Edward I. renewed the claim of Henry III. to the homage of the King of Scotland, but Alexander III. refused to acknowledge the English king's claim. Edward I. forbore to enforce his claim then.

With  
Edward I.  
of  
England.

In 1262 Hakon IV., King of Norway, with a large fleet, attempted the conquest of the Orkneys and the Hebrides, after which he ravaged the western coast of Scotland. The Norwegians gained no permanent advantages in this expedition; but in 1281 Margaret, the eldest daughter of the Scottish king, was married to Erik, the heir to the crown of Norway. Margaret died two years afterward, leaving a daughter also named Margaret. Alexander, the only son of the Scottish king, died several months afterward; whereupon the infant Margaret, the *Maid of Norway*, became the heir to the crown of Scotland. Alexander III. was killed by a fall from his horse in 1286.

Nor-  
wegian  
Invasion  
of  
Scotland.

The  
Maid of  
Norway.

The second period of Scottish history ended with the death of Alexander III. This period commenced with the dethronement of Donald Bane, the last Celtic King of Scotland, almost two centuries before; and during that period the boundary of Scotland had been extended by the annexation of Argyle and of the Isles, while the two dependencies of Galloway and Lothian had been more closely drawn to the Scottish kingdom, though they yet remained separate and distinct.

End of  
Scot-  
land's  
Second  
Period.

During this period the influence of England, though peaceable, had been stronger in Scotland than it was ever to be afterward. English laws and English customs had been introduced into Scotland, and had taken the place of the old Celtic usages in many cases. The old Celtic

English  
Influence  
in  
Scotland.

The  
Sheriffs  
of  
Scotland.

*Maers* had been removed to give place to the sheriffs of the Scottish crown; but, as Scotland was not divided into counties, the sheriffs in Scotland were not, like those in England, the reeves of the already existing shires, being officers placed over certain districts by the king. These districts, or sheriffdoms, became the Scottish counties of later times.

Feudal-  
ism and  
Norman  
Baronage  
in  
Scotland.

Feudalism, after the Norman model, with all its burdensome exactions and oppressions, had been introduced into Scotland, and had taken firmer root in that kingdom than it ever did in England. The native chiefs of Scotland had been displaced by foreign nobles, and thus a purely Norman baronage had come into possession of the Scottish lands, whether occupied by a Celtic or an Anglo-Saxon peasantry. In some cases the Norman landlords founded feudal families afterward known under Celtic names, as the Normans took the names which the Celts had given to the lands and adopted them as their own.

Social  
Progress  
in  
Scotland.

The long peace between Scotland and England, which remained unbroken for almost a century, had been marked by great social progress in Scotland. The large proportion of land now under tillage proves that agriculture must have thriven during this troubled time. Roads and bridges were numerous and in good repair, while the trading towns had made great progress in wealth and power. Hitherto no town had taken its place distinctly as the capital of Scotland. Perth, or St. John's Town, had some claim to the first rank because of its connection with Scone; but the Scottish king held his court or his assize indifferently at any of the great royal burghs.

Perth and  
the Royal  
Burghs.

Freedom  
of the  
Burghers.

These burghs were of great importance in the Scottish kingdom; and, as the burghesses of the royal burghs were all vassals of the Scottish crown, they acted as some sort of a check upon the increasing power of the nobles. The burghers possessed the right to govern themselves by their own laws, and were divided into two groups. Those north of the Frith of Forth were united by a league like the Hanse towns of Continental Europe, and were known by the same name; while those in Lothian, represented by the four leading towns among them—Edinburgh, Roxburgh, Berwick and Stirling—held their *Court of the Four Burghs*, still represented by the *Convention of Royal Burghs*, which convenes once a year at Edinburgh. Thus one institution of mediæval, or feudal Scotland still remains as a relic and remnant of the glory of a former age.

Court  
of the  
Four  
Burghs.

Berwick  
and  
Inver-  
ness.

None of the Scottish towns were in any way behind the cities of Continental Europe. Berwick, the richest and the greatest, was said to rival London. Inverness was celebrated for shipbuilding. A ship built there aroused the envy and wonder of the French nobles of that time.



But this condition of things was ended by the death of Alexander III.; and the long period of war and misery that ensued did much to wipe out every vestige of the high degree of civilization and prosperity that had been reached in that golden age of Scottish history.

Within the month following the death of Alexander III. the Scottish estates assembled at Scone and appointed a council of six regents to govern the Scottish kingdom for Margaret, the Maid of Norway, who was then only three years of age, and who had succeeded her grandfather on the throne of Scotland. Robert Bruce, a Norman baron, whose ancestors had settled in Annandale in the preceding century, attempted to seize the Scottish crown by force. He was the son of Isabella, the second daughter of David, Earl of Huntingdon, the brother of William the Lion. He appealed to Edward I. of England, as lord-paramount of Scotland, to sustain his claim.

The Scottish estates opposed Robert Bruce; and a treaty was negotiated with the King of England for the marriage of Margaret, the Maid of Norway, with the son and heir of the English sovereign. In this treaty it was stipulated that Scotland should remain a distinct and separate kingdom, and that England should respect her independence after the union of the English and Scottish crowns by the proposed marriage. The death of Margaret in 1290, while on her way from Norway to Scotland, broke off the arrangement.

The dynasty founded by William the Lion ended with Margaret's death. Several claimants for the crown of Scotland now appeared, who based their claims upon their descent from David, Earl of Huntingdon. The two principal ones were Robert Bruce and John Baliol, the latter of whom was the grandson of David's daughter Margaret. Both appealed to Edward I. of England, who decided in favor of Baliol, on condition that he should do homage to the English monarch for his crown; and near the end of 1292 Baliol was crowned at Scone as King JOHN of Scotland.

The English king had just conquered Wales, and ardently desired to unite the whole island of Great Britain under the English dominion. Immediately after his coronation John Baliol summoned the Scottish estates, now for the first time called a Parliament, to meet at Scone. Baliol was a weak, incompetent sovereign, and his subjects generally considered him a mere instrument of the King of England.

Roger Bartholomew, a burgess of Berwick, dissatisfied with an unfavorable decision of a Scottish court, appealed to Edward I. of England, who ordered a hearing of the case before an English council at Newcastle, thus directly violating his treaty with Scotland, but he forced the vassal King of Scotland to submit to it. Several months afterward Macduff, the granduncle of the Earl of Fife, appealed to

Subsequent Misery and Adversity.

Regency for the Maid of Norway.

Robert Bruce of Annandale.

Royal Marriage and Union of English and Scottish Crowns.

John Baliol and Robert Bruce.

Decision of Edward I. of England.

Baliol and the Scottish Parliament.

Scottish Appeals to Edward I.

**Baliol's Defiance.** the King of England from a decision of the estates concerning the lands of the families of Bruce and Douglas. Edward I. summoned Baliol to appear before the English Parliament, but even the submissive King of Scotland revolted against so abject a surrender of his country's freedom.

**His Alliance with France and Norway.** The English monarch thereupon declared Baliol a contumacious vassal, and ordered him to surrender three of the principal fortresses of Scotland into his hands until he should give satisfaction. Baliol replied by entering into an alliance with King Philip the Fair of France and King Erik II. of Norway against Edward I. of England. Baliol was heartily supported in this action by the nobles and people of Scotland. Thenceforth until the Reformation Scotland was the faithful ally of France. Immediately after the conclusion of this alliance a Scottish army crossed the border and ravaged the northern counties of England.

**Scottish Raid into England.**

**English Victories in Scotland.** Having thus the pretext for the conquest of Scotland, for which he had long been watching, Edward I. immediately led a large English army into Scotland and inflicted a punishment upon the citizens of Berwick. He then defeated the Scots at Dunbar, A. D. 1296, besieged and took Edinburgh Castle, seized the crown jewels of Scotland, captured Stirling and Perth, and took the Stone of Destiny from Scone and sent it to Westminster Abbey, where it still remains.

**First English Conquest of Scotland.**

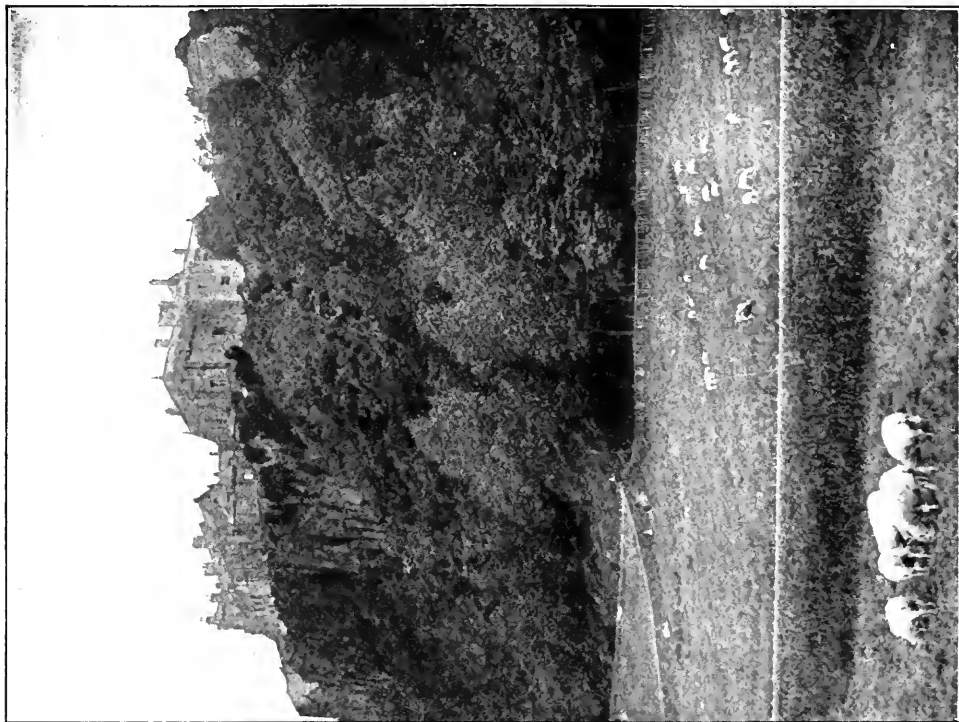
**Baliol's Captivity and Exile.**

**Scotland under English Rule.**

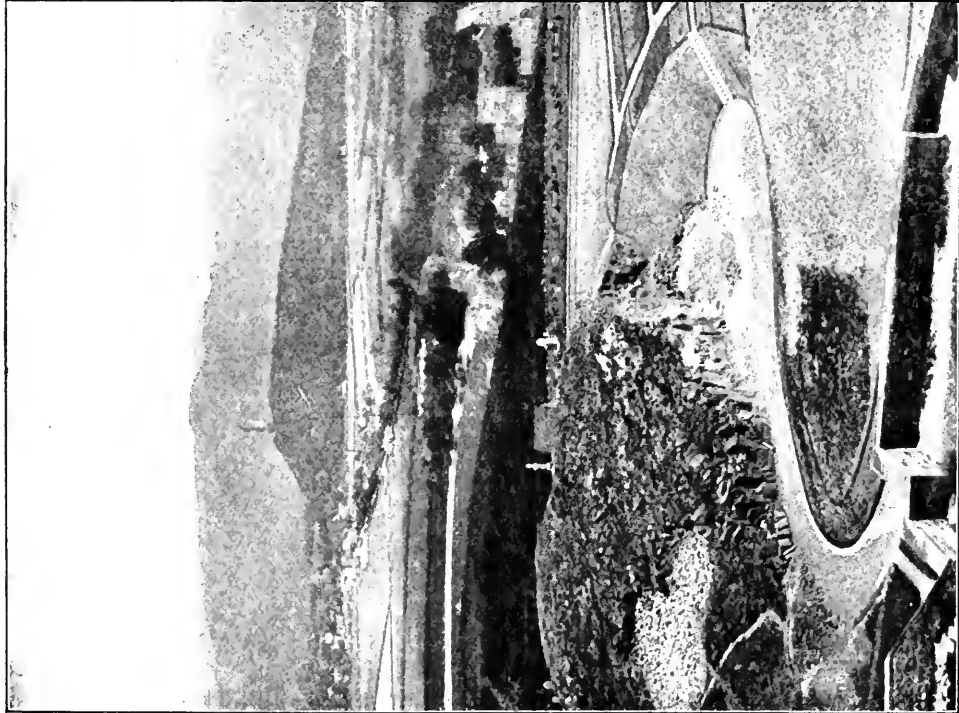
As the Scots had regarded that sacred stone as in some way connected with their country's destiny they considered its capture a national misfortune. The English king marched as far north as Elgin and returned to Berwick in 1296, having thoroughly subdued Scotland. John Baliol was compelled to surrender his crown, and was sent a prisoner to England. He was afterward permitted to retire to his estate in the county of Picardy, in France, where he died in 1315.

The Scottish nobles were forced to swear fealty to Edward I. of England, who treated Scotland as a confiscated fief. All the Scottish castles were garrisoned with English troops. The Scots were not allowed to hold any important offices, and were treated with great severity. Scotland was governed by English officials, as an integral portion of the English kingdom. The Earl of Warrenne and Surrey was appointed guardian of Scotland, and administered the government in the English king's name. The Highlanders, who had not been directly molested by Edward I., paid no attention to the change in the government of Scotland, and the Norman nobles quietly accepted it; but English tyranny soon produced a Scottish revolt.

William Wallace, a gentleman of Clydesdale, killed an English officer who had inflicted a grievous injury upon him, and escaped to the woods, calling on his countrymen to assist him to liberate Scotland from



STIRLING CASTLE



WALLACE MONUMENT AND STIRLING BATTLEFIELD

*From Stereographs, copyright 1905 by Underwood & Underwood*



English rule, A. D. 1297. With a band of devoted followers, he cut to pieces the English garrison at Lanark, and killed Heselrig, the newly appointed Sheriff of Ayr. After other successes, he attacked Scone, where Warrenne's justiciary, Ormesby, was holding his court. Ormesby escaped, but Wallace captured many prisoners and much booty. Wallace next attacked Glasgow, compelling Anthony Beck, Bishop of Durham, to take flight to England. All the English officials, except those in the fortified places, now abandoned their posts and fled into England.

Revolt  
and  
Successes  
of  
William  
Wallace.

Wallace, whose successes had again aroused the spirit of Scotland, was now joined by Lord William Douglas and Robert Bruce, Earl of Carrick, a grandson of the Robert Bruce who had been John Baliol's competitor for the Scottish crown; but the Scottish nobles looked upon Wallace's movement with coldness, and when an English army under Lord Percy marched into Scotland in the summer of 1297 they renewed their allegiance to Edward I.

Lord  
William  
Douglas  
and  
Robert  
Bruce.

Lord Percy soon retired to England, believing the Scottish outbreak over; but Wallace again took the field at the head of many Lowlanders. He soon made himself master of the fortresses north of the Tay. Earl Warrenne marched against him with forty thousand men, but was utterly routed at Stirling, September 11, 1297; Cressingham, the English treasurer of Scotland, being among the slain, and his body being flayed by the Scots, who made saddles and girths of the skin. Warrenne retreated into England, and Wallace crossed the border and ravaged the northern counties of England with great cruelty, carrying much plunder with him to Scotland. All the strongholds south of the Frith of Forth came into the possession of the Scots, and Wallace was made guardian of Scotland.

Wallace's  
Continued  
Suc-  
cesses.

His  
Victory at  
Stirling.

His Raid  
into  
England.

Edward I., who had been absent in Flanders, now returned to England, led almost a hundred thousand men into Scotland, and defeated Wallace at Falkirk in 1298. Wallace now resigned the guardianship of Scotland, and the English monarch returned to Carlisle. Edward I. reduced the Northern Lowlands to submission in 1303. Edward I. granted an amnesty to all the Scottish leaders except Wallace, who was required to submit unconditionally to the English king's clemency. Wallace, who had been absent in Continental Europe since the battle of Falkirk, now returned to Scotland; but was soon afterward betrayed to Edward I. by his trusted friend, Sir John Monteith, and was taken to London, where he was hanged as a traitor. The Scots have always honored him as a martyr to their cause, and his memory is still cherished as the greatest of Scottish heroes.

His  
Defeat at  
Falkirk.

Second  
English  
Conquest  
of  
Scotland.

Wallace's  
Captivity  
and  
Execution  
in  
England.

The English were now supreme in Scotland, and that kingdom was governed by a lieutenant of the King of England, aided by a council

**Scotland again under English Rule.** of barons and bishops. Scotland was allowed a representation by ten deputies in the English Parliament, and English officials were appointed in every department of the Scottish government. Edward I. sought to conciliate the Scots to English rule by just treatment, but he was unable to suppress the natural longings of the Scots for national independence.

**Scottish Revolt under Robert Bruce.** Scottish discontent soon produced another revolt. Robert Bruce, Earl of Carrick, who had taken part in Wallace's insurrections, had been pardoned by the English monarch and received into his favor. Bruce intended to renew the effort for his country's liberation, and when Edward I. discovered his plotting for that purpose he was obliged to save himself by flight from the English court.

**His Murder of John Comyn.** Bruce hastened to Scotland, and murdered his rival, John Comyn of Badenoch, who opposed his plans, in an interview in the Grey Friars' Church at Dumfries, being aided in the act by Sir Roger Kirkpatrick. By this act, combining murder and sacrilege, Bruce aroused the vengeance of the English king and the Church. But it made him the legitimate heir of the Scottish throne, thus arousing the sympathy and support of his countrymen, who were very restless under the English yoke. Bruce at once put forward his claims, and was solemnly crowned King of Scotland at Scone, March 27, 1306, with the royal title of ROBERT I.

**Bruce Outlawed and Excommunicated.** Edward I. made vigorous preparations to crush this new Scottish outbreak, and made Aymer de Valence governor of Scotland. King Robert Bruce was declared a traitor, and was excommunicated by a special bull from the Pope, while all who had aided him were punished with great severity as fast as they fell into the power of the English. **Execution of Scottish Nobles.** Nigel Bruce, Robert's brother; Christopher Seton, his brother-in-law; and three other Scottish nobles, were executed. The execution of these leaders contributed much to alienate the nobles of Scotland from the English dominion, and to induce them to second the efforts of the Scottish people.

**Death of Edward I.** Edward I. led an army of a hundred thousand men northward for a third invasion of Scotland, but died at Burgh-on-the-Sands, July 7, 1307. His son and successor, Edward II., disregarded his father's dying injunction to prosecute the war for the subjugation of Scotland, and abandoned the struggle and disbanded his army, thus giving Scotland several years to prepare for the decisive blow for her deliverance.

**Retreat of Edward II.** As King Robert I. was not acknowledged by the whole Scottish nation, his prospects were so desperate for several years that he was a wanderer and an outlaw. During this time he maintained an irregular warfare with the English, in which he very much increased his reputation for good generalship and personal bravery. His principal ene-

**Robert Bruce's Desperate Fortunes.**

mies were the Earl of Buchan and Macdougall of Lorn, who had been gained over to the English interests.

At length Bruce was obliged to seek refuge in the island of Rachrin, off the northern coast of Ireland. According to a tradition, he had almost resolved to give up the struggle in Scotland. As he lay in bed one morning in the hut in which he had found shelter he observed a spider vainly endeavoring to throw its web across from beam to beam in the roof above him. The insect failed in six attempts. Said Bruce to himself: "Six times have I failed in my efforts against the English." He watched with renewed interest to see if the spider would repeat the effort. Said he: "If it does, I will take it as an encouragement to try again." To his delight, the spider made another effort and succeeded.

Robert  
Bruce  
and the  
Spider.

Greatly encouraged, Bruce returned to Scotland, joined some of his followers in the isle of Arran, and passed over to the mainland. He had a small force, and was confronted with many perils. He bore his trials manfully, and infused his patience and hopefulness into his followers, whose numbers increased slowly; and he finally defeated his old foe, the Earl of Buchan, near Inverary; after which he ravaged the lands of the Earl of Buchan with fire and sword.

His  
Renewed  
Warfare.

Bruce's cause steadily gained ground, and the Scottish clergy soon acknowledged him as their king, thus virtually relieving him of the ban of excommunication. This was a great gain for him. The Scottish strongholds came into his possession one by one, until finally Stirling was the only post in Scotland remaining in the possession of the English, and even that place was so hard pressed that the governor agreed to surrender it if not relieved by the day of the Feast of St. John the Baptist, in 1314. Edward II. of England led an army of a hundred thousand men into Scotland to the relief of Stirling, but was utterly routed by thirty thousand Scots under Bruce at Bannockburn, within sight of Stirling, June 24, 1314. The English king and his army fled to their own country, and the independence of Scotland was virtually secured.

His  
Suc-  
cesses.

Battle of  
Bannock-  
burn.

"Scots who have with Wallace bled,  
Scots whom Bruce has often led,  
Welcome to your gory bed,  
Or to glorious victory."

During this period Lord James Douglas, the son of the Douglas who had sustained Wallace, achieved so many victories over the English that his name became a terror to them. He was called the "Black Douglas," from his swarthy complexion and his black hair, to distinguish him from the "Red Douglas."

The  
"Black  
Doug-  
las."

**Edward Bruce's Invasion of Ireland.** Although the battle of Bannockburn virtually established the independence of Scotland, England still refused to acknowledge that independence, and the struggle went on, producing much suffering to the borders of both kingdoms. Edward Bruce, Robert's brother, invaded Ireland and tried to wrest that dependency from the crown of England. With Robert's assistance, Edward Bruce was crowned King of Ireland at Carrickfergus, but was defeated at Athenree, August 10, 1316, and was finally defeated and killed at Dundalk in 1318, thus ending this effort to liberate Ireland from English rule, King Robert Bruce having in the meantime returned to Scotland.

**Battles of Dundalk and Athenree.** In the meantime war between the English and the Scots went on along the border. The Scots recovered Berwick and held it against all the efforts of the English to recapture it. In 1328 the long struggle was ended by the Treaty of Northampton, by which England formally acknowledged the independence of Scotland, and Kings Robert I. and Edward II. pledged themselves to be faithful allies and to refrain from instigating each other's subjects to rebellion. Edward's sister Joan was betrothed to Robert's infant son, David Bruce.

**Recovery of Berwick.** The Treaty of Northampton did away with all former Scottish submissions to England, and Lothian and Strathclyde became wholly independent of England and integral portions of Scotland. The struggle for Scottish independence tended to the consolidation of all the hitherto discordant races in the Scottish kingdom, and thus to develop a feeling of nationality among the Scottish people, making them a united and compact nation.

**Treaty of Northampton.** A less fortunate result of the struggle was the deep-rooted hatred of England and everything English that had grown up among all classes of Scots—a feeling which drove the Scots into an alliance with France, which shaped the future destiny of Scotland. King Robert I. entered into a treaty with France by which he bound himself to invade England whenever France should declare war against that kingdom.

**Scottish Consolidation and Nationality.** In 1318 the Scottish Parliament settled the succession to the Scottish crown—first, on the direct male heirs, in the order of seniority; next, on the direct female heirs; and, in case of the failure of both the direct lines, on the next of kin. This Parliament likewise forbade the holders of Scottish estates residing in England from taking any produce or revenues of those lands out of the Scottish kingdom. This was done in order to force the landholders of Scotland to be Scots only. The Scottish Parliament of 1326 admitted representatives from the burghs, and acknowledged the Third Estate, or the commons, as an essential part of the Scottish Parliament.

**Alliance of Scotland and France.** King Robert I. died at Cardross in 1329, and was greatly mourned by the Scottish nation. His only son, DAVID II., then only eight years

**The Scottish Parliament and Succession.**

**Third, Estate, or Commons.**

**David II. Crowned and Anointed.**



old, succeeded him on the throne of Scotland. David II. was crowned at Scone, and was likewise anointed, the latter ceremony being performed in Scotland for the first time, it being considered the exclusive right of independent sovereigns. Lord Randolph, a nephew of Robert Bruce, was made regent of Scotland during the young king's minority.

Lord  
Randolph,  
Regent.

In the early part of the reign of David II. the English barons who had been dispossessed of their estates in Scotland, by the law passed by the Scottish Parliament of 1318, invaded Scotland, with the avowed intention of placing Edward Baliol, son of John Baliol, on the throne of Scotland. In this emergency Lord Randolph died; whereupon Donald, Earl of Mar, also a nephew of Robert Bruce, was made regent of Scotland.

English  
Invasion.

Regency  
of  
Donald,  
Earl of  
Mar.

The English invaders landed on the coast of Fife and defeated the Scottish army under the regent Donald, who was killed in the battle. The English victors then occupied Perth, and crowned EDWARD BALIOL King of Scotland at Scone, September 24, 1332. Edward Baliol acknowledged himself a vassal of King Edward III. of England.

His  
Defeat  
and  
Death.

Edward  
Baliol.

The Scots were so incensed at this English invasion that they made war on the English border counties, thus giving Edward III. of England a pretext for invading Scotland. He besieged Berwick in the spring of 1333. Archibald Douglas, the new regent of Scotland, marched to relieve the beleaguered town, but was defeated by the English king in the great battle of Halidon Hill, and Berwick was forced to capitulate to Edward III. Edward Baliol ceded Berwick to the English, and surrendered to them all the Scottish fortresses south of the Frith of Forth.

Scottish  
Border  
Raids.

Battle of  
Halidon  
Hill.

The war between Scotland and England continued three years longer with varying success. At length, when Edward III. of England was occupied with his war with France, the national party in Scotland, under Robert Stuart, the high steward of the Scottish kingdom, who became regent in 1338, recovered the Scottish fortresses which Edward Baliol had surrendered to the English king, and drove Edward Baliol from Scotland in 1341. David Bruce, and his wife, Joan of England, who had been sent to France to insure their safety, were immediately brought back to Scotland; and David at once resumed the government of his kingdom. A truce was concluded with England, and a period of peace ensued for five years, broken only by raids along the border.

Scottish  
Successes  
under  
Robert  
Stuart.

David  
Bruce's  
Restora-  
tion.

In 1346, when Edward III. of England was engaged in the siege of Calais, King David Bruce broke the truce in the interest of France by invading England; but he was defeated and taken prisoner in the battle of Neville's Cross, near Durham, October 10, 1346. He remained in captivity in England for eleven years, during which time Scotland was governed by the former regent, Robert Stuart, or the

His  
Invasion  
of  
England.

Battle of  
Neville's  
Cross.

David  
Bruce's  
Captivity  
and  
Ransom.

Steward. The Scots recovered Berwick, but again lost it. Upon returning from France, Edward III. of England marched with his army into Scotland as far as the Frith of Forth, the Scots retreating before him and devastating the country. David Bruce was released in 1357 upon the payment of a ransom of a hundred thousand marks.

Robert  
II., First  
of the  
Stuart  
Dynasty,  
A. D.  
1370-  
1390.

Upon the death of David Bruce in 1370, without children, Robert Stuart, or the Steward, became King ROBERT II. of Scotland; and thenceforth the Stuart dynasty occupied the Scottish throne. The office of Steward was hereditary, having descended from Walter Fitz-Alan, upon whom David I. had conferred it; and from this the family took the name of Stewart, or Stuart, by which it is known in Scottish history. The accession of Robert II. was undisputed.

English  
Invasion  
and  
Retreat.

The truce with England expired in 1385, whereupon Robert II. renewed the war with that kingdom. King Charles VI. of France sent two thousand troops, with arms and money, to his Scottish ally. Richard II. of England invaded Scotland and destroyed Melrose Abbey, while the Scots and their French allies ravaged the northern counties of England with fire and sword. Upon the English king's retreat from Scotland the French troops returned to their own country. A few years afterward the war between the Scots and the English was renewed on the border; and in August, 1388, the Scottish Earl of Douglas was slain in the hard-fought battle of Otterburn, in Northumberland—a combat so celebrated in the famous ballad of *Chevy Chase*. Peace was made between Scotland and England in 1389.

Battle of  
Otter-  
burn.

Robert  
III.,  
A. D.  
1390-  
1406.

King Robert II. died in 1390, and was succeeded on the throne of Scotland by his eldest son, ROBERT III. Robert III. was weak in mind and body, and the government of Scotland fell under the control of his brothers, the Duke of Albany and the Earl of Buchan. The Duke of Albany was the real ruler. Scotland was in a condition of anarchy, and lawless violence distracted the whole kingdom. The Scottish nobles and chieftains fought out their quarrels, and some of their combats assumed the proportion of battles. They also robbed and maltreated the peasants and burghers.

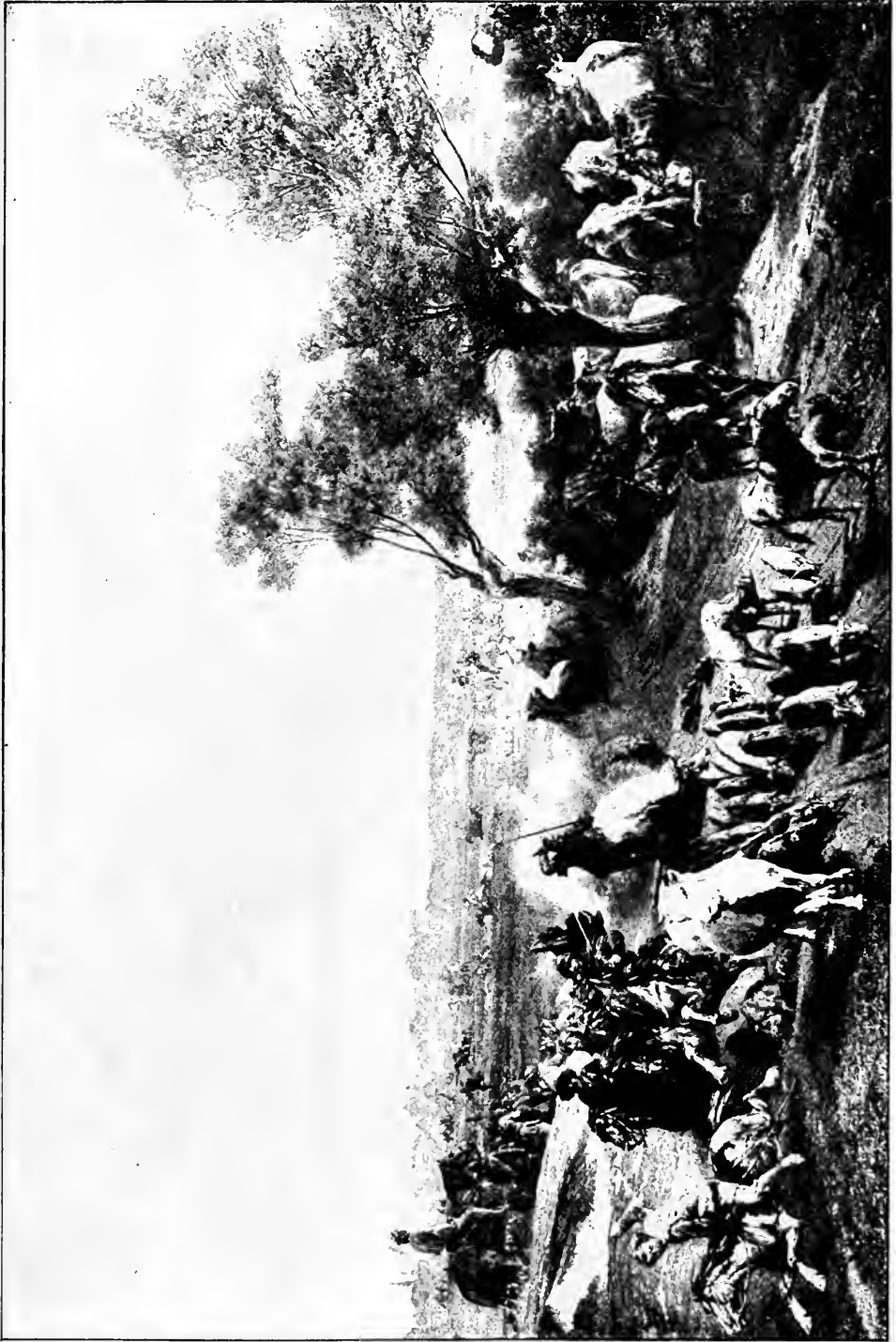
War with  
England.

In 1400 a border war broke out with England, in consequence of the English claim to the crown of Scotland by Henry IV. of England; and Archibald, Earl of Douglas, was defeated and taken prisoner in the battle of Homildon Hill, in 1402, by the English under the Earl of Northumberland and his son Henry Percy, Hotspur; but peace was made soon afterward.

Battle of  
Homildon  
Hill.

Prince  
James's  
Captivity  
in  
England.

The Duke of Albany caused the king's eldest son, the heir to the Scottish throne, to be starved in a dungeon; and in 1406 the king's remaining son, James, Earl of Carrick, then the heir to the crown, was captured by an English cruiser, while on board a Scottish vessel sailing



A FORAY ON THE BORDER

From the Painting by C. Steffek



for France, where the prince was being sent to be educated. Although a state of peace then existed between Scotland and England, King Henry IV. retained the Scottish prince a prisoner in England; and for eighteen years Prince James remained in captivity, two years in the Tower and sixteen in Windsor Castle. King Robert III. died of grief three days after hearing of his son's capture, A. D. 1406.

The Duke of Albany as regent at once proclaimed JAMES I. King of Scotland, although he was a captive in England, and administered the Scottish government in his name. Peace was nominally maintained with England, but the border war still continued, and the Scots recovered many of the frontier fortresses. They retook Jedburgh, and destroyed it for the purpose of preventing the English from occupying it in future invasions of Scotland.

In 1411 the Highlanders, under Donald, Lord of the Isles, burst into the Lowlands north of the Frith of Forth, for the purpose of ravaging that part of the kingdom; but they were defeated by the Lowlanders, under Alexander Stewart, Earl of Mar, at Harlow, in Aberdeenshire, July 24, 1411, thus delivering Scotland from a terrible danger.

The Duke of Albany died in 1419, and was succeeded in the regency and in his dukedom by his son. The Scottish kingdom was so distracted with anarchy that the regent exercised but nominal power. The real remedy for the disorders which afflicted Scotland was to place the king, who was still a captive in England, on the throne. Douglas and some of the other Scottish nobles obtained the release of James I., who returned to Scotland in 1424, when the Scots paid a ransom of forty thousand pounds, to defray the expense of his maintenance and education during his captivity of eighteen years in England.

During his captivity James I. married the Lady Joanna Beaufort, daughter of the Duke of Somerset, and she came with him to Scotland. James I. was well aware that the new regent, the young Duke of Albany, and his partisans had sought to prevent his release, because they were reluctant to relinquish the government of Scotland; but he did not manifest any sign of displeasure for eight months. He then arrested the Duke of Albany, his two sons, and twenty-six other Scottish noblemen, during the session of the Scottish Parliament at Perth. The Duke of Albany and his sons were tried before a jury of twenty-one peers, over which the king presided; and they were convicted of treason, and were executed at Stirling.

James I. then summoned the chiefs of the Highland clans and of the Hebrides to a Parliament at Inverness in 1427. They were instantly arrested upon their arrival, and were imprisoned. Three of them were hanged immediately, and several others afterward. Others were detained in prison, and only a few were permitted to return to their es-

James I.,  
A. D.  
1406-  
1436.

Duke of  
Albany.

Border  
War.

Highland  
Raiders  
Defeated  
by Low-  
landers.

Anarchy  
and  
Disorders  
in  
Scotland.

Ransom  
and  
Release of  
James I.

Regency  
of the  
Young  
Duke of  
Albany.

His  
Arrest,  
Trial and  
Execu-  
tion.

Execu-  
tion of  
Highland  
Chiefs.

tates. James I. hoped to strike terror into these barbarous chiefs by his stern proceedings, but in this he failed.

**Defeat  
and Sub-  
mission  
of other  
High-  
land  
Chiefs.**

Alexander, Lord of the Isles, was of the few who were allowed to return home. He at once rallied his vassals, marched to Inverness, and destroyed that town. The king hastened to the Highlands and defeated Alexander in Lochaber. The chieftain surrendered unconditionally to the king, and was imprisoned in Tantalion Castle. His kinsman, Donald Balloch, called the Highland clans to arms and defeated the royal troops. The king thereupon led a formidable army into the Highlands, resolved to crush the power of the clans forever. Perceiving their weakness, the Highland chieftains submitted and did homage to the king.

**Assassi-  
nation  
of  
James I.**

James I. then proceeded to deprive some of the most powerful and dangerous nobles of their estates, which he conferred upon others; thus arousing the vengeance of the nobles, who formed a conspiracy against him and assassinated him in the monastery of the Black Friars at Perth, on Christmas, in 1436.

**Great  
and Good  
Reign of  
James I.**

The reign of James I. was one of the most celebrated in Scottish history. The Scottish Parliaments during his reign enacted many laws for the advancement of the best interests of the Scottish people. The king caused a collection of the statutes of his kingdom to be made, in which he set aside all laws that were obsolete and retained only those that were then in force. He established a definite standard of weights and measures, and caused the coinage of the kingdom to be regulated upon a scale which made it equal to the money of England in fineness and weight. He created the office of treasurer; caused the acts of the Scottish Parliament to be published in the language of the Scottish people; and instituted schools of archery for the purpose of training the bowmen of Scotland to be as efficient as those of England. James I. was a learned man himself and also a patron of learning. He was the famous poet-king of Scotland, and such of his poems as still remain show him to have possessed real genius.

**His  
Beneficent  
Acts.**

**James II.,  
A. D.  
1436-  
1460.**

**Quarrels  
of His  
Guar-  
dians.**

JAMES II. was only eight years of age when he succeeded his murdered father as King of Scotland in 1436. After he had been proclaimed king a short struggle for the guardianship of the king's person ensued between the queen-mother and two others, William Crichton, the Chancellor and Governor of Edinburgh Castle, and Archibald Livingstone, Governor of Stirling Castle. The struggle was ended by the queen-mother's withdrawal and by an agreement between Crichton and Livingstone to share between them the power which the possession of the king's person gave them.

Archibald, Earl of Douglas, the most powerful noble of Scotland at that time, possessed Galloway, Annandale and other estates in Scotland,

and also the duchy of Touraine in France. He had been made lieutenant-governor of Scotland, and might easily have obtained possession of all the power in the kingdom had he so desired. He died in 1439, and his son William, a youth of seventeen, succeeded to his estates. This new Earl of Douglas maintained an almost royal state, and was accused of many acts of violence and oppression. The king's guardians resolved to get rid of him, and invited him and his brother David to visit James II. at Edinburgh. When they arrived there they were seized by the king's guardians, and were beheaded in the castle-yard after a mock trial.

Archibald, Earl of Douglas, and His Two Sons.

The Latter's Execution.

The estates of the Douglas family were divided; a portion being assigned with the title to James, the granduncle of William and David, the male heir; while their sister Margaret obtained Galloway. At the death of James, his son William married his cousin Margaret of Galloway, thus reuniting the Douglas estates. William then proceeded to court, and there contrived to get most of the power of the government into his possession. He openly defied the king's commands; and, as he was able to put a force of five thousand of his own vassals into the field, the king dared not punish him. When King James II. once ordered William to release a prisoner whom he held unlawfully, William caused the man to be beheaded, and then notified the king that he could have the body.

The Douglas Estates.

William, Earl of Douglas.

His Bold Defiance of James II.

When James II., upon coming of age, assumed the government of Scotland, he resolved to get rid of William Douglas, whom he invited to Stirling, receiving him cordially. The king then urged the earl to break off his "bonds," or alliances with the Highland chiefs, which menaced the power of the Scottish crown. As Douglas refused, the king stabbed him. The wounded earl fell, and was killed with a pole-ax by Sir Patrick Gray, one of the king's attendants.

His Murder by James II.

James Douglas, the brother and heir of the murdered Earl William, cast off his allegiance to King James II. and took up arms against him, being joined by the Earls of Ross and Crawford. As the king was too weak to defeat the rebels in the field he undertook to break up their union by diplomacy, in which he was so successful that he defeated James Douglas in the battle of Arkinholm in 1454 and forced him to take refuge in England.

Revolt of James Douglas.

His Defeat and Flight.

The Scottish Parliament passed an act of forfeiture against the fugitive Douglas, and Galloway and certain other estates of the exiled earl were declared inalienable possessions of the Scottish crown. Most of the remainder of the Douglas estates was conferred upon the Earl of Angus, the head of the Red Douglasses, the rivals of the Black Douglasses. Some of the former possessions of the Black Douglasses were bestowed upon Sir James Hamilton. These vigorous measures hum-

Forfeiture of the Douglas Estates.

bled the proud family of Douglas, and firmly established the royal power in Scotland.

**James II. and the Wars of the Roses in England.**

**His Accidental Death.**

**James III., A. D. 1460-1488.**

**Regency of the Bishop of St. Andrews and Lord Boyd.**

**Orkneys and Shetlands.**

**Royal Seizure of the Boyd Estates. Duke of Albany Imprisoned.**

**Plot against James III.**

**His War with England.**

**Execution of the King's Favorites.**

**Treason of the Duke of Albany.**

**Revolt against James III.**

James II. took part in the Wars of the Roses in England on the side of the House of Lancaster, and sought to take advantage of the occasion to recover from the English the towns which they still held in Scotland. He besieged Roxburgh, and was killed by the bursting of a cannon while directing the operations, A. D. 1460. After his death Roxburgh was taken and destroyed. This was the first siege in which the Scots used artillery.

JAMES III. was only eight years of age at the time of his father's death. The Bishop of St. Andrews governed the Scottish kingdom for six years as regent. At his death, Lord Boyd obtained the regency and possession of the king's person. In 1469 James III. was married to Margaret, daughter of King Christian I. of Denmark and Norway. As security for her dowry, the Orkney and Shetland Isles were placed by Norway in the care of Scotland. As the dowry was never paid, the islands remained in the possession of the Scots and became a part of the Scottish kingdom.

James III. now turned upon the Boyds and punished them for their seizure of his person by executing the regent's younger son and confiscating the family estates, which were now declared the inalienable possessions of the Scottish crown. Lord Boyd and his eldest son, the Earl of Arran, escaped to England. The king's brother, the Duke of Albany, being suspected of conspiring against James III., was arrested and imprisoned in Edinburgh Castle. He escaped to France, whence he went to England.

King Edward IV. of England agreed to aid him to dethrone James III., and the Douglasses and the Lord of the Isles pledged themselves to support the English monarch. James III. declared war against England, placed himself at the head of a large army, and advanced as far as the Lauder. There the Scottish nobles, under the leadership of the Earl of Angus, resolving to get rid of certain of the king's favorites who had incurred their hostility, seized them and hanged them over Lauder bridge, in spite of the king's entreaties. This ended the expedition, and the nobles returned in triumph to Edinburgh, with the king a virtual prisoner in their possession, and themselves as the real masters of the Scottish kingdom, A. D. 1482.

The Duke of Albany returned to Scotland soon afterward and obtained the release of his brother, King James III. The two brothers lived together amicably for a while, until the Duke of Albany went back to England. Before he left Scotland he showed his treasonable design by placing Dunbar Castle in the possession of the English. The king's unpopularity continued increasing; and the Lowland nobles conspired



against him, raised a large army, and proclaimed his son king in his stead. James III. was defeated in the battle of Sauchieburn, and fled from the field, being thrown from his horse during his flight and carried to a mill at Bannockburn, where he was assassinated by some unknown person, A. D. 1488.

**His  
Defeat  
and  
Assassina-  
tion.**

The assassination of James III. left the government of Scotland in the hands of the rebellious nobles; and the murdered king's son, JAMES IV., ascended the Scottish throne, at the age of sixteen years. For the next few years the victorious nobles governed the Scottish kingdom for him. When James IV. became of age and assumed the government he soon gave evidence of being an able and vigorous ruler. He maintained a splendid court, and promoted the civilization of his subjects. He constantly sought to curb the power of the Lowland nobles and the Highland chiefs, and to increase the royal authority. This aroused the animosity of some of his nobles, and they laid plans to make him a prisoner.

**James IV.  
A. D.  
1488-  
1513.**

**His Wise  
and Able  
Rule.**

**Plot  
against  
Him.**

Henry VII. of England, who was prevented by the condition of affairs in his own kingdom from making open war against Scotland, secretly encouraged the conspiracies of the Scottish nobles against their king. Upon discovering this, James IV. retaliated by espousing the cause of Perkin Warbeck, whom he welcomed at his court as Richard, Duke of York, the son of King Edward IV. The Scottish king gave Warbeck his relative, Lady Catharine Gordon, in marriage, and led an army in his behalf into England. James IV. finally grew tired of Warbeck, sent him off to Ireland, and renewed the truce with Henry VII. In 1502 James IV. married Margaret, the eldest daughter of Henry VII.

**James IV.  
and  
Perkin  
Warbeck**

For the purpose of curbing the power of the Highlanders and the Lord of the Isles, James IV. placed royal garrisons in the castles and fortresses of that portion of his kingdom and erected other strongholds. He was unable to carry the plan as far as he desired, and thus resorted to the policy of using the feuds of the Highland chieftains as a means of destroying them. The Earl of Huntly, the head of the Gordon family, was made Sheriff of Inverness, Ross and Caithness, on condition that he erected and maintained a castle at Inverness. The Earl of Argyle, the head of the Campbells, was assigned the task of maintaining order in the Hebrides. James IV. also endeavored to divide the islands into sheriffdoms.

**James IV.  
and the  
High-  
landers.**

**The  
Gordons  
and the  
Camp-  
bells.**

The Highland clans rallied under Donald Dhu, an illegitimate descendant of the last Lord of the Isles, to resist the king's measures. After a struggle of three years, Donald Dhu was brought a prisoner to Edinburgh, and was deprived of his Lordship of the Isles, his dominions being confiscated to the Scottish crown, A. D. 1504.

**Over-  
throw of  
Donald  
Dhu,  
Lord of  
the Isles.**

Invasion  
of Eng-  
land by  
James IV.

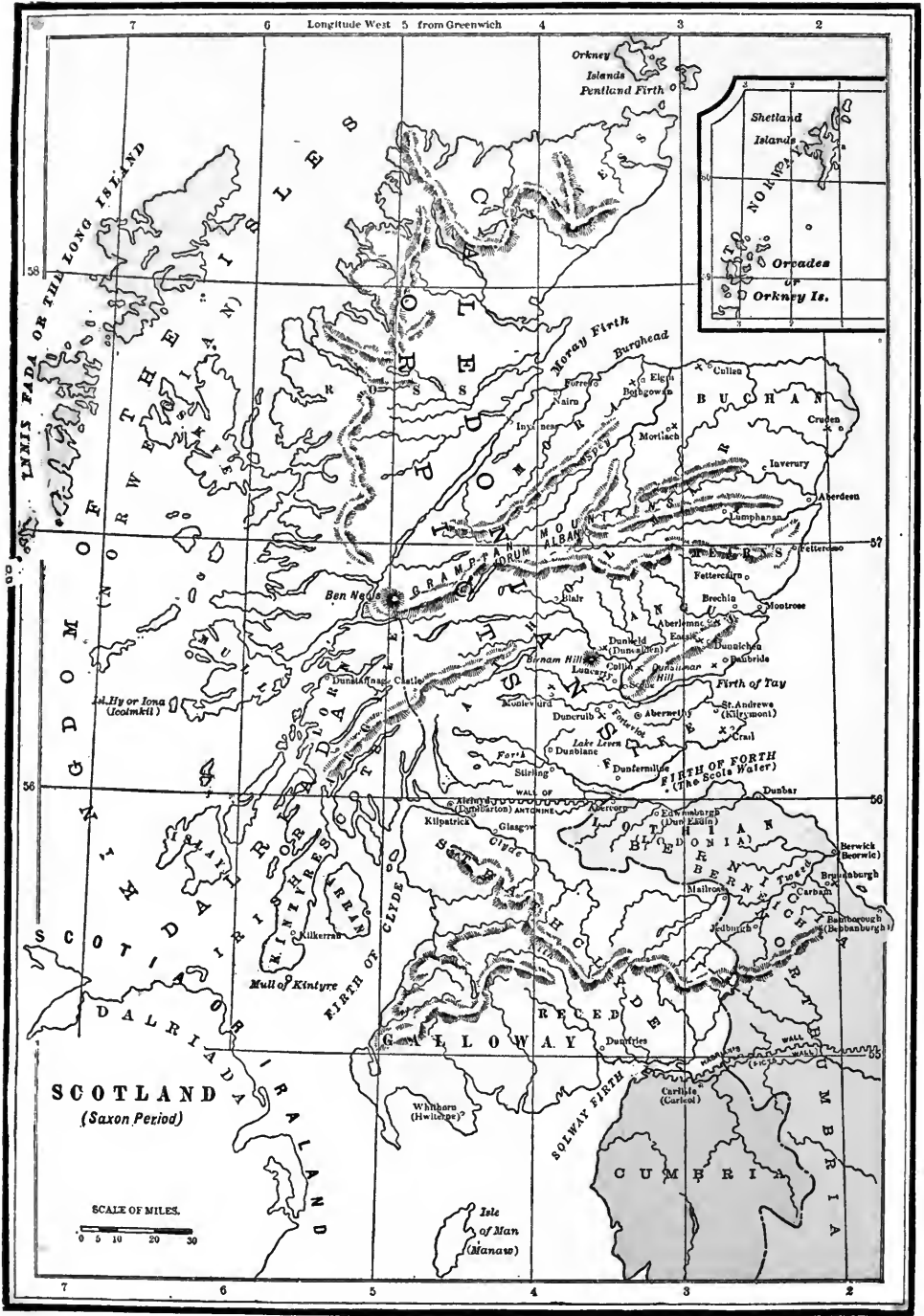
His  
Defeat  
and Death  
in the  
Battle of  
Flodden  
Field.

His  
Pros-  
perous  
Reign.  
Introduc-  
tion of  
Printing.

In 1513 James IV. unwisely renewed the old alliance between Scotland and France, and declared war against Henry VIII. of England. He led a splendid army across the border into England, but committed so many blunders that he wholly destroyed every prospect of success, and was defeated and slain by the English army under the Earl of Surrey in the battle of Flodden Field, September 9, 1513. The flower of the Scottish nobility perished with their king on this fatal field, and all Scotland was plunged into mourning.

James IV. was one of the most popular of the Scottish kings, and his reign was one of the most prosperous that Scotland had ever known. Trade improved rapidly, and the exports of Scotland to other countries vastly increased. In the reign of James IV. the art of printing was introduced into Scotland, and the first printing-press was set up by Walter Chapman under the king's patronage.





# CHAPTER XXVIII.

## FEUDAL SOUTHERN EUROPE.

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### SECTION I.—MEDIÆVAL ITALIAN REPUBLICS AND DUCHIES (A. D. 843–1547).

AFTER the Partition Treaty of Verdun, in 843, Italy remained under the weak Carolingian dynasty a-half century. In 962 A. D. the Emperor Otho the Great of Germany annexed Italy to the Holy Roman Empire of Germany. For three centuries Italy was distracted by the civil wars between the Guelfs and the Ghibellines—the former the adherents of the Popes, and the latter the supporters of the Emperors of Germany. During the whole period of the Middle Ages, Italy was the seat of European civilization, wealth, culture and refinement. The most important states of mediæval Italy were the papal state of Rome; the duchy of Milan; the duchy of Savoy; the kingdom of Naples and Sicily; and the famous republics of Venice, Genoa, Pisa and Florence—noted for their extensive commerce and maritime power, and for their political freedom and high state of civilization, thus recalling the glories of the ancient Grecian republics.

During the Middle Ages a number of small republics arose in Italy, the most prominent of which were Venice, Genoa, Pisa and Florence. The most famous of these Italian republics was Venice, which was founded in the year 452 A. D., by the Veneti, a people of Northern Italy, who fled in terror from their homes during the frightful ravages in Italy by Attila and his Hunnic followers. The fugitive Veneti took refuge among the small islands at the head of the Adriatic sea, and there founded a settlement called Venezia, or Venice, which eventually became a great commercial and maritime republic.

Venice—which dated its existence from the time of Attila the Hun's invasion of Italy—excelled other Italian republics in the extent of its commerce and its naval power; and was for centuries the mistress of the Mediterranean, and controlled Europe's commerce with the East. The magnificent works of Venice—such as the cathedral of St. Mark, the palace of the Doge, the place of St. Mark, and the bridge of the

**Carlovin-  
gian  
Italy.**

**Italy as a  
Part  
of the  
Germano-  
Roman  
Empire.**

**Mediæval  
Italian  
States.**

**Italian  
Repub-  
lics.**

**Republic  
of  
Venice.**

**Venetian  
Commerce  
and  
Naval  
Power.**

**Works of  
Venice.**

Rialto—made this city of islands, with bridges and canals instead of streets, the admiration and wonder of the world.

**The First Doge.**

For more than two centuries Venice was a simple republic; but in the year 697 A. D. its form of government was changed by the election of a Doge, or Duke, who was vested with almost absolute power.

**The Rialto.**

In the beginning of the ninth century the central island, Rialto, was connected with the other islands by bridges; and this city became a great commercial power.

**St. Mark.**

In the ninth century the Venetians adopted St. Mark as their patron saint, having brought, as it is said, his body from Alexandria, in Egypt, to Venice (A. D. 829). During the seventh, eighth and ninth

**Growth of Venice.**

centuries Venice greatly increased in wealth, commerce and naval power; and its territories were enlarged by the annexation of Dalmatia and other provinces. Later Venice acquired possession of many rich towns in Lombardy, and also of Crete, Cyprus, the Peloponnesus, and the little islands of the Archipelago (the ancient Ægean sea), so famous in ancient times.

**Venice in the Crusades.**

In the First Crusade the Venetians aided Godfrey of Bouillon with a fleet of two hundred vessels; and during the period of those Holy Wars Venice was the great commercial center and emporium of the trade between the nations of Europe and those of the East.

**“Wedding the Adriatic.”**

In the twelfth century the ceremony of “wedding the Adriatic” was instituted, the Pope presenting the Doge of Venice with a ring for the purpose. The ceremony was annually performed with great pomp, and consisted in casting a ring into the Adriatic by the Doge, to indicate that the sea was subject to Venice as a bride is to her husband. While casting the ring into the sea the Doge exclaimed: “We betroth thee, O Sea, in sign of our lawful and perpetual dominion!”

**Marco Polo.**

In the latter part of the thirteenth century Marco Polo, the great Venetian traveler, visited China and the far East, bringing home a knowledge of the countries of Eastern Asia.

**Dissension and Corruption.**

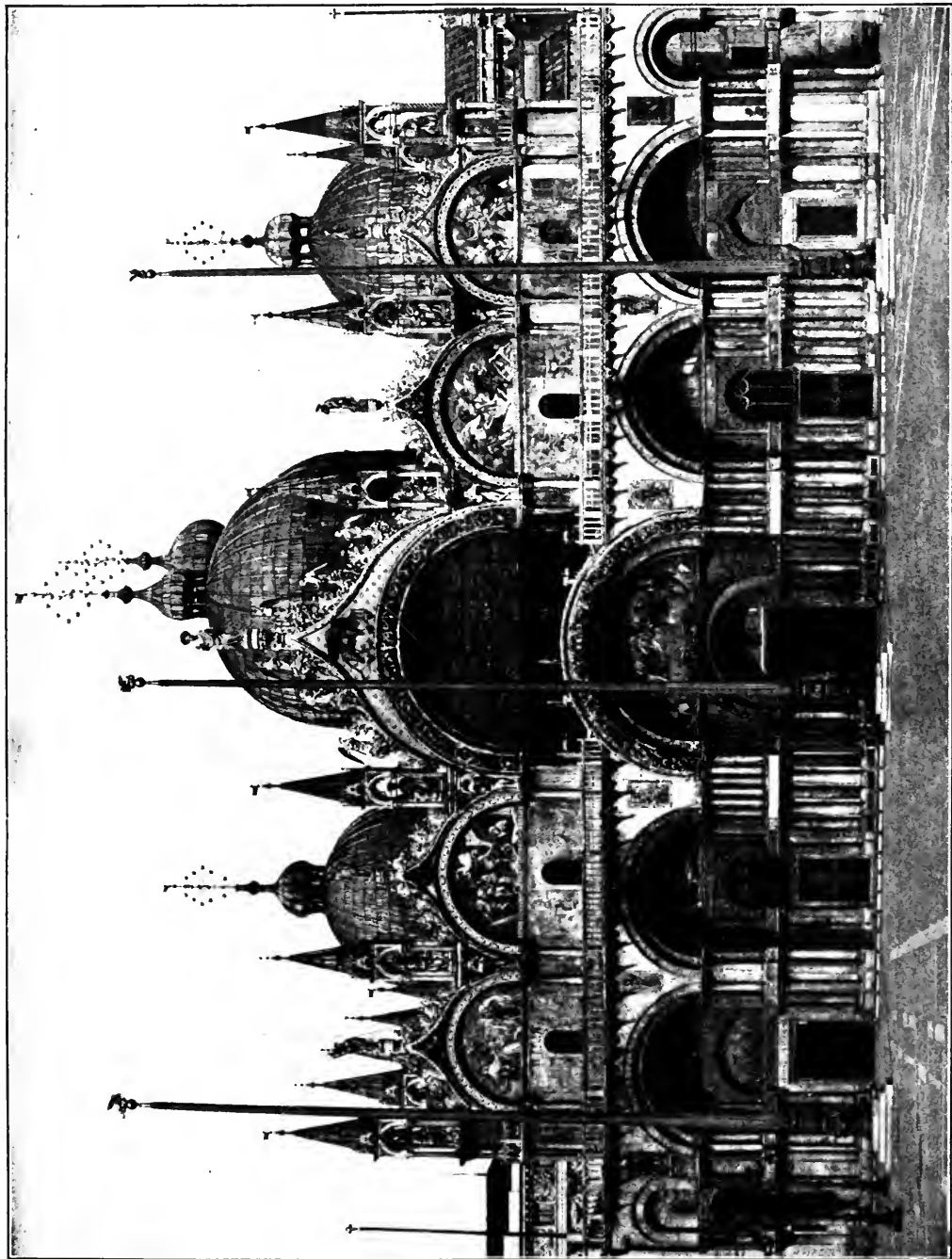
Venice—at first a perfect democracy, celebrated for its political freedom—at length became torn by internal dissensions; and the introduction of luxury and wealth brought their attendant evils—political corruption and the loss of civic virtue. In the fourteenth century the

**The Doges and the Council of Ten.**

government became an aristocracy under the *Doges* (Dukes) and the *Council of Ten*, which, with its secret spies and its dungeons, was enabled to exercise a most unmitigated tyranny, and to suppress every effort to restore the democratic constitution.

**Height of Venetian Greatness.**

At the commencement of the fifteenth century Venice attained the highest pitch of greatness and prosperity, and was for more than a century the chief commercial and maritime power of the world. Venice did very important service to all Christian Europe by checking the



CATHEDRAL OF ST. MARK, VENICE





naval power of the Ottoman Turks in the Mediterranean sea; but her long maritime wars finally exhausted her resources.

The  
Turks.

The discovery of a sea-passage to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope in 1497 sealed the fate of Venice, and her commercial and maritime glory, in a great measure, departed from her; but for several centuries longer Venice continued formidable, and her fleets contended successfully against the Ottoman Turks, who endeavored to secure the control of the Mediterranean sea.

Decline of  
Venice.

When, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, Venice attempted to extend her territorial possessions in Italy, the powerful *League of Cambray* was formed against her by Pope Julius II., King Ferdinand the Catholic of Spain, King Louis XII. of France, and the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany (A. D. 1508). The Venetians soon succeeded in winning the Pope and the King of Spain to their interest, and so contrived to dissolve the league; and the French, who had threatened the independence of Venice, were soon expelled from Italy.

Wars  
with the  
Turks.

League of  
Cambray  
against  
Venice.

The republic of Genoa—also a flourishing commercial and maritime power—was the great rival of Venice for the control of the Eastern commerce; but in the many wars between the two republics Genoa had to yield the supremacy to her great rival. The contests between the democracy and aristocracy and political corruption led to the decline of Genoa, and the republic was conquered by the French early in the sixteenth century, but its independence was reëstablished in 1528 by the great Genoese admiral, Andrea Doria, “the Father of his Country and the Restorer of its Liberties.” In 1547 Fiesco attempted to deprive the family of Doria of the office of Doge, but the conspiracy failed by the unexpected death of Fiesco. Pisa—a flourishing city of Tuscany, celebrated for its leaning tower—was also a prosperous commercial republic, but was conquered by Genoa, and finally by Florence in 1406.

Republic  
of  
Genoa.

Dissen-  
sion and  
Corrup-  
tion.

Andrea  
Doria.

Fiesco.

Republic  
of Pisa.

Florence—the most flourishing republic of Middle Italy and the seat of mediæval Italian literature—rivalled ancient Athens in the freedom of her political institutions, and in her patronage of literature and the fine arts. The great poets Dante and Petrarch and the great novelist Boccaccio flourished at Florence. The commercial spirit of her citizens made Florence a wealthy and powerful republic. The Florentines wove in silk and wool, made jewelry, and were the leading bankers of Europe. The gold *florin*—first coined in 1252—became the standard currency of Europe.

Republic  
of  
Florence.

Dante,  
Petrarch  
and  
Boccaccio.

The  
Florin.

The inland republic of Florence has left a deeper impress upon the Italian character and upon the art and literature of the world than Venice or Genoa. The Florentine government was far more democratic than that of Venice, and rested upon the industries of the citizens.

Art and  
Litera-  
ture.  
Democ-  
racy.

Magistrates and Council of State. Chief magistrates could be chosen from members of the *Arts*, or trades' unions, which resembled the Guilds of England and the Netherlands. These officers were chosen every two months, and the Council of State every four months; so that the whole mass of citizens were qualified for office, and were elevated in turn to public trust. No magistrate received any reward for his services. During the Guelfic supremacy Florence conquered the ports of Pisa and Leghorn and half of Tuscany; while the wealth of her bankers, merchants and woolen manufacturers established her commercial fame in Europe.

Florence under the Medici.

Florence—at first a model democracy—in the fifteenth century passed under the absolute rule of the illustrious family of the Medici; and under Cosmo de Medici (1428–1464) and his renowned grandson, Lorenzo the Magnificent (1472–1492), Florence enjoyed a high degree of prosperity, as the seat of European civilization, culture and refinement.

Cosmo de Medici.

Cosmo de Medici, who had been a prosperous merchant and ruled Florence so wisely and well for thirty-six years, simply exercised the power of a citizen among equals; and his power appeared to rest on the esteem and affection of his countrymen, though it was supported by the control which a rich money-lender exercised over needy borrowers. Cosmo de Medici was a man of lofty mind and patriotic spirit, and without assuming either rank or title he governed Florence with almost unlimited power, and rendered the republic flourishing and powerful by successful wars abroad and by encouragement of the arts and sciences at home, so that he was justly called the “Father of his Country”—a title which he bears in history.

Lorenzo the Magnificent.

Lorenzo the Magnificent trod the same path as his renowned grandfather, and made his name illustrious by rendering Florence the seat of every art and science and a university for all Europe. His court was ornamented with artists, poets and writers; and learned men from Constantinople, fleeing from the sword of the conquering Turks, taught the Greek language and literature in Florence. Under his rule the arts of sculpture, painting and music commenced unfolding their choicest blossoms.

Greatness of the Medici.

The power of Cosmo de Medici and Lorenzo the Magnificent resembled that of Pisistratus in Athens. They so well succeeded in winning the affection of their fellow citizens by their benevolence and their kindness to the poor, and by their friendly affability toward the illustrious, that their power was securely established. The public entertainments which they gave rendered life in Florence a perpetual scene of gay and brilliant festivity. Their policy exalted the intellectual fame of Florence at the expense of her freedom, and their influence among the Italian states was frequently exerted on the side of despotism, as in the

case of Milan. Still Florence largely owes her title of "Mother of Modern Art" to their liberal and enlightened tastes.

After Lorenzo's death the earnest discourses of the Dominican monk and reformer, Savonarola, induced the Florentines to drive out the Medici and to restore the democratic republic; but the "bold prophet of Florence" was excommunicated by Pope Alexander VI., and, at the instigation of the clergy, was tried, convicted, and burned to death as a disturber of the Church and a corrupter of the people. The Medici returned and recovered their power, and after being again banished were restored by the forcible intervention of Pope Clement VII. and the Emperor Charles V., who besieged and took Florence, and placed Alexander de Medici as Duke over the conquered republic. Alexander's tyranny caused his assassination, but Florence remained under the Medici until 1737. Among the great men who ornamented the court of the Medici were the artist Michael Angelo and the historian and statesman Machiavelli.

Savonarola, the Reformer.

His Martyrdom.

Alexander de Medici.

Michael Angelo and Machiavelli.

As we have seen, after many bloody wars with Frederick Barbarossa, Milan and the Lombard League won their independence of the German Emperor by the battle of Lignano in 1176 and the Peace of Constance in 1183. The Duchy of Milan, under the renowned families of Visconti and Sforza, afterward became powerful in Northern Italy.

Duchy of Milan and the Lombard League.

Milan, which was ruled by the family of Visconti, in the process of time acquired nearly the whole of Lombardy. The ruler of Milan and its territory received the title of Duke from the Emperor of Germany. On the death of the last Milanese duke of the family of Visconti, in 1450, the government of the duchy was bestowed on Francisco Sforza.

Milan under the Visconti and Sforza.

In 1500 the Duchy of Milan was subdued by Louis XII., King of France, and the Milanese duke, Louis Moro, was kept a prisoner for ten years; but the French were finally driven away and Moro was restored to his dukedom. In 1515 King Francis I. of France conquered Milan by defeating the Swiss and Milanese in the battle of Marignano, "the Battle of the Giants"; but in 1525 Francis I. was defeated and taken prisoner by the Spaniards, who governed Milan thereafter for two centuries, until 1714, after which the House of Austria held possession of the duchy until 1866.—

French Conquest of Milan.

Milan under Spain and Austria.

The western part of Northern Italy fell gradually under the control of the powerful Counts of Savoy, who eventually erected their territory into the *Duchy of Savoy*, which lost many of its territories in subsequent wars with Burgundy, Milan and France; and Geneva was lost in the sixteenth century; but the Dukes of Savoy eventually conquered Sardinia and Genoa, and in 1720 the Duchy of Savoy became the Kingdom of Sardinia; and the Savoyard dynasty now occupies the throne of the Kingdom of Italy, formed in 1861.

Duchy of Savoy.

Kingdom of Sardinia.

## SECTION II.—PAPAL ROME, AND KINGDOM OF NAPLES AND SICILY (A. D. 752–1521).

Rome  
under the  
Popes.

FROM the time that Pepin the Little bestowed Rome and its adjacent territory on Pope Adrian I., Rome was governed by the Popes, with several interruptions, until 1870. During the seventy-two years' residence of the Popes at Avignon, in France (1305–1377), Rome was a prey to the violence of domestic factions, and suffered greatly from the lawlessness of the nobles. Out of these intestine disorders and quarrels of the families of Orsini and Colonna arose the fiery orator, Cola di Rienzi, the "Last of the Tribunes," who was imbued with the spirit of the ancient Roman republicans, and who sought to restore Rome to its former glory and preëminence. Having gained the support of the Roman people by his fiery addresses, Rienzi was made a Tribune of the People; and he seized the supreme power in Rome in 1347, expelled the lawless nobles and established a new *Roman Republic*; but he soon lost his popularity by his impolicy in loading the Roman people with the most oppressive taxes, and, after a brief existence of seven months, his government was overthrown and he was driven into exile. Rienzi afterwards returned to Rome, and was assassinated during a tumult in the city, in 1354.

Violence  
and  
Lawless-  
ness.

Cola di  
Rienzi  
and the  
New  
Roman  
Republic.

His Fall  
and Exile.

His  
Assassi-  
nation.

Popes  
Nicholas  
V. and  
Pius II.  
Alexan-  
der VI.

After the return of the Popes to Rome, a few Popes—such as Nicholas V., the founder of the Vatican library, and Pius II. (*Æneas Silvius*), a clever and versatile writer—endeavored to reform Church and State, and patronized literature and science; but Alexander VI., who bought his election, was the worst Pope that ever occupied the Chair of St. Peter, frequently poisoning his political rivals and wealthy cardinals to secure their estates, and his death was caused by accidentally drinking poisoned wine intended for another. Alexander's successor, Julius II. (1503–1513), was a warlike Pope, and enlarged his dominions by conquering Bologna, Ancona, Ferrara and other towns. Leo X. (1513–1521)—the accomplished son of Lorenzo de Medici of Florence—was a great patron of men of genius; and the great artist Raphael, "the Divine Painter," flourished at his court. One of his great objects was the completion of St. Peter's Church at Rome. The Popes now ranked more as Italian princes than as Heads of the Christian Church.

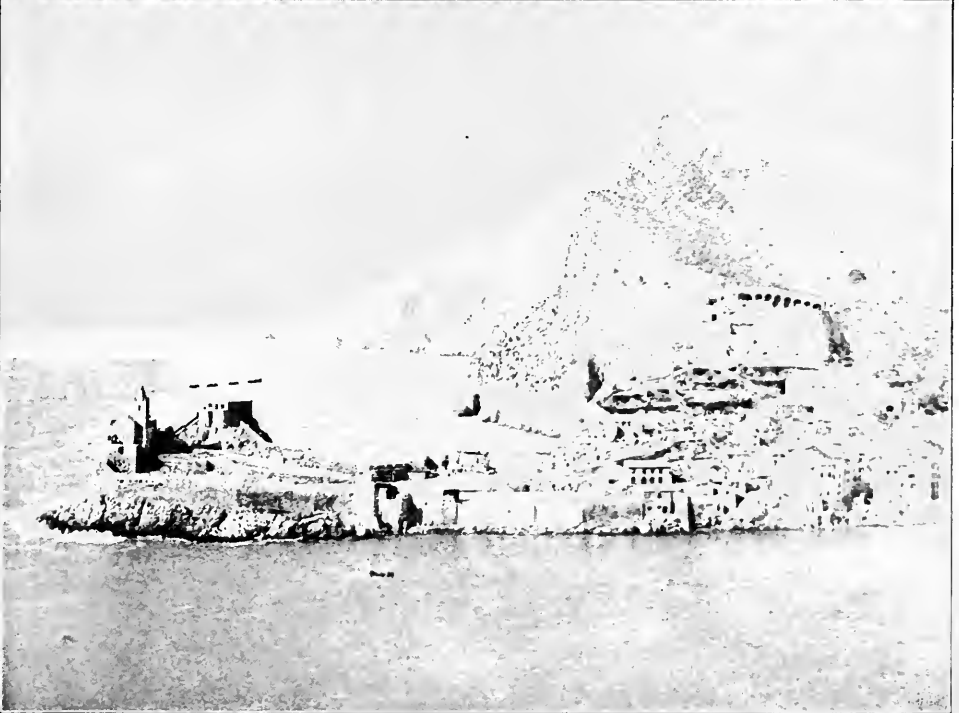
Julius II.

Leo X.

Raphael.  
St. Peter's  
Church.

Naples  
and Sicily  
under the  
Guiscards.

The foundations of the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily were laid by the Norman chief, Robert Guiscard, who, in 1060, conquered Southern Italy, and whose nephew, Roger II., became the first King of Naples and Sicily. After the extinction of the Norman dynasty upon the death of William II., the grandson of Roger II., in 1186, the Kingdom



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ITALIAN COAST SCENES



of Naples and Sicily fell to the German House of Hohenstaufen by the marriage of the Emperor Henry VI. with the Norman heiress; but during the contest between the Guelfs and Ghibellines the Hohenstaufens were overthrown, Manfred being defeated and killed in the battle of Benevento, in 1266, by his rival, Charles of Anjou, the brother of St. Louis, King of France; Pope Urban IV. having bestowed Naples and Sicily, as papal fiefs, upon the House of Anjou; and Manfred's brother and successor, Conradine, being defeated, taken prisoner and beheaded. The House of Anjou then ruled Naples and Sicily, but the tyranny of Charles of Anjou led to the massacre of eight thousand French in Sicily on Easter day, 1282—the *Sicilian Vespers*—by which the House of Anjou lost Sicily, which then fell to the Kings of Aragon.

Under the  
Hohen-  
staufens.

Under the  
House of  
Anjou.

Sicilian  
Vespers.

Anjou  
Dynasty.

Joanna I.  
and  
Andrew  
of  
Hungary.

CHARLES I. of Anjou, at his death in 1285, was succeeded by his son CHARLES II. Charles II. died in 1309 and was succeeded by his son ROBERT THE WISE, who died in 1343 and was succeeded by his granddaughter JOANNA I., who was then only sixteen years old and already married to her cousin, Andrew of Hungary. The boorish manners of Andrew and his Hungarian attendants shocked Joanna's elegant court, while his assumed claim to the crown of Naples in his own right alarmed her counselors. Andrew was murdered in 1345 by his wife's adherents. His brother, King Louis the Great of Hungary, avenged his death by invading Naples, while Joanna I. fled for refuge to the States of the Church.

Charles of  
Durazzo.

In revenge for the aid which Joanna I. had given to the election of Clement V. as Antipope, Pope Urban VI. bestowed the Kingdom of Naples upon Charles of Durazzo, nephew of King Louis the Great of Hungary, and crowned him at Rome in 1381. Charles had a hereditary claim to Naples, as the old Angevin line was to expire with Joanna I.; but the childless queen, exasperated at the disposal of her kingdom before her death, adopted Louis of Anjou, uncle of King Charles VI. of France, as her heir.

Louis of  
Anjou.

Pope Clement V. at Avignon hastened to crown Louis of Anjou as King of Naples, and to assign him a new "Kingdom of Adria" from the States of the Church. But Charles of Durazzo was first in the field, and took Joanna I. prisoner and caused her to be murdered—a long cherished revenge on the part of King Louis the Great of Hungary for the murder of his brother Andrew. In order to enforce his pretensions to Naples, the Duke of Anjou seized the treasures of the French kingdom immediately upon his brother's death; but his great preparations ended only in failure and humiliation. Most of his army fell victims to the plague, and he himself died near Bari in 1384. French claims upon Naples caused more than a century of war without effecting any permanent conquest.

Murder of  
Joanna I.

**Joanna II.** JOANNA II., daughter of Charles of Durazzo, called to her assistance Alfonso V. of Aragon and Sicily, who received the title of Duke of Calabria as heir-expectant of the Italian crown. But Joanna II. changed her mind and adopted Louis III. of Anjou as her heir. Louis III. died in 1434, and Joanna II. in 1435. Count René of Anjou, brother of Louis III., had been named in Joanna's will, but he was captured and detained in France by a rival claimant to the duchy of Lorraine; and the Neapolitan nobles again called in Alfonso V. of Aragon.

**Houses of Anjou and Aragon.** The forces of Genoa and Milan fought for René of Anjou, and gained a most bloody victory over the Aragonian fleet in the Mediterranean, taking Alfonso V., his brother and many of their attendant nobles prisoners; but the King of Aragon finally triumphed, and the amiable and accomplished René of Anjou turned his attention to the more congenial pursuits of poetry and painting. Two of René's children strongly contrasted with their father in energy of character—

**Réné's Children.** Margaret, the wife of Henry VI. of England, who so long and valiantly maintained the Lancastrian cause against the House of York; and John, Duke of Calabria, who displayed the same genius and resolution in the pursuit of his lost inheritance.

**Naples under France and Spain.** Thus the Kingdom of Naples also came under the dominion of the Kings of Aragon, but a strong party in the kingdom adhered to the French claimant of the Neapolitan throne, thus distracting the kingdom until the end of the fifteenth century. In 1493 King Charles VIII. of France conquered and lost Naples, and only effected his safe retreat to France by his victory at Fornovo in 1494. In 1500 his successor, King Louis XII. of France, conquered Naples, but was driven away in 1504 by the Spaniards, who retained possession of Naples for more than two centuries.

### SECTION III.—CHRISTIAN AND MOORISH KINGDOMS IN SPAIN (A. D. 718–1492).

**Wars of the Moors and Christians.** For a period of eight centuries, the Saracens and Moors, after establishing themselves in the Spanish peninsula, were engaged in constant wars with the Christian Spaniards, who, in the course of time, erected the powerful Christian kingdoms of Asturias and Leon, Aragon, Castile, Navarre, and Portugal. The wars with the Moors produced a spirit of romantic chivalry and love of freedom among the Christian Spaniards.

**Kingdom of Asturias.** As we have seen, the *Kingdom of Asturias* was founded by the Christian Spaniards under the Gothic prince PELAYO, who fled into the mountains in the North of Spain at the time of the Saracen conquest of



Spain in 711. This Christian kingdom flourished in spite of all the Saracen efforts to conquer it. It was at first confined to the district of Ovieda. Constant war was waged against the Saracens and Moors, and in the course of time the Christians were enabled to extend their territories southward. ALFONSO I., THE CATHOLIC—the third prince of Asturias and Pelayo's son-in-law—ascended the throne in 739, conquered and annexed Galicia and parts of Leon and Castile, and assumed the title of King of Asturias. ALFONSO III., who became King of Asturias in 866, conquered all of Leon, and removed his capital to the city of Leon; and during his reign, in A. D. 873, *Navarre* became independent of Asturias, and eventually grew into a powerful kingdom.

*Castile*, which had been subject to Leon, recovered its independence about A. D. 982, and was erected into a kingdom early in the next century. In 1037 FERDINAND I., THE GREAT, of Castile, united the Kingdom of Leon with Castile, which was thenceforth the strongest power in Spain. Ferdinand the Great died in 1065, assigning Castile to his eldest son, SANCHE II., and Asturias and Leon to his other son, ALFONSO VI., THE VALIANT. There was almost constant war between these two brothers; and on the death of Sancho II., in 1071, Alfonso the Valiant obtained the crown of Castile, thus reuniting the two kingdoms; but at his death, in 1109, his dominions were divided among his children. Alfonso the Valiant recovered Toledo, the old capital of Spain, from the Moors, whom he came near driving from Spain. He destroyed the old Moorish kingdom of Toledo, made that city his capital, and named the territory which he had thus acquired *New Castile*. In 1095 Alfonso the Valiant erected *Portugal* into a separate earldom, and in 1139 that country renounced its allegiance to Leon and Castile and became an independent kingdom.

*Aragon*, hitherto a part of the Kingdom of Navarre, became an independent kingdom under RAMIRO I., in 1035, and rapidly grew in strength and importance during the next century. In 1118 ALFONSO I., THE WARRIOR, took Saragossa, the principal city in the North-east of Spain, from the Moors.

In the meantime all the Christian kingdoms in the North of Spain had been pressing the Moors farther southward. The growing weakness of the Khalifate of Cordova enabled the Christians to drive back the Moors with comparative ease; and the condition of affairs that followed the fall of the Khalifate gave the Christians an opportunity to vastly increase their territories—an opportunity of which they readily availed themselves.

During this period flourished the chivalrous Cid, Rodrigo Diaz, the great hero of Spanish history, whose career belongs to the realms of romance rather than to actual history. This legendary warrior is rep-

Alfonso  
the  
Catholic.

Alfonso  
III.  
Kingdom  
of  
Navarre.

Kingdom  
of  
Castile.

Ferdinand  
the  
Great.

Sancho  
II.

Alfonso  
the  
Valiant.

New  
Castile.

Kingdom  
of  
Portugal.

Kingdom  
of  
Aragon.

Alfonso  
the  
Warrior.

Progress  
of the  
Christian  
King-  
doms.

The Cid.

resented as having struck terror into the hearts of the Moors by his numerous victories; and it is said that having been killed in an engagement, in 1099, he was set on his steed at the head of his troops, and that when the Moors beheld him thus leading his warlike hosts they were seized with superstitious awe and fled in consternation, so that the Cid won a victory even in death.

The Moorish and Christian Kingdoms.

Gradually the Christians pushed the Moors southward and made themselves masters of Spain. Towards the middle of the twelfth century the Spanish peninsula contained the Moorish kingdoms of Cordova and Granada and the Christian kingdoms of Aragon, Navarre, Castile, Leon, and Portugal. The Christian kingdoms were generally divided against each other; but the Moors, though divided among themselves, were firmly united against the Christians, and maintained their hold upon Andalusia with the aid of recruits from their brethren in Africa.

Moorish Dynasties of the Almoravides and the Almohades.

Near the end of the eleventh century the Moorish sect of the Almoravides, who had established their dynasty in Morocco, invaded Spain, conquered the Moorish kingdom of Seville, and speedily reduced the other Moorish territories in Spain under their dominion. Near the latter part of the twelfth century the dynasty of the Almoravides was overthrown in Africa by the Almohades, who reduced Moorish Spain to subjection. The dissensions among the Christian kingdoms in the Spanish peninsula enabled the dynasty of the Almohades to recover some of the territory that the Moors had lost.

Battle of Navas de Tolosa.

The death of Yacub Ben Yusef, the greatest of the Almohade Khalifs, in 1198, relieved the Christians of Spain of a formidable enemy. The Christian kingdoms laid aside their quarrels, and their united armies broke the power of the Moors by a great victory in the battle of the Navas de Tolosa, in the Sierra Morena, in 1212; after which the Moorish power in Spain steadily declined; but the final overthrow of the Moslems was delayed by the rise of the Moorish kingdom of Granada and by wars among the Christian kingdoms.

Moorish Decline.

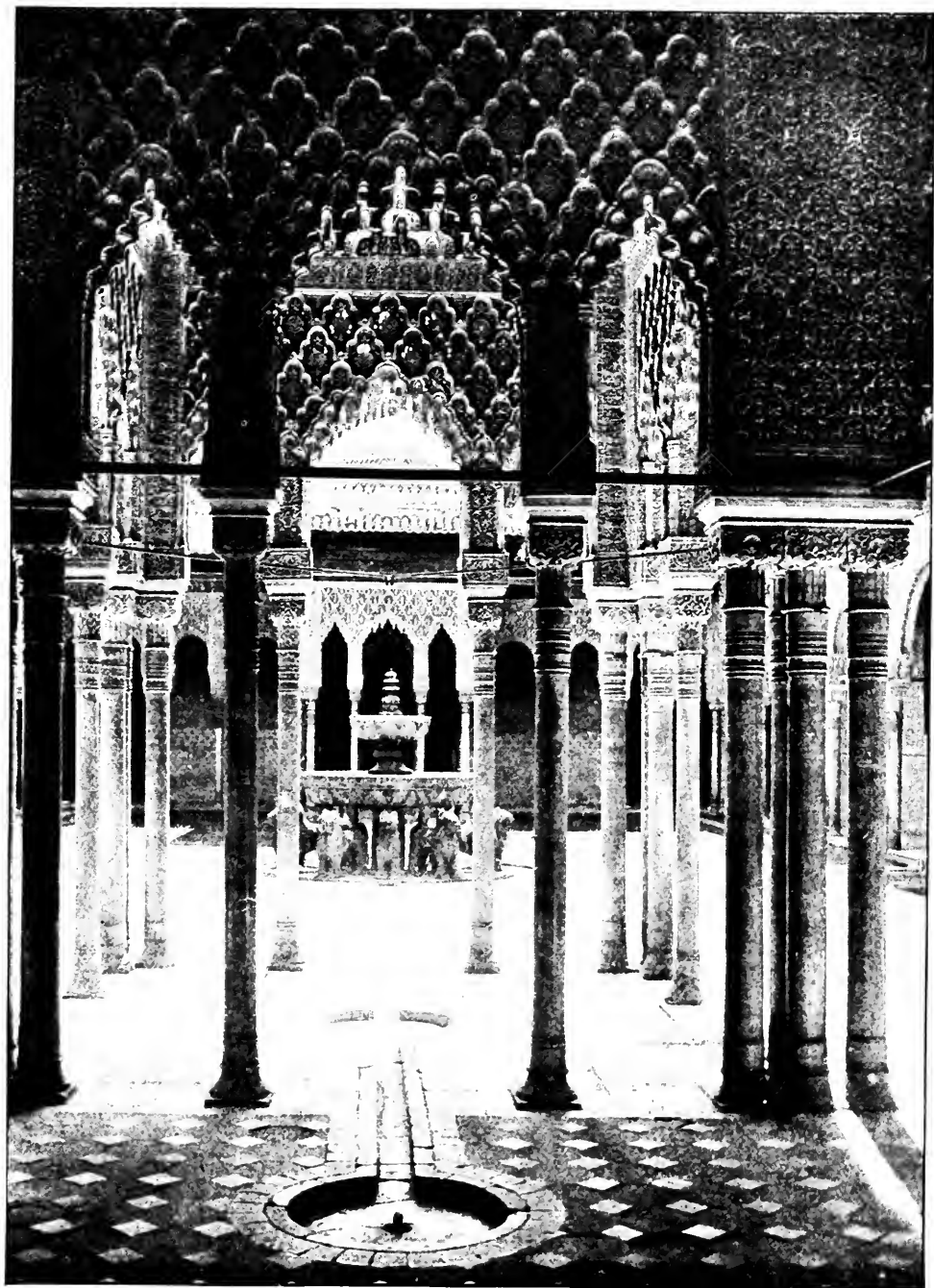
Moorish Kingdom of Granada.

The Moorish kingdom of *Granada* was founded in 1238 by Mohammed Ben Alhamar, a great and warlike sovereign, who collected in his new realm most of his Moorish countrymen who had been steadily driven southward by the advancing arms of the Christian kingdoms. The Kingdom of Granada remained prosperous and powerful for two and a-half centuries, and was inhabited by a numerous population. This Moorish kingdom became celebrated for its culture and refinement, of which the beautiful castle of the *Alhambra* is a permanent monument. Art and science flourished, and the kingdom was adorned with many noble and useful public works.

The Alhambra.

Art and Science.

Every Moorish town was divided into wards, with an inspector over each, patrols guarding the streets at night, and the gates of the cities



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THE COURT OF LIONS IN THE ALHAMBRA



being closed at a certain hour of the evening. Courts of justice were held every day by an impartial sovereign. Charity was practiced, the poor being well provided for, and the sick well cared for. Every Moor was a soldier. A regular standing army was kept on pay, and each soldier had a lot of land on the frontier large enough to maintain himself, his family and his horse. These little farms served as a barrier against the Christian enemy, more effectual than walls, as each soldier fought to protect his own family and hearthstone.

Moorish  
Civiliza-  
tion.

Thus secured externally, Granada soon became as renowned as Cordova had been for agriculture, commerce, arts, manufactures, especially silk, and for wealth and industry. Prizes were awarded to stimulate all the mechanical arts, and especially to the best weavers of silk and growers of wool. Warehouses, hospitals, almshouses, markets with fixed prices, schools, colleges and good inns were seen on every hand. Besides the famous Alhambra, the Moorish capital, Granada, was also beautified with baths, fountains, delightful public walks, gardens and every convenience, all paid for from the king's gold and silver mines.

Granada's  
Fame,  
Wealth  
and  
Civiliza-  
tion.

The wars between the Moors and the Christians had the greatest influence upon the history and character of the Spanish nation. These struggles produced a love of war and a chivalrous turn of mind, and caused the Christian Spaniards to take delight in contests and arms, in tournaments and knightly exercises, and in romantic poetry and minstrelsy. These wars also preserved the zeal for religion, and were the foundation of that predominance of the clergy which has always been characteristic of Spain. Lastly, these wars aroused a feeling of liberty and self-reliance among the Christian Spaniards, and led to the establishment of the *Cortes*, or national legislative assembly, which possessed the law-making power in both Aragon and Castile, and which was composed of the Estates in both kingdoms—the nobles, the clergy, and deputies of the towns. The royal power in Aragon was more limited than in Castile; and the Cortes of Aragon possessed not only the power of legislation and of consenting to the levying of taxes, but the king was obliged to consult it in the choice of his council. The *Justitia*, an independent chief justice, decided quarrels between the king and the Cortes.

Chivalric  
Influence  
of the  
Moorish-  
Christian  
Wars.

The  
Cortes.

Royal  
Power.

The  
Justitia.

FERDINAND III., THE SAINT, who became King of Castile in 1217, and who died in 1252, permanently united the crowns of Castile and Leon in 1230, and extended his dominions southward at the expense of the Moors, recovering a large part of Spain from them, including the cities of Seville and Cordova. The famous ALFONSO X., THE WISE, the son and successor of Ferdinand the Saint, reigned from 1252 to 1284. He occupied himself with astronomy and astrology, with

Ferdi-  
nand the  
Saint.

Alfonso  
the Wise.

**His Love of Learning.** music and poetry, enlarged the University of Salamanca, encouraged the development of the Spanish language, and had works prepared on history and jurisprudence; but he lacked in the practical wisdom of life. He was elected King of Germany by one faction in that country, but he never visited his new dominions. To gain the shadow of the imperial crown he loaded his Castilian subjects with oppressive taxes, and plunged the kingdom into confusion by his extravagance and by debasing the coinage.

**Alfonso XI.** ALFONSO XI., who reigned over the united Kingdom of Castile and Leon from 1324 to 1350, defeated the Moors on the river Salado, and took from them the strongly fortified town of Algeciras, in Andalusia. To defray the expenses of the war with the Moors, the Castilian Cortes introduced the tax called *alcavala*, which was levied upon all movable and immovable property every time it was sold or exchanged, and which was extremely detrimental to commerce. This impost has remained in Spain to the present day.

**Pedro the Cruel.** PEDRO THE CRUEL, the son and successor of Alfonso XI., reigned from 1350 to 1369. His cruelties made him odious to his subjects; while his murder of his wife, Blanche of Bourbon, drew the hostility of the French upon him. At length his half-brother, Henry of Trastamara, took up arms against him, but was driven from the kingdom. Henry fled to the French court, and solicited the aid of King Charles the Wise of France. The French king sent his great general, Du Guesclin, with an army to aid Henry of Trastamara; and Pedro the Cruel was driven from his kingdom, whereupon Henry became King of Castile and Leon. Pedro the Cruel fled to Bordeaux and obtained the aid of Edward the Black Prince, the famous English warrior, who led an army into Castile, defeated Henry of Trastamara and the French under Du Guesclin at Navarrette, in April, 1367, and restored Pedro the Cruel to the throne of Castile. Pedro had promised to pay the expenses of the war, but when he recovered his throne he broke his promise, and left the Black Prince to bear the burden alone, thus alienating his ally. The next year the King of France sent Du Guesclin into Spain a second time; and Pedro the Cruel was again driven from the Castilian throne, and was soon afterward slain by HENRY of Trastamara, who was formally acknowledged King of Castile and Leon.

**Battle of Navarrette.** During the long minority and reign of JOHN II. (1406-1454) the Kingdom of Castile and Leon was ruled by the Constable Alvaro de Luna, the most powerful noble of the kingdom, as regent. His administration was so oppressive that the nobles, headed by King John II. himself, rose against him and caused him to be executed at Valladolid.

**Pedro's Second Overthrow and Death.** HENRY IV., the son and successor of John II., died in 1474; and, as he left no male heirs, his sister ISABELLA became Queen of Castile and

**John II.**  
Regency and Fall of Alvaro de Luna.

**Henry IV.**

Leon. Isabella's marriage with Ferdinand the Catholic of Aragon in 1479 united the two kingdoms. **Isabella.**

While the united Kingdom of Castile and Leon, the largest and most powerful of the Spanish kingdoms, was extending its power and dominion, Aragon in the East and Portugal in the West of the Spanish peninsula were steadily pushing their conquests. Castile and Portugal were the Spanish kingdoms chiefly engaged in the task of redeeming the Spanish peninsula from the Moors, who, in their kingdom of Granada, protected on their northern frontier by a chain of high mountains, maintained themselves for two and a-half centuries against the attacks of the Christians, whose superiors they were in civilization, culture and refinement. **Wars of Aragon, Castile and Portugal against the Moors of Granada.**

Aragon was the only one of the Spanish kingdoms that concerned itself with European affairs at that period. By the annexation of Catalonia, in 1137, Aragon had become the third naval power in Europe, being excelled only by Venice and Genoa. The Catalans were a hardy and adventurous race, and were the best of sailors, their bravery contributing largely to the extension of the Aragonian dominions. **Aragon's Annexation of Catalonia.**

**Aragon's Naval Power.**

**JAMES I., THE CONQUEROR**, who reigned over Aragon from 1213 to 1276, was the greatest of Aragonian kings. His son and successor, **PEDRO III.**, who reigned nine years (A. D. 1276-1285), married the daughter of Manfred, the Hohenstaufen King of Sicily, thus giving rise to the connection between Aragon and the Kingdoms of Naples and Sicily. **James the Conqueror.**

**Pedro III.**

**ALFONSO V., THE WISE**, who became King of Aragon and Sicily in 1416, and who died in 1458, also became King of Naples in 1435, and resided chiefly in his Italian kingdom; while his brother, **JOHN II.** of Aragon, governed his Spanish dominions as viceroy, and at his death in 1458 became King of Aragon, Naples and Sicily. John II. acquired the Kingdom of Navarre by marrying its queen, Blanche, but this increase of dominion occasioned many crimes. **Alfonso the Wise.**

**John II.**

Charles, the son by this marriage, was the rightful heir to the crown of Navarre upon the death of his mother; but his father, jealous of his popularity, refused him the crown. Charles took refuge with his uncle Alfonso the Wise in Naples, and after Alfonso's death in 1458 he went into studious retirement in Sicily, but was recalled to Spain by false promises that he would be allowed to ascend the Navarrese throne without opposition. He died soon after his return to Spain, believed to have been poisoned by his step-mother, Joanna, the second wife of King John II. of Aragon. **Prince Charles of Navarre.**

The rightful heir to the Navarrese crown was Charles's sister Blanche; but the Kingdom of Navarre had been promised by treaty to

Blanche of Navarre and Eleanor of Foix. the Count of Foix, who had married Eleanor, the next younger sister of Charles. Blanche was betrayed into the power of her sister, who caused her to be poisoned in 1464. The brave and freedom-loving Catalans, believing that the queen-mother Joanna, the second wife of John II., was the real author of the crimes just mentioned, refused to take the oath of allegiance to their son Ferdinand; and a civil war of eleven years ensued. The Catalans were finally reduced to submission; and upon the death of John II., 1479, his son, FERDINAND II., THE CATHOLIC, became undisputed King of Aragon. As before remarked, Ferdinand the Catholic had married Queen Isabella of Castile and Leon in 1479, thus uniting the crowns of the two most powerful Spanish kingdoms.

#### SECTION IV.—RISE OF THE KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL (A. D. 1095–1580).

Henry of Burgundy, Count of Portugal. PORTUGAL, the ancient Lusitania, had been recovered from the Moors by King Alfonso the Valiant of Castile and Leon near the end of the eleventh century. In 1095 that monarch granted the territory between the Minho and the Douro to his son-in-law, Henry of Burgundy, who assumed the title of Count of Portugal, from *Portus Cale*, the ancient name of the town of Oporto. Count Henry established his capital at Guimaraens, and extended his territories southward by several vigorous campaigns against the Moors.

Alfonso I., First King of Portugal, A. D. 1139–1185. Count Henry died in 1112, and was succeeded by his son Alfonso Henry, who also achieved great victories over the Moors. He defeated them in the great battle of Ourique, near the Tagus, in 1139; after which he assumed the title of ALFONSO I., King of Portugal. Thus was founded the Kingdom of Portugal, which was liberated from Castilian supremacy. The title of Alfonso I. as King of Portugal was acknowledged by Alfonso VII., Raymond, of Castile and Leon. Alfonso I. continued his wars against the Moors, and took Lisbon by storm, October 25, 1147. He extended his dominion over at least one-half of the modern Kingdom of Portugal, and laid the foundations of his country's greatness. In 1143 he convened a Cortes, or assembly of the Portuguese Estates, at Lamego, which framed the first code of laws for Portugal.

The Cortes. On the death of Alfonso I., in 1185, his son, SANCHO I., became King of Portugal. Sancho I. continued his father's wars against the Moors. He removed his capital to Coimbra, and raised Portugal to a high degree of prosperity and power. Sancho II. died in 1211, and was succeeded by his son ALFONSO II., who suffered many reverses in a war with Castile and Leon.

Sancho I., A. D. 1185–1211.

Alfonso II., A. D. 1211–1223.



Alfonso II. died in 1223, and was succeeded by his son **SANCHO II.**, who won several important successes over the Moors, and conquered a large part of Algarve, the extreme southern province of Portugal; after which he became involved in a quarrel with the Church. He was never very scrupulous in his dealings with the clergy, and now he seized their revenues and their property without the least compunction, at the same time appointing his favorites to the vacancies in the Church. He was deposed by the Council of Lyons in 1245, and retired to Castile, where he died in 1248.

**Sancho II., A. D.**  
1223-  
1248.  
**His Quarrel with the Church and Deposition.**

**Sancho II.** was succeeded by his son, **ALFONSO III.**, who extended Portugal to its present limits by the annexation of Algarve, the most southern province, which he had conquered from the Moors. He drew upon himself the censure of the Church by marrying a second wife while his first wife was still living. Pope Alexander IV. pronounced the second marriage invalid, but on the death of the first wife he issued a bull declaring the second marriage legitimate, also the issue resulting from this marriage.

**Alfonso III., A. D.**  
1248-  
1279.  
**Annexation of Algarve.**  
**Quarrel with the Church.**

Upon the death of **Alfonso III.**, in 1279, his son **DINIS** became King of Portugal. Like his predecessors, **Dinis** soon became involved in a quarrel with the Church, but contrived to effect a reconciliation with the Pope on terms advantageous to himself. **Dinis** was one of the greatest of the Kings of Portugal. He founded more than forty cities, and was a liberal friend of learning, industry and commerce. During his reign Portugal commenced that career of navigation and commercial enterprise which afterward rendered her illustrious and wealthy. He united a truly royal liberality and a truly comprehensive capacity of mind with great zeal in the administration of justice. His subjects called him the "Father of his Country"—a title which he bears in history.

**Dinis, A. D.**  
1279-  
1325.  
**His Quarrel with the Church.**

**His Greatness.**

**Dinis** died in 1325, and was succeeded by his son, **ALFONSO IV., THE BRAVE.** The only important event of his reign was the war which he waged with **Alfonso XI.** of Castile to avenge the wrongs of his daughter, who was the Castilian king's wife.

**Alfonso the Brave, A. D.**  
1325-  
1357.

**Pedro**, the son and heir of the King of Portugal, had held guilty relations with **Iñes de Castro**, a lady of his court. Fearing that **Pedro** would attempt to marry **Iñes** after his first wife's death, King **Alfonso the Brave** caused **Iñes** to hold a child of **Pedro** over the baptismal font; thus forcing her to contract what was believed to be too close a spiritual affinity to **Pedro** to permit him to marry her. **Pedro** paid no attention to this, and after his first wife's death he privately married **Iñes**, January 1, 1354; she having already borne him four children. When questioned by his father, **Pedro** denied the marriage, but firmly refused to desert **Iñes** or to marry again.

**Prince Pedro and Ines de Castro.**

Contem-  
plated  
Murder  
of Ines  
de Castro.

King Alfonso the Brave feared that Pedro's infatuation for Iñes would cause him to set aside his son by his first wife, the legitimate heir, in favor of one of his children with Iñes. He consulted his courtiers, who were already jealous of the favor shown by Pedro to the Castros, and was advised to put Iñes to death. The king consented to this with reluctance. Pedro was warned of the plot by his mother and by the Archbishop of Braga, but he disregarded their warnings, because he was unable to believe that his father would even for a moment contemplate such a crime. Several months afterward, while Pedro was absent on a hunting excursion, Alfonso the Brave proceeded to the convent of St. Clair at Coimbra, where Iñes was residing, to put her to death; but he was so moved by the tears, the youth and the beauty of Iñes, and by the sight of her little ones, his own grandchildren, that he left without doing her any harm.

Murder of  
Ines.

After the king's departure his attendants reproached him for what they called his weakness, and procured an order from him to carry out the plan themselves. They at once returned to the convent, and murdered the unfortunate Iñes with their daggers. Soon after the departure of the assassins Pedro returned from his hunting expedition. He

Prince  
Pedro's  
Grief and  
Revolt.

manifested the wildest grief and rage when he found his wife barbarously murdered. Being unable to take revenge on the persons of the assassins, as his father protected them, he took up arms and ravaged with fire and sword the provinces where their principal estates lay. The king was greatly alarmed by his son's outbreak and sought to pacify Pedro, agreeing to banish the murderers of Iñes from Portugal as the price of peace, though he refused to deliver them up to Pedro. Pedro then agreed to a reconciliation, waiting until he should have become king to take full revenge on the murderers of Iñes, and he did not have to wait long.

Recon-  
ciliation.

Pedro the  
Severe,  
A. D.  
1357-  
1367.

Alfonso the Brave died in 1357, two years after the murder of Iñes, and his death is said to have been hastened by remorse for his part in that tragic deed. His son, PEDRO I., the SEVERE, then became King of Portugal. He at once demanded of his namesake, Pedro the Cruel, King of Castile, that he should surrender the murderers of Iñes, who had taken refuge in Castile, offering to surrender certain Castilian nobles who had found an asylum in Portugal, and whom Pedro the Cruel was anxious to get into his power. The Portuguese king's offer was accepted by the King of Castile. One of the murderers of Iñes escaped, but the other two were arrested and delivered to the King of Portugal, who on his part seized the Castilian refugees and surrendered them to their king. After thus getting the assassins into his power, Pedro the Severe put them to death with horrible torments, which he helped to inflict with his own hand.

His Cruel  
Murder  
of the  
Assassins  
of Ines  
de Castro.

Pedro the Severe now caused his marriage with Iñes to be made public, and the Portuguese Cortes solemnly declared that Iñes was entitled to the honors usually paid to the wives of the Kings of Portugal. He next caused the body of his murdered wife to be disinterred and arrayed in royal robes, with crown and scepter, and seated on a magnificent throne in the Church of St. Clair, at Coimbra. He then took his stand beside the corpse, and compelled his nobles and clergy to do homage to the dead body, sternly eying each one as he approached, to see that he did not fail to fulfill a subject's duty to his queen. Pedro the Severe then buried the remains of Iñes with solemn pomp in the monastery of Alcobaca. The reign of Pedro the Severe lasted ten years. He executed the laws sternly and mercilessly, and his principal wrath was aimed at those who were guilty of the excesses that had disgraced his own youth.

His  
Honors to  
the Dead  
Ines.

His  
Severity.

Pedro the Severe died in 1367, and was succeeded by FERDINAND I., his son by his first wife. Ferdinand I. was cruel and licentious. He compelled one of his nobles to divorce his wife, so that he might marry her himself; and he was under this unprincipled woman's influence during his entire reign. This marriage greatly offended his subjects. Ferdinand I. did some worthy things, though his reign was infamous on the whole. He suppressed the bandits who caused much trouble in some of the Portuguese provinces. He prohibited the clergy from succeeding to landed property by testamentary bequest. He improved the government of the cities. He brought the Portuguese navy to a higher degree of efficiency, and rebuilt the walls of Coimbra and Lisbon. His only child, a daughter, was the wife of the King of Castile.

Ferdinand  
I., A. D.  
1367-  
1383.

His  
Unlawful  
Marriage.

His Good  
Acts.

The death of Ferdinand I., in 1383, was followed by an interregnum of two years, during which Portugal was distracted by the violence of the contending parties, the result of which was that John, the illegitimate son of Pedro the Severe by a lady of Galicia, who had made himself regent, seized the Portuguese throne and was proclaimed king, April 6, 1385, and is known as JOHN I., THE BASTARD.

Interregnum of  
Two  
Years.

John the Bastard was an able, crafty and unscrupulous king. He defeated the efforts of the King of Castile to conquer Portugal, the crown of which was claimed by that monarch in right of his wife, a daughter of Ferdinand I. John the Bastard administered justice faithfully, and did much for the suppression of brigandage. He married Philippa, the daughter of the English Duke of Lancaster, John of Gaunt, by whom he had five sons and several daughters. For the purpose of affording these sons an opportunity of distinguishing themselves, he undertook a war against the Moors on the African side of the Strait of Gibraltar, his forces taking the fortified city of Ceuta in 1415. The Moors made repeated and desperate efforts to recover

John the  
Bastard,  
A. D.  
1385-  
1433.

His Wars  
with the  
Moors of  
Africa.

Capture  
of Ceuta.

the city, but the Portuguese garrison held it against all their attacks. This fortress remained in the possession of Portugal until the seizure of the kingdom by King Philip II. of Spain in 1580, when it became a possession of that kingdom, which still retains ownership of it. It was in the reign of John the Bastard that the Portuguese commenced their wonderful career of maritime discovery under the patronage of his fourth son, Prince Henry.

Portu-  
guese  
Maritime  
Discovery.

Duarte,  
A. D.  
1433-  
1438.

Defeat by  
the Moors  
in Africa.

John the Bastard died in 1433, and was succeeded by his son DUARTE, or EDWARD, who reigned five years, and undertook an unsuccessful war against the Moors of North-western Africa. His army was defeated; and his brother, Dom Fernando, or Feridnand, was taken prisoner and treated with great cruelty by the Moors, so that he died from the severities imposed upon him during a captivity of several years.

Alfonso  
V., A. D.  
1438-  
1481.

Regency  
of Dom  
Pedro.

Duarte died of the plague in 1438, whereupon his son ALFONSO V. became King of Portugal. As the new king was a minor, his mother, Queen Leonora, claimed the regency; but she was driven from Portugal by the boy king's uncle, Dom Pedro, Duke of Coimbra, and forced to retire into exile in Castile. Dom Pedro governed Portugal wisely during the eight years of his regency, and the grateful people of Lisbon would have erected a statue to him had he not forbidden them to do so.

Dom  
Pedro's  
Over-  
throw.

In 1446 Alfonso V., being fourteen years old, was declared of age. He retained Dom Pedro at the head of the state for some time, and married his daughter Isabel. The king's favorites finally succeeded in influencing their sovereign against Dom Pedro, and Alfonso V. came to regard his uncle and father-in-law as his most dangerous enemy. When Dom Pedro perceived this change in his royal nephew and son-in-law's mind he requested permission to resign his place in the government and to retire to Coimbra. The king granted this request, but Dom Pedro was soon horrified by being accused by his enemies of having poisoned the king's father and mother.

Persecu-  
tion of  
Dom  
Pedro.

His  
Revolt,  
Defeat,  
and  
Death.

Alfonso V. accepted the accusation against Dom Pedro as true, ordered him to remain on his estates, and forbade his subjects to have any communication with him. Dom Pedro was subjected to other insults and persecutions, and was finally obliged to take up arms in self-defense, as it was evident that his choice lay between death on the battlefield or on the scaffold; but he was defeated and slain in battle with the royal army.

Tardy  
Justice  
to Dom  
Pedro's  
Remains.

Alfonso V. brutally refused to honor Dom Pedro's body with burial, and it was privately interred by some peasants. Five years afterward Alfonso V. was brought to his senses by the indignant remonstrances of the Pope and the European sovereigns, and he acknowledged Dom

Pedro's innocence and interred his remains with great pomp in the burial-place of the Portuguese kings.

In revenge for the cruel fate of the unfortunate Dom Fernando, Alfonso V. renewed the war against the Moors of North-western Africa, and invaded their country in 1471. He took Tangier, and that post was held by the Portuguese until 1662, when it was ceded to England as a part of the dowry of Catharine of Braganza, the Portuguese bride of King Charles II. of England. Alfonso V. was next involved in a war with Castile, in the hope of obtaining the Castilian crown by marrying Joanna, the reputed daughter of King Henry IV. of Castile; but he was forced to make peace in 1479 and to relinquish his pretensions to the Castilian crown.

War with  
the Moors  
of Africa.

Capture  
of  
Tangier.

War with  
Castile.

Alfonso V. died in 1481, and was succeeded by his son, JOHN II., THE PERFECT, the greatest of the Portuguese kings, and whose reign was the most brilliant in Portuguese history. John the Perfect was a sovereign of broad and liberal views. He was vigorous in the execution of his designs, though he was politic and cautious. He loved justice, and sincerely desired to promote the prosperity and happiness of his subjects.

John the  
Perfect,  
A. D.  
1481-  
1495.

Upon his accession to the Portuguese throne John the Perfect found the royal revenues so much exhausted by his father's extravagance that the kingdom was almost bankrupt. He immediately introduced reforms which replenished the royal treasury without oppressing his subjects. He next inaugurated a series of measures by which he broke the power of the feudal nobility and rendered them wholly dependent upon the crown.

His Wise  
Reforms.

He deprived the Portuguese nobles of the power of life and death over their vassals, and restricted that power to himself and to the royal courts—a great gain for the Portuguese people. He compelled all who had obtained grants of land or dignities from his predecessors to produce their title-deeds and other legal documents. In cases in which there was a defective title the claimant was deprived of it, and in cases in which there was extravagant concession it was very much modified. He also deprived his nobles of the right to nominate the local magistrates, who had hitherto been chosen from the nobility, and vested the nomination in the crown, making all classes eligible to these offices, the only qualifications required being learning and merit.

His Blows  
at the  
Power  
of the  
Portu-  
guese  
Nobles.

These reforms, so essential to the welfare of the masses of the Portuguese people and of the whole kingdom, greatly offended the Portuguese nobles, who formed several conspiracies against their king. The Duke of Braganza headed the first of these plots, but it was detected and the duke was beheaded. Some of the principal nobles organized another conspiracy, having for its object the elevation of the Duke of

Plots  
against  
Him.

Execution  
of the  
Conspir-  
ators.

Viseo, the king's cousin, to the Portuguese throne; but the mistress of the Bishop of Evora, one of the chief conspirators, betrayed the plot to the king, who slew the Duke of Viseo with his own hand, and caused the other conspirators to be beheaded and imprisoned.

**Victories over the African Moors.**

**Portuguese Maritime Enterprises.**

John the Perfect prosecuted the war against the Moors of North-western Africa with vigor, and his generals achieved many brilliant victories over them. He introduced industry and comfort among his subjects, and vastly increased the wealth and resources of his kingdom. In his reign the maritime enterprises of the Portuguese were vigorously pushed forward; and these undertakings, which the king encouraged, contributed largely to the prosperity and greatness of Portugal. The African coasts were explored, and in 1486 Bartholomew Diaz discovered the Cape of Good Hope.

**Death of John the Perfect.**

The last years of the reign of John the Perfect were rendered melancholy by the death of his only son in 1491. The king survived this affliction only a few years, dying in 1495, sincerely mourned by all classes of his subjects.

**Manual the Great, A. D. 1495-1521.**

MANUEL THE GREAT, the brother of the Duke of Viseo, then became King of Portugal. He was also a great sovereign, and maintained the prosperity of his kingdom at home and its renown abroad. He vigorously continued his illustrious predecessor's policy of establishing Portuguese influence in Africa, and in 1497 Vasco da Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope and discovered the sea-passage to India, thus opening the way for the establishment of Portuguese influence in Southern Asia; while Cabral discovered Brazil in 1500.

**John the Great, A. D. 1521-1557.**

Manuel the Great died in 1521, and was succeeded by JOHN III., THE GREAT, during whose reign Brazil was colonized by the Portuguese and Portuguese influence extended in India. John the Great introduced the horrible tribunal of the Inquisition into Portugal, against the protests and entreaties of his subjects, but his reign was a good one on the whole.

**The Inquisition.**

**Sebastian A. D. 1557-1578.**

John the Great died in 1557, and was succeeded by his grandson SEBASTIAN, then only three years old. The regency was first exercised by his grandmother, the widow of John the Great, but after her resignation by the king's uncle, Henry. King Sebastian assumed the government himself in 1568, when he was fourteen years of age. Against the desires of his subjects and the advice of his counselors, Sebastian engaged in an ill-advised war against the Empire of Morocco, oppressing his subjects with heavy taxation for its support. In 1578 he invaded Morocco with fifteen thousand men, but was defeated and slain by the Moors in the battle of Alcazarquivir, August 4, 1578.

**Regency.**

**His Defeat and Death by the Moors in Africa.**

**Henry A. D. 1578-1580.**

HENRY, Sebastian's uncle, then became King of Portugal, but died in 1580 without heirs; whereupon a number of pretenders appeared for

the Portuguese crown, the most powerful of whom was Philip II. of Spain, whose mother was the daughter of Manuel the Great, and whose first wife was Maria, the eldest daughter of John the Great. Philip II. triumphed over his rivals, and for the next sixty years Portugal constituted a part of the Kingdom of Spain (A. D. 1580-1640).

Portugal's  
Sixty  
Years'  
Union  
with  
Spain.

## SECTION V.—RISE OF THE MODERN KINGDOM OF SPAIN (A. D. 1479-1516).

THE modern Kingdom of Spain was formed by the marriage of FERDINAND THE CATHOLIC of Aragon with ISABELLA of Castile in 1479. This was the beginning of the real greatness of Spain, and the new kingdom at once came into prominence as the leading power of Europe. The reign of Ferdinand and Isabella was signalized by the restoration of order and justice throughout Spain, in place of the lawless violence of the Spanish nobles. According to the good old custom of Aragon and Castile, the new king and queen presided in person once a week in courts of law, in which the poor, who could not afford to employ counsel, might plead their own cause.

Marriage  
of Ferdi-  
nand the  
Catholic  
of Aragon  
and  
Isabella  
of Castile.

Order and  
Justice.

The joint reign of Ferdinand and Isabella is tarnished by the establishment of the infamous court of the Inquisition, which was established in Spain in 1480, as a royal tribunal for the punishment of heresy and kindred offenses. The Dominican Inquisition had been merely an ecclesiastical court, and both Jews and heretics had been treated with more clemency in Spain than in any other European country. Many of the Jews had been elevated to the highest offices in the state, being even intrusted with the education of royal princes; and their wealth as bankers rendered them indispensable to many a necessitous Aragonian or Castilian king. The just and merciful Queen Isabella for a long time resisted her husband's arbitrary policy and her confessor's bigotry, but she finally yielded, and obtained a bull from Pope Sixtus IV. for the establishment of the horrible tribunal in her own kingdom of Castile. In 1481 two thousand persons were burned to death in Spain, and seventeen thousand others were subjected to fine, imprisonment, or other lighter penalties.

The In-  
quisition.

Its  
Cruelties.

Ferdinand and Isabella were engaged in a nobler enterprise in their wars with the Moorish Kingdom of Granada. The Moors still far surpassed their Christian neighbors in the arts and sciences, and the greatest European scholars had studied at Cordova, while Arab physicians were still in demand at many European courts. Architecture was developed in the Moorish cities earlier than in Christian Europe, and travelers at this day are struck with wonder at the airy grace of the ruined arches of the Alhambra at Granada.

High Civ-  
ilization  
of the  
Moors of  
Granada.

**Granada's  
Civil  
War.**

The fall of the Moorish Kingdom of Granada was hastened by domestic dissensions among the Moors themselves. Abu Abdallah, or Boabdil, rebelled against his aged father, MULEY ALI, King of Granada, thus involving the Moorish kingdom in a disastrous civil war; but, after making peace with the Spaniards, ABU ABDALLAH was in turn opposed by his uncle, ABDALLAH THE VALIANT. The King and Queen of Spain took advantage of this civil war among the Moors, and the Spanish armies steadily advanced into the Kingdom of Granada, thus weakened by domestic dissensions. In 1487 the Spaniards took Malaga after a three months' siege; and in January, 1492, they also took Granada, the capital of the Moorish kingdom, after a siege of little more than ten years, thus putting an end to the Moorish power in Spain, which had lasted almost eight centuries. Many of the conquered Moors passed over to Africa and joined their countrymen in Morocco; and all Spain, except the little Kingdom of Navarre in the North, was united under the dominion of Ferdinand and Isabella.

**Spanish  
Invasion  
of  
Granada.**

**Ten  
Years'  
Siege and  
Capture  
of  
Granada.**

**End of  
Moorish  
Power in  
Spain.**

**Christen-  
dom's  
Joy.**

The union of all Spain under Christian rule by the conquest of Granada was hailed with joy throughout Christendom, and was regarded as an offset to the overthrow of the Eastern Roman Empire and the establishment of the Ottoman Turkish Empire in the South-east of Europe.

**Persecu-  
tion and  
Banish-  
ment of  
the Jews  
of Spain.**

Ferdinand and Isabella tarnished their triumph by an act of persecution. In spite of the dreadful warnings of the Inquisition, the great body of the Jews in Spain still firmly adhered to their national religion. The clergy now induced the covetous Ferdinand and the pious Isabella to issue an order banishing the nine hundred thousand Jews in Spain from the kingdom, although they and their ancestors had lived in Spain for centuries. The Jews heroically refused to barter their religion for the privilege of remaining. The heart-rending incidents of this sudden and compulsory emigration were numerous. Thousands perished from shipwreck, from starvation, and from diseases produced by the fatigues and exposures of the voyage. A Jewish mother was observed killing her little child rather than endure the sight of its misery. This expulsion of the most enterprising of Spanish subjects inflicted a mortal blow upon the wealth and prosperity of the Spanish nation.

**The  
Exiled  
Jews in  
Other  
Lands.**

Some of the more hardy and enterprising of the exiled Jews found new homes in other lands, where they soon acquired wealth by their industry or achieved fame by their learning. Sultan Bajazet II. of Turkey spoke thus derisively of Ferdinand: "You call this a wise sovereign, who impoverishes his own kingdom to enrich mine!"

**Jews  
Banished  
from  
Portugal.**

The example of the King and Queen of Spain was followed by their son-in-law, the King of Portugal, who, in addition to his edict banishing the Jews from his kingdom, issued a still more barbarous decree



that all Hebrew children under fourteen years of age should be wrested from their parents and dispersed throughout his kingdom.

In the very year that the arms of Ferdinand and Isabella were crowned with the conquest of Granada, A. D. 1492, the great Genoese navigator, Christopher Columbus, under the patronage of Queen Isabella, discovered America. An account of these voyages of discovery will be given more fully in a subsequent portion of this work.

Ferdinand's dominions were increased by the expulsion of the French from Naples by the Spanish forces under Gonsalvo de Cordova, *the Great Captain*, in 1503, thus giving the crown of Naples and Sicily to the King of Spain. Queen Isabella died in 1504, thus removing the last check upon her husband's meanness and selfishness.

Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, was married to the Archduke Philip of Austria, the son of the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany and his wife, the Duchess Mary of Burgundy. Philip and Joanna succeeded Isabella in the sovereignty of Castile, while Ferdinand continued to reign over Aragon and over Naples and Sicily. Philip died in 1506; and, as Joanna was insane, Ferdinand again became the actual sovereign of all Spain except the little kingdom of Navarre in the North, which was yet independent. Joanna's son Charles remained under the guardianship of his paternal grandfather, the Emperor Maximilian I. of Germany.

The part which Ferdinand played in the affairs of Italy and France is related in other parts of this work. Spain was extended to its present limits by Ferdinand's conquest and annexation of the little kingdom of Navarre, on the south side of the Pyrenees, in 1512. The Kings of Navarre were thenceforth restricted to the little kingdom of Bearn, or French Navarre, on the north side of the Pyrenees. Ferdinand died in 1516, and was succeeded by his grandson, CHARLES I., who also inherited the Netherlands and the Austrian states, and became Charles V., Emperor of Germany, in 1519.

During the first century of the modern era—the sixteenth century, or the century of the Reformation—Spain was the greatest and most powerful nation of the world, and its dominions were the most extensive, embracing the rich and flourishing Netherlands, the duchy of Milan, the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily, the Canary Islands in the Atlantic Ocean, the West Indies, Florida, Mexico, Central America, and the greater portion of the vast continent of South America, excepting the Portuguese colony of Brazil until the Spanish conquest of Portugal in 1580, when Brazil and the other Portuguese foreign dominions fell into the possession of Spain, along with Portugal itself, this union of Portugal and its foreign possessions with Spain's dominion lasting sixty years (A. D. 1580–1640).

Discovery  
of  
America  
by Co-  
lumbus.

Spanish  
Conquest  
of  
Naples.

Joanna of  
Spain  
and  
Philip of  
Austria.

Prince  
Charles.

Spanish  
Conquest  
and  
Annexa-  
tion of  
Navarre.  
French  
Navarre.

Charles  
I., A. D.  
1516-  
1556.

Spain's  
Great-  
ness.

## MEDIÆVAL SPANISH KINGS.

*Kings of Asturias and Leon.*

- A. D. 718 Pelayo.  
 737 Favila.  
 739 Alfonso I., the Catholic.  
 757 Froila I.  
 768 Aurelio.  
 774 Mauregato, the Usurper.  
 788 Bermuda I.  
 791 Alfonso II., the Chaste.  
 842 Ramirio I.  
 850 Ordone I.  
 866 Alfonso III., the Great.  
 910 Garcias.  
 914 Ordone II.  
 923 Froila II.  
 925 Alfonso IV., the Monk.  
 930 Ramirio II.  
 950 Ordone III.  
 955 Ordone IV.  
 956 Sancho I., the Fat.  
 967 Ramirio III.  
 983 Bermuda II., the Gouty.  
 999 Alfonso V.  
 1007 Bermuda III. (to 1037).

*Kings of Castile and Leon.*

- A. D. 1035 Ferdinand I., the Great.  
 1065 Sancho II., the Strong.  
 1072 Alfonso VI., the Valiant.  
 1109 Uraça and Alfonso VII.  
 1126 Alfonso VII., Raymond.  
 1157 Sancho III., the Beloved.  
 1158 Alfonso VIII., the Noble.  
 1157 Ferdinand II., King of Leon,  
 which is separated from  
 Castile from 1157 to 1188.  
 1188 Alfonso IX. of Leon.  
 1214 Henry I.  
 1217 Ferdinand III., the Saint.  
 1252 Alfonso X., the Wise.  
 1234 Sancho IV., the Brave.  
 1295 Ferdinand IV.  
 1312 Alfonso XI.  
 1350 Pedro the Cruel.  
 1369 Henry II., the Gracious.  
 1379 John I.  
 1390 Henry III., the Sickly.  
 1406 John II.  
 1454 Henry IV., the Impotent.  
 1474 Isabella (married to Ferdinand V. of Aragon, thus uniting Aragon and Castile, 1479).

*Kings of Aragon.*

- A. D. 1035 Ramiro I.  
 1065 Sancho Ramirez (IV. of Navarre).

## A. D. 1094 Pedro of Navarre.

- 1104 Alfonso I. the Warrior (Navarre).  
 1134 Ramiro II., the Meek.  
 1137 Petronilla, and Raymond of Barcelona.  
 1163 Alfonso II.  
 1196 Pedro II.  
 1213 James I.  
 1276 Pedro III.  
 1285 Alfonso III., the Beneficent.  
 1291 James II., the Just.  
 1327 Alfonso IV.  
 1336 Pedro IV., the Ceremonious.  
 1387 John I.  
 1410 An Interregnum.  
 1412 Ferdinand I., the Just (King of Sicily).  
 1416 Alfonso V., the Wise.  
 1458 John II. (of Navarre).  
 1479 Ferdinand II., the Catholic (married Isabella of Castile, thus uniting the two kingdoms).

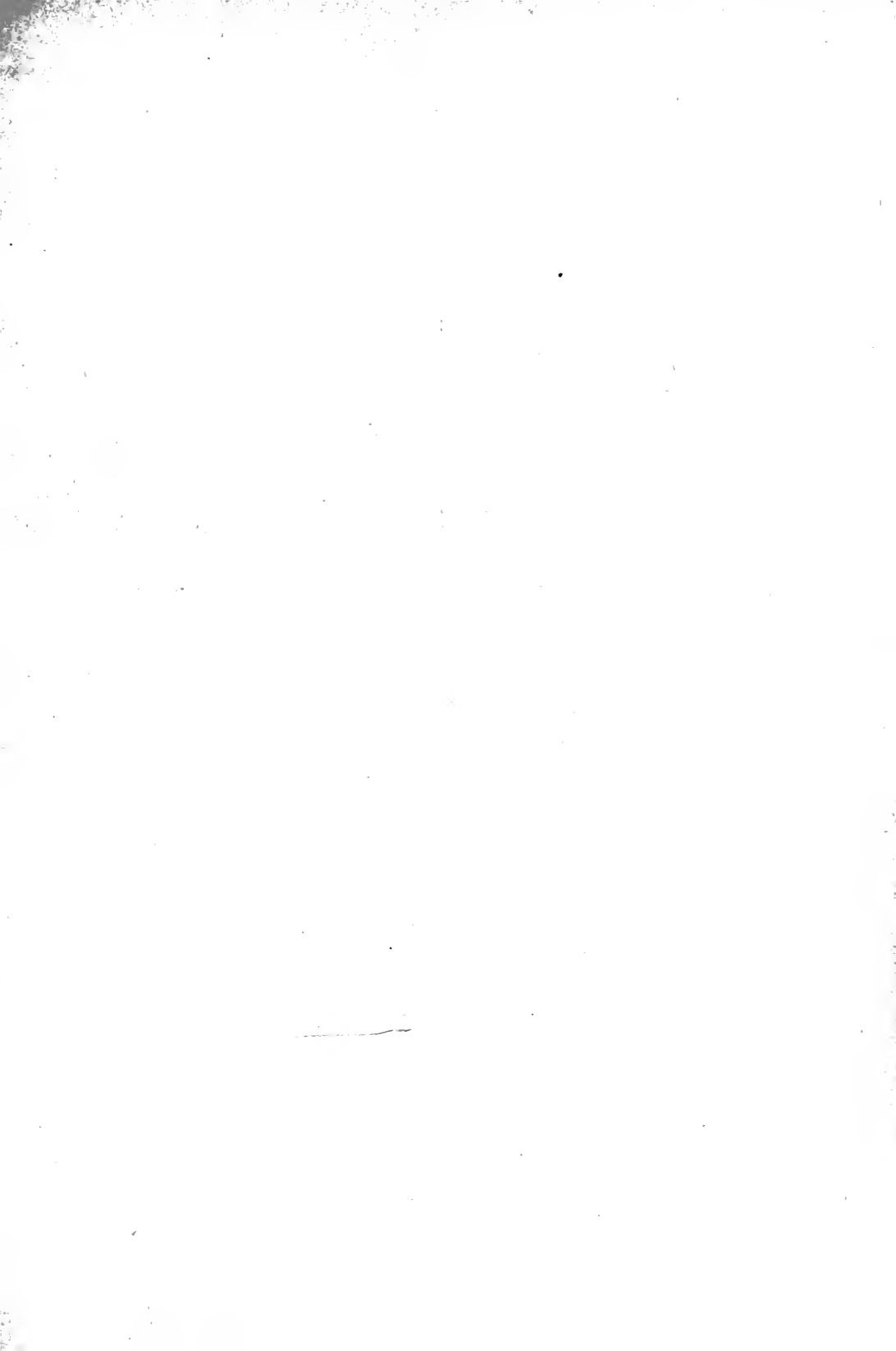
*Kings of Navarre.*

- A. D. 885 Garcias I. (Son of Count Sancho Inigo, who founded Navarre, 873).  
 905 Sancho Garcias.  
 924 Garcias II., the Trembler.  
 970 Sancho II., the Great (King of Castile).  
 1035 Garcias III.  
 1054 Sancho III.  
 1076 Sancho IV. (Ramirez of Aragon).  
 1094 Pedro of Aragon.  
 1104 Alfonso I. of Aragon.  
 1134 Garcias IV., Ramirez.  
 1150 Sancho V., the Wise.  
 1194 Sancho VI., the Infirm.  
 1234 Theobald I. (Count of Champagne).  
 1253 Theobald II.  
 1270 Henry Crassus.  
 1274 Joanna I. (married to Philip the Fair of France).  
 1305 Louis X. of France.  
 1316 John.  
 1316 Philip V. (Philip the Tall of France).  
 1322 Charles I. (Charles IV., of France).  
 1328 Joanna II. and Philip, Count d' Evreux.  
 1343 Joanna II. alone.  
 1349 Charles II., the Bad.  
 1387 Charles III., the Noble.

## MEDIÆVAL SPANISH KINGS CONTINUED.

A.D.1425 Blanche and her husband, John II.	A.D.1309 Nassir.
1479 Eleanor de Foix.	1313 Ismail I.
1479 Francis Phœbus de Foix.	1325 Mohammed IV.
1483 Catharine and John d' Albret (Navarre annexed to Spain, 1512).	1333 Jusef I.
<i>Lower Navarre (in France).</i>	1354 Mohammed V.
1516 Henry d' Albret.	1359 Ismail II.
1555 Jane d' Albret (and her husband Anthony de Bourbon, who died in 1562).	1360 Abu Said.
1572 Henry III. (became Henry IV. of France in 1589, to which Lower Navarre was annexed in 1609).	1391 Jusef II.
<i>Moorish Kings of Granada.</i>	1396 Mohammed VI.
1238 Mohammed I.	1408 Jusef III.
1273 Mohammed II.	1423 Mohammed VII. (deposed).
1302 Mohammed III.	1427 Mohammed VIII.
	1429 Mohammed VII. restored.
	1445 Mohammed IX.
	1454 Mohammed X.
	1463 Muley Ali.
	1483 Abu Abdalla.
	1484 Abdalla el Zagal (his kingdom conquered in 1492 by Ferdinand II. of Aragon and Isabella of Castile).





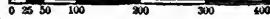
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# MAP OF EUROPE

A.D. 1200.

By I.S. Clere

SCALE OF MILES



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Longitude from Greenwich

East 70

75

65

60

55

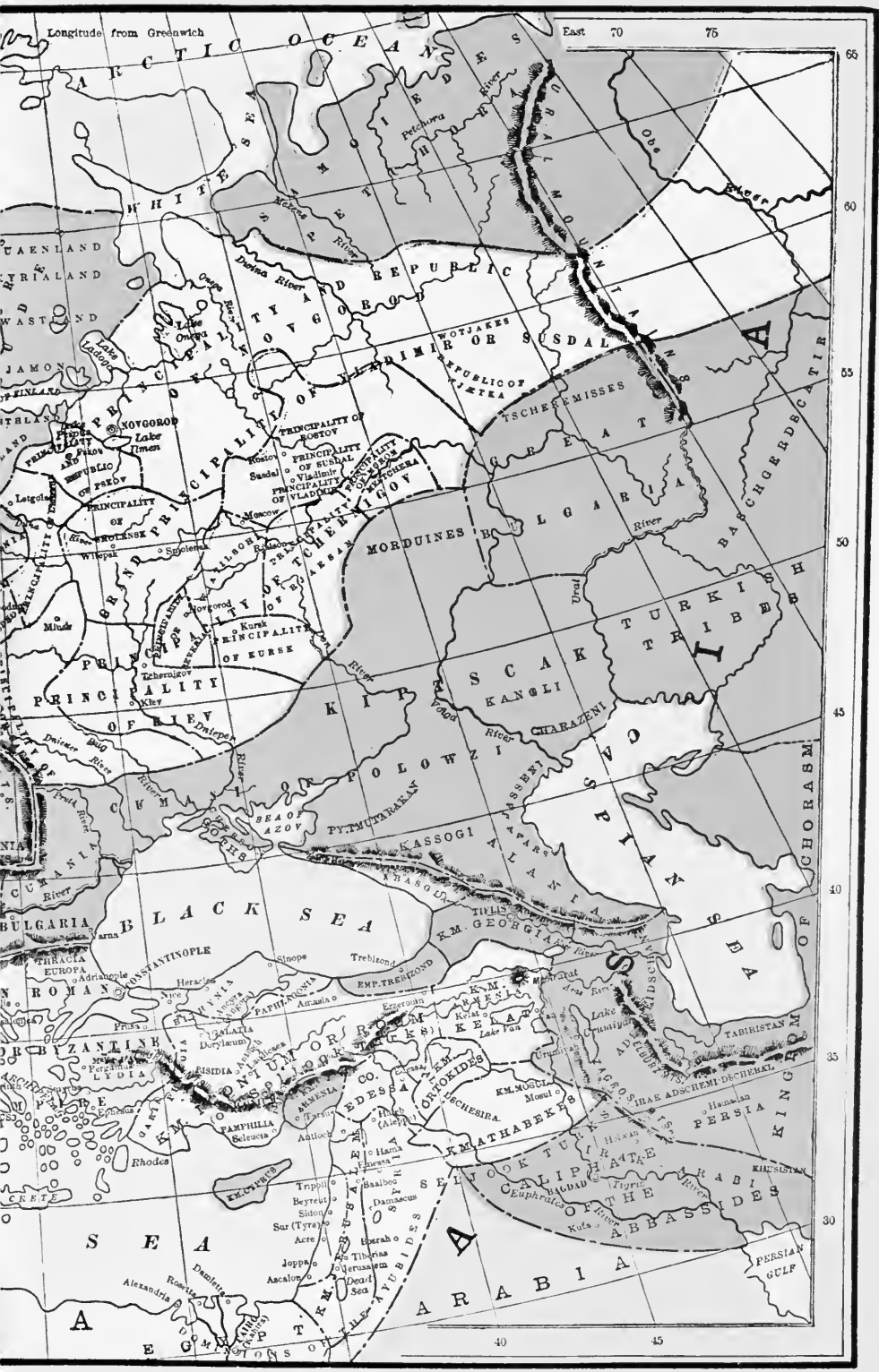
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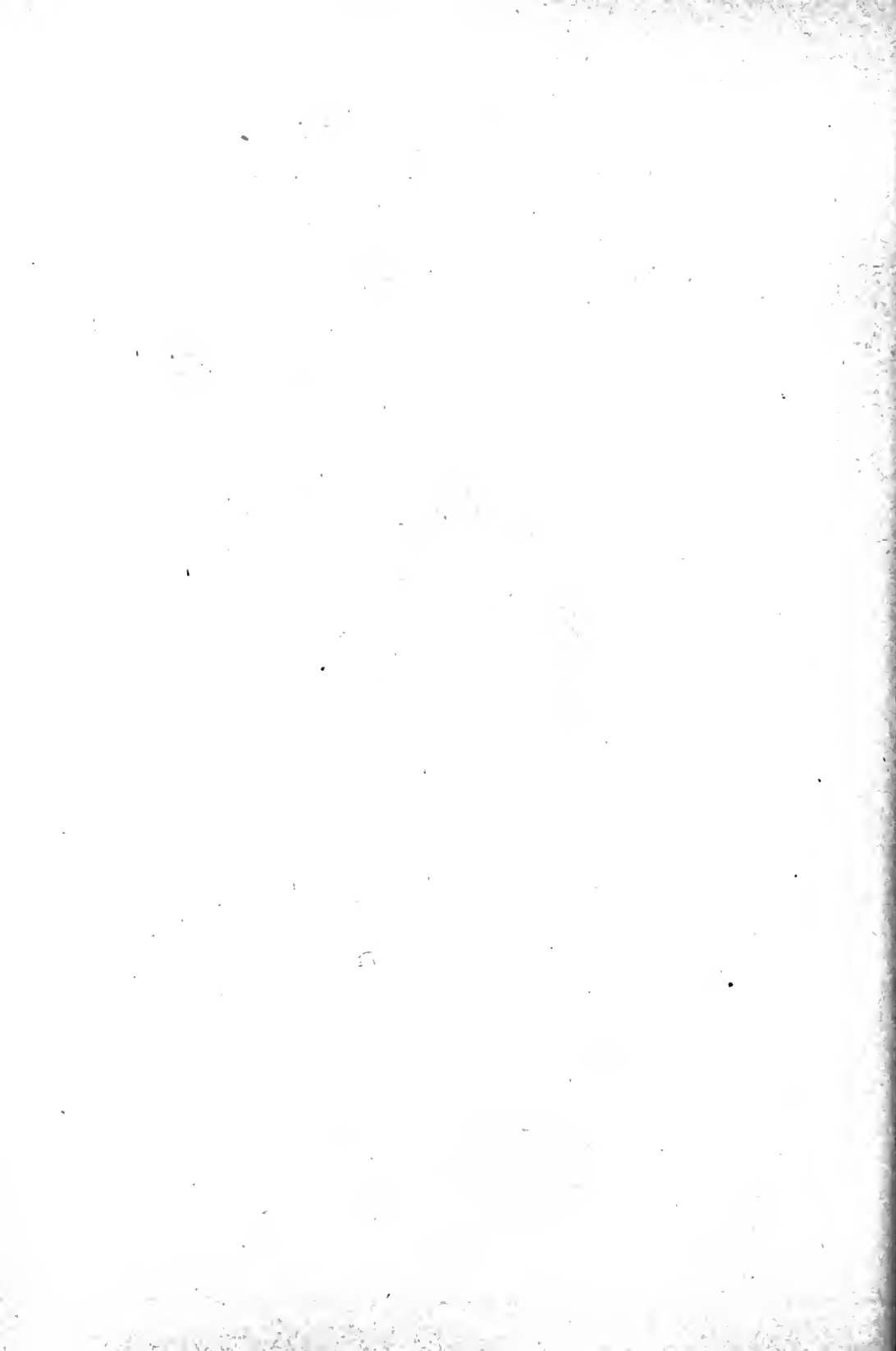
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## CHAPTER XXIX.

# FEUDAL NORTH AND EAST OF EUROPE.

### SECTION I.—SCANDINAVIAN KINGDOMS (A. D. 875–1523).

WHILE the Northmen from Scandinavia were committing their ravages throughout Europe the three Scandinavian kingdoms took their rise. Denmark was founded by Gorm the Old, and Norway by Harald Fairhair, about A. D. 875; while Sweden was founded by the royal race of the Ynglingar about A. D. 900.

**Foundin-  
of Den-  
mark,  
Norway  
and  
Sweden.**

GORM THE OLD, who reigned over Denmark from 860 to 936, ravaged the northern coast of Germany with fire and sword, plundered Charlemagne's chapel at Aix la Chapelle, took part in the first siege of Paris by the Northmen in 885, and was overwhelmingly beaten by the German king Arnulf in the battle of Louvain in 891.

**Denmark.  
Gorm  
the Old  
and His  
Raids.**

During Gorm's absence on his inroads into Germany and France his kingdom was ruled by his queen, Thyra, a woman of more than ordinary vigor of mind. Gorm the Old was a fierce pagan, but Thyra was favorably disposed toward Christianity. She caused the immense rampart of the Dannevirke to be erected across the peninsula of Denmark at the southern end of Schleswig. This rampart was eight miles long and from forty-five to seventy feet high, and was intended to protect Denmark from German invasions.

**His  
Queen,  
Thyra.**

On the death of Gorm the Old, in 936, his son HARALD BLUETOOTH became King of Denmark. Harald Bluetooth was a cruel and crafty king, and by treachery he succeeded in making Norway tributary to him for a time, but Norway soon regained its independence. Harald Bluetooth professed Christianity, and was baptized, along with his wife and his son Sweyn, by a German monk named Poppa, who also converted a considerable portion of the Danish people. Harald Bluetooth led several expeditions to France to aid young Richard the Fearless, Duke of Normandy.

**The Dan-  
nevirke.**

**Harald  
Blue-  
tooth.**

Harald Bluetooth lost his life in battle in 985, and was succeeded on the throne of Denmark by his son SWEYN I., who invaded England in 994, during the reign of Ethelred the Unready, and conquered a large

**Sweyn I**

**His Conquest of England.** portion of that kingdom. This conquest occupied some years, and in 1014 Sweyn I. died at Gainsborough, in England. Though Sweyn had been baptized in childhood, he relapsed from Christianity into paganism when he attained maturer years.

**Harald II.** Sweyn I. left two sons. One of these was HARALD II., who was elected King of Denmark. The other was CANUTE THE GREAT, who was then but fourteen years of age, and was assigned the crown of England. Canute the Great soon conquered the whole of England. Upon

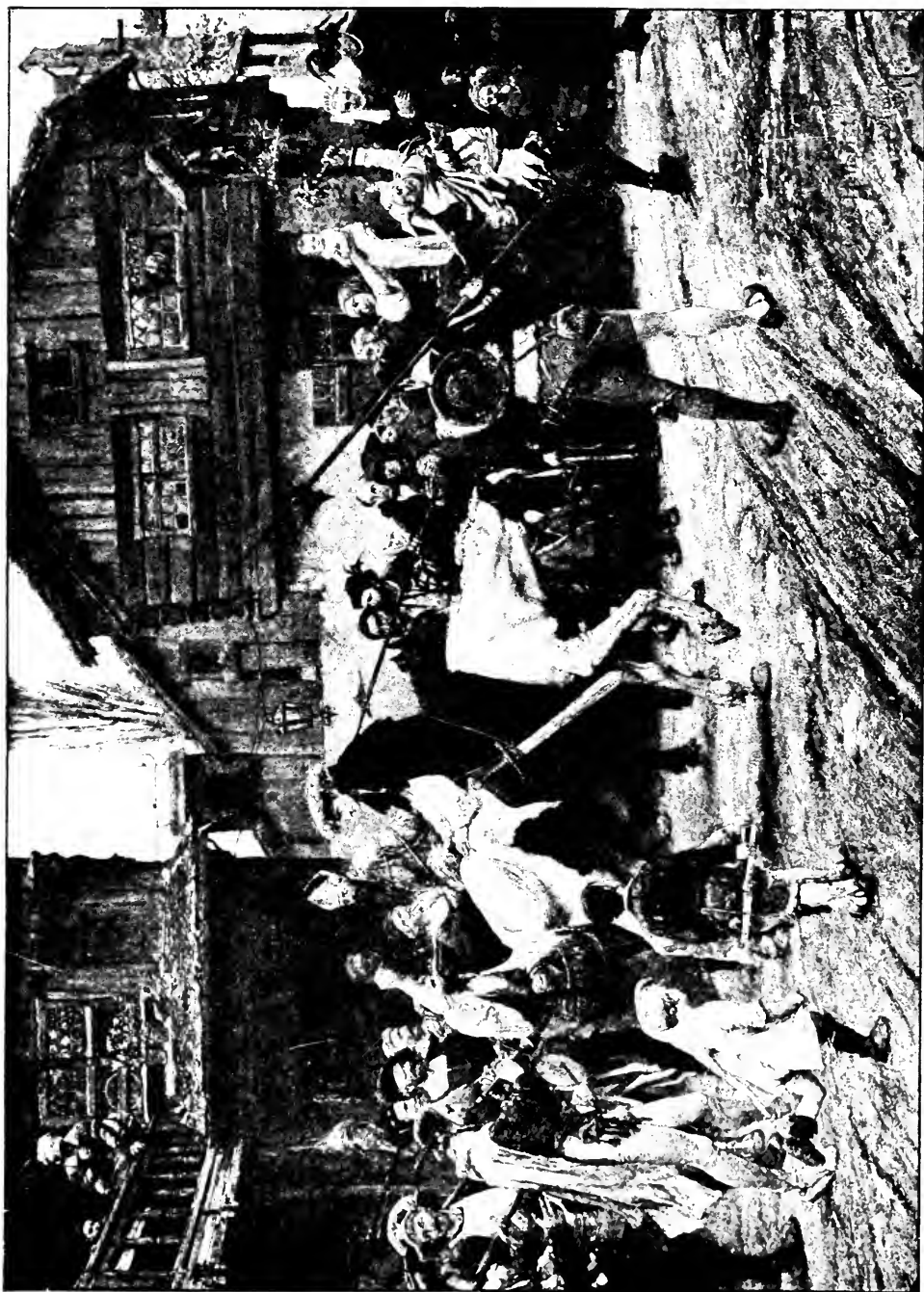
**Canute the Great.** the death of Harald II., in 1018, Canute the Great also became King of Denmark. Canute the Great had been converted to Christianity in England, and he abolished the worship of Odin in Denmark, making Christianity the state religion. Canute the Great resided chiefly in England, and his reign belongs more to English than to Danish history. He conquered Sweden in 1025 and Norway in 1027, so that before his death he wore the crowns of four kingdoms, and had founded a great Scandinavian empire.

**His Conversion.** Canute the Great died in 1036, at the age of thirty-six years; and was succeeded on the throne of Denmark by HARDICANUTE, his son by his second wife, and on the throne of England by HARALD HAREFOOT, his son by his first wife. On the death of Harald Harefoot, in 1039, Hardicanute also became King of England, after which he passed most of his time in that kingdom.

**His Reign in England.** Upon the death of Hardicanute, in 1041, MAGNUS THE GOOD, King of Norway, obtained the crown of Denmark. This was a great gain for the Danes, who enjoyed the benefits of the wise rule of Magnus the Good for five years. On the death of Magnus the Good, in 1047, SWEYN II., the nephew of Canute the Great, became King of Denmark, so that the crowns of Denmark and Norway were again separated.

**Conquest of Sweden and Norway.** Harald Hardrada, King of Norway, sought to defeat this arrangement, and for seventeen years he maintained a constant war with Denmark, inflicting great suffering upon that kingdom, until peace was made in 1064. Sweyn II. was a good sovereign and a good man, and his reign was one of great prosperity for Denmark. In 1069 he endeavored to wrest England from William the Conqueror, but failed. This was the last of the Danish attempts upon England. Sweyn II. was an ardent friend of Pope Gregory VII. (Hildebrand), with whom he maintained a constant correspondence; but when Gregory VII. ordered this Danish king to acknowledge himself a vassal of the Pope he refused to do so and resolutely maintained the independence of Denmark.

**Hardicanute and Harald Harefoot.** Sweyn II. died in 1076, and five of his fourteen sons reigned over Denmark in succession. The eldest of these, HARALD THE SIMPLE, reigned from 1076 to 1080; CANUTE IV., from 1080 to 1086; OLAF



ENTRY OF SUNNANVÄDER AND KNUIT INTO STOCKHOLM

From the Painting by C. G. Hellquist



THE HUNGRY, from 1086 to 1095; ERIK THE GOOD, from 1095 to 1103; and NIELS, from 1103 to 1134. The reigns of these five kings were distracted by internal dissensions and civil war. The death of Niels was followed by a troublesome period, during which Denmark was successively ruled by ERIK HAREFOOT, from 1135 to 1137; ERIK THE LAMB, from 1137 to 1147; SWEYN III. and CANUTE V., from 1147 to 1154; and Sweyn III. alone, from 1154 to 1157.

This distracted period was ended when WALDEMAR THE GREAT became King of Denmark, in 1157. This sovereign found his kingdom poor, without an army and in great distress; but he left it a prosperous, well-defended and busy nation. He achieved great victories over the heathen Wends and Esthonians, on the southern and eastern shores of the Baltic, compelling them to accept Christianity. Waldemar the Great died in 1182, and was succeeded by his son, CANUTE THE PIOUS, who reduced all of Pomerania and a part of Eastern Prussia under the dominion of Denmark.

On the death of Canute the Pious, in 1202, his brother, WALDEMAR THE CONQUEROR, became his successor. Waldemar the Conqueror was one of Denmark's greatest kings. He conquered and annexed the whole of Pomerania, and in 1217 the German Emperor granted to him and his successors all the territories north of the Elbe and the Elde, thus making Waldemar the Conqueror the actual master of most of Northern Germany.

With the sanction of Pope Honorius III., Waldemar the Conqueror undertook to compel the Esthonians to embrace Christianity in 1219, undertaking this task with an army of sixty thousand men and a fleet of fourteen hundred ships. He soon overran all of Esthonia, forcing many of the inhabitants to accept baptism. The Livonian Knights of the Sword bitterly opposed this Danish conversion of Esthonia, declaring that they alone had the right to convert the heathen of that region to Christianity. These knights took up arms to drive out the Danes, and in the several battles which followed between the contending forces the Danes were generally the victors.

When Waldemar the Conqueror returned from Esthonia to Denmark he seemed to be at the height of his power and greatness; but in 1223, while sleeping in his tent during a hunting expedition, he was seized, gagged and bound, along with his eldest son, Prince Waldemar, by Count Henry of Schwerin, who conveyed his captives in a swift sailing vessel to Germany and imprisoned them in a dungeon in the Castle of Danneberg, in Hanover. Waldemar the Conqueror and his son were detained in this shameful captivity for several years, and were only released upon the payment of a ransom of forty-five thousand silver marks.

**Walde-  
mar the  
Great.**

**Canute  
the Pious.**

**Walde-  
mar the  
Con-  
queror.**

**Conquest  
of Pom-  
erania.**

**His Con-  
version of  
Esthonia.**

**His War  
with the  
Livonian  
Knights.**

**His  
Captivity  
in  
Germany.**

Dissolu-  
tion  
of His  
Empire.

Waldemar the Conqueror's vast empire fell to pieces during his captivity, his German provinces reverting to the dominion of their Emperor. Waldemar was unable to avenge himself upon Count Henry of Schwerin, and he applied himself to the improvement of his kingdom.

His Code  
of Laws.

In 1241 he gave Denmark her first uniform code of laws—a code which remained in force for almost four and a-half centuries, and was not wholly abolished even then. Waldemar the Conqueror died three days after the Danish Diet had adopted his code, at the age of seventy-one years, A. D. 1241.

Erik IV.

As Prince Waldemar had died before his father, Waldemar the Conqueror's second son, ERIK IV., succeeded his father on the throne of Denmark. Erik IV. was assassinated in 1251 by his brother ABEL, Duke of Schleswig, who then acquired the Danish crown. During

Abel.

Abel's short reign of less than two years the burgher class were first allowed representation in the *Danehof*, the yearly national assembly of Denmark. The burghers were also then granted important municipal privileges which they had not previously enjoyed. King Abel was as-

The  
Burgher  
Class.

assassinated in 1252 by a man whom he had wronged, and was succeeded by his brother CHRISTOPHER I.

Chris-  
topher I.

Erik  
Glipping.

On the death of Christopher I., in 1259, his son ERIK GLIPPING, a child of ten years, became King of Denmark. On the death of Erik Glipping, in 1286, his son ERIK MENVED, also a child of ten years, succeeded to the Danish throne, and reigned until his death in 1319. Under Erik Glipping and Erik Menved the royal power in Denmark rapidly declined, and the Hanseatic League dictated the terms upon which the Danes should engage in the fisheries.

Erik  
Menved.

Chris-  
topher II.

Upon the death of Erik Menved, in 1319, his brother CHRISTOPHER II. ascended the throne of Denmark. After electing Christopher II. king, the Danish nobles compelled him to sign a charter rendering them almost independent of the Danish crown and entirely exempting them from royal taxation, thus reducing vastly the royal revenues.

His  
Charter  
to His  
Nobles.

Civil  
Wars.

The efforts of Christopher II. to release himself from these hard conditions involved his kingdom in many civil wars. In 1325 the Danish nobles obtained the assistance of Count Gerhard of Holstein, who defeated Christopher II. and induced the Danes to dethrone their king. Count Gerhard then made his nephew, WALDEMAR of Schleswig, King of Denmark; but Count Gerhard was himself the real ruler of Denmark for fourteen years (A. D. 1326–1340), greatly oppressing the Danish people and thus incurring their bitter hatred. The deposed Christopher II. failed in many efforts to recover his throne, and died in 1332.

Walde-  
mar of  
Schleswig  
and  
Count  
Gerhard  
of  
Holstein.

Gerhard's  
Murder.

In 1340 Count Gerhard of Holstein was assassinated in the midst of his nobles and his troops by a Jutlander of rank named Niels Ebbesön. The Jutlanders instantly rallied under this intrepid leader and drove

the German troops from Denmark. Count Henry of Holstein, Gerhard's son and successor, took up arms to avenge his father's murder, and defeated the Danes in the battle of Skandersborg, in which Niels Ebbesön was slain. Count Henry then retired to Holstein with his troops, leaving the Danes to manage their own affairs.

Danes  
Defeated  
by Count  
Henry of  
Holstein.

The Danish nobles elected WALDEMAR ATTERDAG, the youngest son of Christopher II., King of Denmark. Waldemar Atterdag revived the power and credit of the Danish kingdom, and was successful in a war with the Hanseatic League. Desiring to secure the marriage of his daughter Margaret with the Crown Prince of Sweden and Norway, he seized the Princess Elizabeth of Holstein-Gottorp, who was betrothed to that prince, and detained her in captivity until he had effected his daughter's marriage with the heir to the Swedish throne. This proceeding involved Waldemar Atterdag in a war with the Counts of Holstein, who formed an alliance with the Hanseatic League and some of the German princes against the Danish king. Waldemar Atterdag was defeated with the loss of a large part of his kingdom, and was obliged to flee from Denmark in 1368. The Hanseatic League managed the affairs of Denmark for four years, but permitted Waldemar Atterdag to return to the Danish throne in 1372 on condition that the Hanseatic League should have a voice in the election of the Danish kings in the future.

Walde-  
mar  
Atterdag.

His  
Seizure of  
Princess  
Elizabeth  
of  
Holstein.

His Wars  
with the  
Hanseatic  
League  
and the  
Counts of  
Holstein.

Waldemar Atterdag died in 1375, whereupon the Danish nobles chose to the Danish throne OLAF V., the son of Margaret, Queen of Sweden and Norway, Waldemar Atterdag's daughter. Upon the death of Olaf V., in 1387, at the age of seventeen, the Danish nobles elected his mother MARGARET, "the Semiramis of the North," to the throne of Denmark. Soon afterward Margaret was crowned Queen of Norway, thus uniting Denmark and Norway under one crown.

Olaf V.

Margaret,  
"the  
Semiramis  
of the  
North."

HARALD HARFAGER, or HARALD FAIRHAIR, the founder of the Kingdom of Norway, reigned from A. D. 863 to 933. The high-spirited Norse chieftains whom he reduced under his dominion could not endure their subjugation, and embarked with their followers in piratical expeditions against the coasts of all Europe.

Founding  
of  
Norway  
by  
Harald  
Fairhair.

Upon Harald Fairhair's death, in 933, his son ERIK THE CRUEL became King of Norway, and reigned five years. Exasperated by his tyranny, his subjects rose against him in 938 and drove him from Norway, after which they conferred the Norwegian crown upon his brother HAKON THE GOOD, who had been educated in England at the court of King Athelstan, from which circumstance he was called "Athelstan's foster son." Hakon the Good was a wise and good monarch, and the Norwegian people justly cherish his memory to this day. He gave Norway a code of laws, and also endeavored to introduce Christianity

Erik the  
Cruel.

Hakon  
the Good.

His Good  
Reign.

His De-  
feat and  
Death.

into his kingdom, but his subjects were staunch pagans, and it required three centuries for their conversion. The sons of Erik the Cruel, aided by Denmark, made repeated efforts to seize the Norwegian crown; and Hakon the Good lost his life in battle with them in 963.

Erik  
Graafell.

ERIK GRAAFELL, Erik the Cruel's son, and his cousin, HAKON JARL, divided Norway between them until Hakon Jarl's death, in 995, when the Norwegians revolted, and placed OLAF TRYGVÆSON on the throne of Norway. Olaf Trygvæson is one of the great heroes of Norwegian romance, and his exploits constitute a fruitful theme for the songs of poets. He destroyed the pagan temples, and founded the city of Drontheim.

His De-  
feat and  
Death  
by the  
Danes.

He was defeated by the Danes in a great naval battle in the year A. D. 1000, and when all was lost he sprang overboard in full armor to escape capture, and was drowned. For the next fifteen years Norway suffered severely from Danish and Swedish attacks.

Olaf the  
Saint.

OLAF THE SAINT drove out the Danish and Swedish oppressors of Norway in 1015, thus restoring the independence and unity of Norway.

His Chris-  
tianiza-  
tion of  
Norway.

Olaf the Saint completed the establishment of the Christian religion in Norway, but accomplished this result in so harsh and cruel a manner that all classes of his subjects were aroused against him. In 1027 Canute the Great of Denmark and England invaded Norway, defeated Olaf the Saint and drove him from his kingdom, and annexed Norway to his own dominions. Olaf the Saint afterward returned and made an effort to recover the Norwegian crown, but was defeated and slain in the battle of Sticklestad.

Conquest  
of Nor-  
way by  
Canute  
the  
Great.

Canute the Great then assigned Norway to his son SWEYN II.; but in 1035 Sweyn II. was driven out by MAGNUS THE BASTARD, the illegitimate son of Olaf the Saint. Magnus the Bastard lost his life in battle with the Danes in 1047, and was succeeded on the throne of Norway by his uncle HARALD HARDRADA, who inflicted great suffering upon Denmark in a war of seventeen years. In 1066 Harald Hardrada invaded England for the purpose of wresting that kingdom from Harold, the last of its Saxon kings, but was defeated and killed in the battle of Stamford Bridge, in Yorkshire, September 25, 1066.

Sweyn II.  
Magnus  
the  
Bastard.

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Harald  
Hardrada.

His De-  
feat and  
Death in  
England.

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Olaf III.  
Magnus  
Barefoot.

OLAF III., the eldest son of Harald Hardrada, then became King of Norway. His reign was peaceful and prosperous, and he won the affection of his subjects. He endeavored to introduce European civilization into his kingdom. Olaf III. died in 1093, and was succeeded on the throne of Norway by his son MAGNUS BAREFOOT, who invaded and conquered the Isle of Man, the Hebrides, the Orkneys and the Shetlands. Magnus Barefoot also invaded Ireland, but was defeated and killed in battle with the Irish, A. D. 1103.

His De-  
feat and  
Death in  
Ireland.

Ejsten I.,  
Sigurd I.,  
and  
Olaf IV.

Upon the death of Magnus Barefoot the Norwegians made his three sons, EJSTEN I., SIGURD I. and OLAF IV., joint Kings of Norway.



Olaf IV. died when a child, and Ejsten I. followed him in 1123, leaving Sigurd I. sole sovereign. Sigurd I. is one of the great heroes of Norway. He fought against the Moors, made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem and there joined his arms with those of King Baldwin, and captured and plundered Sidon.

After the death of Sigurd I., in 1130, Norway was afflicted with anarchy and civil war for fifty-four years, various princes contending for the Norwegian crown. MAGNUS IV. and HARALD IV., the sons of Sigurd I., first rent the kingdom with turmoil. In 1136 SIGURD II., INGE I., EJSTEN II., HAKON III. and MAGNUS V. claimed the sovereignty.

SVERRE restored order and tranquillity to Norway in 1184. He pretended to be a son of Sigurd II., but was generally believed to be the son of a brushmaker. On Sverre's death, in 1202, his only son, HAKON III., became King of Norway. Hakon III. died in 1204, and was succeeded on the Norwegian throne by GUTHRUM, a grandson of Sverre. Guthrum was a mere child, and died after a reign of a few months; after which the Norwegian crown passed to INGE BAARDBSEN, a nephew of Sverre. Inge Baardsen's entire reign was passed in civil wars with rival claimants for the Norwegian crown.

Upon Inge Baardsen's death, in 1217, HAKON IV., the son of Hakon III., ascended the throne of Norway. Hakon IV. was a wise and powerful monarch, and conquered Iceland in 1261. He made an effort to subdue Scotland in 1262, but was defeated in a battle at the mouth of the Clyde, and soon afterward died in the Orkneys. MAGNUS VI., the son and successor of Hakon IV., sold the Hebrides to Scotland; and his son Erik married the daughter of the Scottish king, Alexander III. Magnus VI. was a good king, and greatly improved the laws of Norway.

On the death of Magnus VI., in 1280, his son ERIK THE PRIEST-HATER became King of Norway. Erik the Priest-hater died in 1299; and, as he left no sons, he was succeeded by his only brother HAKON V., who was a good sovereign, and so won the affections of his subjects that at his death in 1319 they conferred the crown of Norway on MAGNUS SMÆK, King of Sweden, who was the son of Ingeborg, the daughter of Hakon V., by her marriage with Erik, the brother of one of the previous Kings of Sweden.

In 1350 Magnus Smæk abdicated the crown of Norway in favor of his second son HAKON VI., who had married Margaret of Denmark. Upon the death of Hakon VI., in 1380, his son OLAF V., Olaf II. of Denmark, became King of Norway, under the regency of his mother Margaret. Upon the death of Olaf V., in 1387, MARGARET of Denmark also became Queen of Norway.

Anarchy  
and Civil  
War.

Rival  
Claim-  
ants.

Sverre.

Hakon  
III.

Guthrum.

Inge  
Baardsen.

Hakon  
IV.

His De-  
feat in  
Scotland.

Magnus  
VI.

Erik the  
Priest-  
hater.

Hakon V.

Magnus  
Smæk of  
Sweden.

Hakon VI.

Olaf V.

Margaret  
of  
Denmark.

- Norway's Decline.** Norway had steadily declined since the death of Hakon VI. in 1380. The kingdom was exhausted by the constant wars with Denmark, and the monopoly of trade which the Hanseatic League enjoyed interfered with the industry of the Norwegian people. The Black Plague, which spread over Europe in 1348, scourged the kingdom for two years, destroying more than two-thirds of its people; and Norway did not recover from its effects for centuries.
- The Black Plague.**
- Sweden under Olaf the Lap-king.** The authentic history of Sweden begins with OLAF THE LAP-KING, who began to reign A. D. 993, and who received his surname from the circumstance that he had received the homage of his princes while he was an infant in his mother's arms. St. Ansgar, "the Apostle of the North," had introduced Christianity into Sweden in 829; but it had made slow progress. Olaf the Lap-king embraced the new religion and founded a bishopric at Skara, but he could not induce his subjects to accept Christianity, and they continued pagans for over a century longer.
- His Conversion by St. Ansgar.**
- Edmund Colbrenner.** Olaf the Lap-king died in 1024, and was succeeded as King of Sweden by his son EDMUND COLBRENNER, who died in 1052, when his brother EDMUND SLEMME ascended the Swedish throne. Edmund Slemme was the last of the Upsala line of Swedish sovereigns, and died in 1055. His reign was mainly signalized by a great persecution of the Christians.
- Edmund Slemme.**
- Civil War of Goths and Swedes.** After the death of Edmund Slemme, in 1055, a fierce war broke out between the Goths and the Swedes, the two chief races in the kingdom; and the Goths succeeded in placing STENKIL, one of their own chiefs, upon the Swedish throne as King of the Goths and the Swedes. Stenkil was a Christian. Anarchy prevailed in the Swedish kingdom for the next century, and the period was signalized by the incessant struggles between the Swedes and the Goths. Stenkil's successors on the Swedish throne were HALSTAN, from 1066 to 1090; INGO THE GREAT, from 1090 to 1112; PHILIP, from 1112 to 1118; and INGO II., from 1118 to 1135.
- Stenkil.**
- Anarchy.**
- Civil Wars of Goths and Swedes.**
- Sverker I.** SVERKER I., a Christian, became King of Sweden in 1135. He made great exertions for the establishment of Christianity in his kingdom, and erected many churches and monasteries. He restored order and prosperity to Sweden, and vastly improved the administration of justice. Sverker I. died in 1155, and was succeeded on the Swedish throne by his cousin ERIK THE SAINT, who improved the laws of his kingdom and promoted the spread of Christianity. Erik the Saint conquered a large portion of Finland and forced it to accept the Christian religion. He died in 1160.
- Christianity.**
- Erik the Saint.**
- During the reigns of CHARLES SVERKERSSON (A. D. 1160-1167), CANUTE ERICSSON (A. D. 1167-1195), SVERKER II. (A. D. 1195-

1210), ERIK CANUTESSION (A. D. 1210-1216), JOHN SVERKERSSON (A. D. 1216-1222), and ERIK LÆSPE (A. D. 1222-1250) Christianity spread rapidly in Sweden, and the clergy became the most powerful order in the kingdom. During this entire period of ninety years the only things to record in the affairs of Sweden are the dissensions, civil wars and assassinations of kings, and the disorder and misery of the entire kingdom. The Benedictine monks were the only class of men who did anything to lessen these evils, and many of them had come from England. These zealous men first taught the Swedes how to till the soil and plant gardens, to prepare salt, to build and work water-mills, and to make roads and bridges.

A more certain period of Swedish history commenced in 1250. WALDEMAR, the son of the chief of the powerful family of the Folkungar, was elected King of Sweden; and with him began the dynasty of the Folkungar. Waldemar died in 1275, and was succeeded on the Swedish throne by his brother, MAGNUS BARNLOCK, so called because he protected the granaries of his subjects from the rapacity of the nobles. He was a wise king, and greatly increased the royal power. After the death of Magnus Barnlock, in 1290, a long period of civil war ensued between his three sons.

MAGNUS SMÆK, the grandson of Magnus Barnlock, became King of Sweden in 1319, at the age of only three years. In 1320 he became King of Norway by right of his mother. He afterward married his son Hakon to Margaret of Denmark, as already noticed, and placed him on the throne of Norway. As the three Scandinavian kingdoms were now so closely allied, Magnus Smæk undertook to abolish the Swedish Senate, but was dethroned; and in 1363 ALBERT of Mecklenburg was elected King of Sweden. His reign closed the first period of Swedish history.

We have now reached an important epoch in the history of the three Scandinavian kingdoms. Queen Margaret of Denmark and Norway, "the Semiramis of the North," was one of the most remarkable women in history. She was a wise and good sovereign to both Denmark and Norway, and greatly endeared herself to her subjects. She adopted as her heir Erik of Pomerania, the grandson of her sister Ingeborg, and earnestly sought to render him worthy of his destiny. She made peace with her old enemies, and maintained good order among her subjects, winning both nobles and peasants to her side. She proceeded from castle to castle, and received the homage and faithful service of the great. She went from province to province, and looked well into matters of law and of right, until all obeyed and served her. Justice was done in her two kingdoms; and even the high-born sea-robbers, who had plagued the kingdoms and defied the laws for so long a period, were seized with

Six  
Trouble-  
some  
Reigns.  
Chris-  
tianity.

Civil  
Wars and  
'Anarchy.

The Bene-  
dictine  
Monks.

Walde-  
mar.

Magnus  
Barnlock.

Magnus  
Smæk.

His  
Dethrone-  
ment.

Albert of  
Meck-  
lenburg.

Margaret  
of  
Denmark,  
"the  
Semir-  
amis  
of the  
North."

Her Wise  
and Good  
Reign in  
Denmark  
and  
Norway.

terror and were glad to come forward and give surety in money for their future good behavior.

Her Invasion of Sweden and Defeat of King Albert.

Not satisfied with her two kingdoms of Denmark and Norway, Margaret also claimed the crown of Sweden in right of her husband. In 1389 she invaded that kingdom and defeated its king, Albert of Mecklenburg, and kept him a prisoner for six years. She assumed the government of Sweden immediately after her victory. In 1397 she proclaimed an act of union, known as the *Union of Calmar*, uniting the three Scandinavian kingdoms under one scepter, the king to be elected conjointly by the three nations. On this occasion Margaret caused her grandnephew, ERIK of Pomerania, to be crowned with great state at Calmar as King of Denmark, Norway and Sweden.

Union of Calmar.

Erik of Pomerania.

Norway's Absorption by Denmark.

After the Union of Calmar the Norwegians entirely lost their independence, and the Danish influence became supreme in Norway. The Norwegian nobles were destroyed as an order, and were obliged to give way to Danish immigrants. For several centuries after Margaret, Norway had no separate existence, being little more than a province of Denmark.

Margaret's Successors under the Union of Calmar.

The Union of Calmar was distasteful to the Swedes, but remained in force for more than a century. This union might have been productive of good to the three Scandinavian kingdoms if Margaret's successors had been as good and as just as she had been. It was true, as Margaret said, that each one of the three kingdoms alone was a poor, weak state, exposed to danger on all sides, but that the three united would make a monarchy sufficiently strong to defy the attacks and schemes of the Hanseatic League and all foes from the side of Germany, and would keep the Baltic clear of danger from foreigners. But none of Margaret's successors were equal to her, as none of her predecessors could be compared to her. After Margaret's sudden death, in 1412, Erik remained sole sovereign of Scandinavia.

Incapacity of Erik of Pomerania.

Erik was a weak and incompetent monarch. During Margaret's last years he had exhibited signs of incapacity, but her abilities had saved him from the consequences of his blunders. He devoted his chief energies to the conquest of Holstein, but his operations were generally unsuccessful. He married Philippa, the daughter of King Henry IV. of England, and her remarkable abilities had much to do with prolonging his reign.

His Dethronement and Exile.

In 1435 the Swedes rose against Erik to resist his oppression of them, and in 1439 a council of state declared him deposed in Sweden. The Danes followed the example of the Swedes by deposing Erik in Denmark. Erik was then absent in the island of Gothland, and sought to return to Denmark, but was not permitted to land, and died in 1459, poor and neglected.

**CHRISTOPHER III.**, the son of the Duke of Bavaria and the nephew of Erik, was elected King of Denmark, and was crowned the same year, A. D. 1439. In 1442 he was also proclaimed King of Sweden and Norway. He died in 1448, and **CHARLES CANUTESSION** became King of Sweden.

**Chris-  
topher III.**

**Charles  
Canutes-  
son.**

The Danish nobles then conferred the crown of Denmark on Count Christian of Oldenburg, a descendant of the ancient Danish kings, with the title of **CHRISTIAN I.** He married the widow of Christopher III., and was readily acknowledged king by the Danes, thus establishing the House of Oldenburg, which has ever since occupied the throne of Denmark. In 1450 Christian I. was crowned King of Norway, and he also claimed the crown of Sweden and strove hard to obtain it, but was unable to obtain a firm footing in that country. In 1469 Christian I. married his daughter Margaret to the young King James III. of Scotland, and ceded the Orkney and Shetland Isles to that kingdom in lieu of her dowry.

**Christian  
I., First  
of the  
House of  
Olden-  
burg,  
A. D.  
1448-  
1481.**

**Relations  
with  
Scotland.**

Christian I. died in 1481, and was succeeded by his eldest son **JOHN**, who obtained the crown of Denmark only by making hard terms with the Danish nobles, with whom he was unpopular. John failed in his efforts to obtain the crown of Sweden; but he defeated the Lübeck traders, and greatly restrained the insolence of the Hanseatic League. John died in 1513, and was succeeded on the thrones of Denmark and Norway by his only son, **CHRISTIAN II.**

**John,  
A. D.  
1481-  
1513.**

**Christian  
II., A. D.  
1513-  
1523.**

After the death of Charles Canutesson, in 1471, Sweden came under the government of **STENO STURE I.**, a valiant and sagacious ruler, who curbed the insolence of the Swedish nobles, elevated the peasant and burgher classes, founded the University of Upsala, and invited learned men and printers from other countries into Sweden. Steno Sture I. governed Sweden with almost absolute power, and died in 1504. His second successor, **STENO STURE II.**, who became ruler of Sweden in 1512, quarreled with the Archbishop of Upsala; whereupon the tyrannical Christian II. of Denmark reëstablished the Danish supremacy over Sweden, Steno Sture II. being defeated and mortally wounded in battle, A. D. 1520; but the cruel massacre of ninety-four Swedish nobles at Stockholm led to Sweden's liberation by the valiant Gustavus Vasa in 1523, of which we shall give a more full account in a subsequent part of this work.

**Sweden  
under  
Steno  
Sture I.  
and Steno  
Sture II.**

**Sweden's  
Liberation  
by  
Gustavus  
Vasa.**

Here the history of the mediæval or feudal period of the three Scandinavian kingdoms ends. These remote Northern kingdoms formed a separate world, as it were, from the nations of Central, Western and Southern Europe, being looked upon as semi-civilized or barbarous by those nations, the latter being influenced and moulded by the remnants of ancient civilization and culture.

**End of  
Feudal  
Scandi-  
navia.**

## SECTION II.—RUSSIA, OR MUSCOVY (A. D. 862–1505).

Rurik,  
Founder  
of the  
Grand  
Duchy of  
Great  
Russia,  
A. D.  
862–879.

IN A. D. 862 RURIK, a Varangian or pirate chief of the Norman or Scandinavian tribe of Russ, received the invitation of the people of the powerful commercial city of Novgorod, on Lake Ilmen, the capital of a Slavonic principality, to become their ruler. Rurik accepted the invitation and founded the *Grand Duchy of Great Russia*, with Novgorod for its capital. This Norman Varangian chieftain is therefore considered the founder of the Russian Empire.

Greatness  
of  
Novgorod.

The Slavic cities of Novgorod and Kiev had each already for several centuries been the capital of an independent Slavic principality. Novgorod had become so powerful that it was commonly said among its neighbors: "Who can resist God and the Great Novgorod!" Kelly says that its commerce extended to Persia and even to India, and from Constantinople to Vineta, a commercial city at the mouth of the Oder. The surrounding nations were its tributaries, from Lithuania to the Ural mountains, and from Bielo Ozero and Lake Rostof to the White Sea. The most active commerce of Novgorod was carried on through the Baltic, for a long time held by the Russian Varangians, a Scandinavian tribe of warriors, who several times reduced Novgorod to tribute.

Rurik  
and the  
Republic  
of  
Novgorod.

The old Russian chronicle says that Rurik and his two brothers were invited to serve as auxiliaries of the republic of Novgorod for its defense against foreign aggression. After accepting the invitation the three brothers established themselves on the three principal frontiers of the republic—Rurik at Old Ladoga, near the Volkhof; Sinaf at Bielo Ozero, on the northern bank of the lake of the same name; and Truvor at Izborsk, near Pleskof. These positions enabled the Varangian princes to secure the republic against external attacks and likewise to extend their power over it, as they held the chief outlets of its foreign trade. Novgorod was obliged to submit to Rurik and his brothers to save its commerce; and in A. D. 864 Rurik took peaceable possession of this city of wooden huts and barbarian traders, and established his authority over its territories.

Slavic  
Cities  
under  
Rurik's  
Fol-  
lowers.

As Rurik's two brothers died childless, his rule was undisputed. He was joined by hordes of his Scandinavian countrymen, and bestowed upon them the other Slavic cities, one of his followers taking possession of Kiev, which traded with Constantinople. Rurik gave his Slavonic subjects Scandinavian laws, reigned fifteen years at Novgorod, and died in 879.

Oleg,  
A. D.  
879–913.

As Igor, Rurik's son, was a child four years of age at the time of his father's death, Rurik bequeathed his crown to his cousin OLEG, whom he appointed guardian of his son. This was a wise choice, as Oleg

proved to be a great sovereign and a great conqueror. He was also a faithful guardian of the young prince, and while he held the crown of Great Russia during his life-time he was careful to secure the succession of Igor.

**His Greatness.**

Oleg vastly extended the Russian dominion. He took Smolensk in 882; and shortly afterward he seized Kiev by a bold stratagem, and made that city one of the capitals of his empire. Kiev had previously been converted to Christianity, and Oleg wisely tolerated and protected that religion, though he was himself a pagan. He next conquered the region between Novgorod and Kiev, thus uniting his two capitals; after which he subdued the Khazars, a Turanian nation that had established a powerful kingdom between the Dnieper and the Caspian Sea in the seventh and eighth centuries. Oleg then drove the Magyars beyond the Russian frontiers into the valleys of the Theiss and the Middle Danube, where their descendants still remain, and firmly established his authority in the conquered lands.

**His Conquest of Kiev, Smolensk and the Khazars.**

**His Expulsion of the Magyars.**

Oleg had always desired to extend his dominion at the expense of the Eastern Roman Empire. When he had settled the domestic affairs of his kingdom he descended the Dnieper to the Black Sea with an army of eighty thousand men and a fleet of nine hundred galleys, and attacked Constantinople, fixing his shield on the gate of that city as a trophy, and compelling the Greek Emperor to agree to a humiliating treaty and to pay an immense ransom; after which he returned to Kiev with a vast amount of booty, A. D. 911.

**His Attack on Constantinople.**

**Tribute from the Greek Emperor.**

Karamsin, the great Russian historian, says that Oleg "is to be regarded as the founder of the empire's greatness, for to him it owes its finest and richest provinces. Rurik's sway extended from Esthonia, the Slav sources, and the Volkhof, to Bielo Ozero, the mouth of the Oka, and the city of Rostof. Oleg subjugated all the countries from Smolensk to the Sula, the Dniester, and probably to the Carpathian mountains."

**Karamsin's Sketch of Oleg.**

Oleg died in 913, after a reign of thirty-three years, and was succeeded on the Russian throne by IGOR, Rurik's son. Igor was thirty-eight years old at his accession, and proved to be an able sovereign. At the beginning of his reign the Drevlians, encouraged by Oleg's death, revolted against Russian rule, but were reduced to submission by Igor, who likewise conquered the Petchenegs, who occupied the Black Sea coast from the mouths of the Danube to the mouths of the Dnieper.

**Igor, A. D. 913-945.**

**His Conquest of the Drevlians and Petchenegs.**

Igor led an expedition against Constantinople in 941, but was driven back with the loss of two-thirds of his force. He was not discouraged by this reverse, but prepared to avenge it, and for this purpose he led a second expedition against the Greek capital in 944. His march was stayed at the mouths of the Danube by the Greek Emperor's offers to

**His Expeditions against Constantinople.**

**The  
Greek  
Em-  
peror's  
Tribute.**

pay him the same tribute that Oleg had received. Igor accepted the offer, and concluded a treaty with the Emperor Constantine VIII. in 945, similar to the humiliating treaty which Oleg had imposed upon the Emperor.

**Igor's  
Death  
in a  
Massacre  
by the  
Drev-  
lians.**

Igor was now an old man, and desired to pass the remainder of his life in peace, but the insatiable cupidity of his followers obliged him to undertake new wars, one being with the Drevlians, whom he plundered without mercy. They surprised him near Korosten and massacred him and his entire guard, A. D. 945.

**Sviatos-  
laf, A. D.  
945-972.**

SVIATOSLAF, Igor's only son, and the first sovereign bearing a Russian name, was very young at the time of his father's death; and the government fell into the possession of Olga, Igor's widow, who acted as regent for her son. Olga took a frightful vengeance on the Drevlians for the murder of her husband, but her rule was as wise as it was firm in other respects.

**Olga's  
Regency.**

**Her  
Conver-  
sion to  
Christi-  
anity.**

Thus far Kiev was the only part of Russia that had been converted to Christianity, and the Christians had been protected in their civil and religious privileges. Olga now embraced the Christian religion, and proceeded to Constantinople in 955, where she was baptized by the Patriarch of the Greek Church with great pomp, receiving the Greek name of Helena. Few of Olga's subjects followed her example. She earnestly entreated her son to be baptized, but he replied: "Would you have me be a laughing-stock to my friends?" He sternly refused to be baptized, though he offered no opposition to those who desired to espouse the faith of Christ, for which he openly expressed his contempt, saying that as Christianity taught love and forgiveness it was a religion fit only for women, and not for warriors.

**Sviatos-  
laf's  
Refusal  
to be  
Baptized.**

**His Con-  
quests.**

Sviatoslaf achieved victories over the Khazars, and those people disappeared from Russian history thereafter. He also subdued the Petchenegs and the Bulgarians, and extended his dominion to the Sea of Azov. In 970 he divided his empire among his three sons, giving Kiev to Yaropolk I., the country of the Drevlians to Oleg, and Novgorod to Vladimir.

**His Sons.**

**His War  
with the  
Bul-  
garians  
and the  
Greek  
Emperor.**

Soon afterward Sviatoslaf undertook another war against the Bulgarians, and quickly overran their country. The Greek Emperor became alarmed at the proximity of the Russians to Constantinople, and summoned the Grand Duke of Great Russia to evacuate the territories which he had conquered. The Grand Duke's refusal to comply with this demand led to war. The Russians were defeated in every battle, and were obliged to sue for peace. They retired from Bulgaria and started for Kiev; but Sviatoslaf was waylaid by the Petchenegs, while passing through their country, being murdered near the cataracts of the Dnieper, A. D. 972.

**His  
Defeats  
and  
Murder.**



After the death of Sviatoslaf a war ensued between his three sons. Oleg was killed, and Vladimir fled across the Baltic sea to the Varangians, so that all the Russian dominions were reunited under YAROPOLK I. But Vladimir never relinquished his design of recovering his lost power; and in 980, after an absence of two years, he returned with a horde of Varangian adventurers, conquered Novgorod and Kiev, put his brother to death, and thus became the sovereign of all Russia, being known in history as VLADIMIR THE GREAT.

Civil Wars of His Sons.

Yaropolk I.

Vladimir the Great, A. D. 980-1015.

Vladimir the Great was one of the greatest of Russian monarchs. His efforts were directed at ridding himself of his Varangian warriors, who had begun to give him trouble, and also to the consolidation of his authority in his empire. He succeeded in both undertakings. He was a pagan when he ascended the Russian throne, and he manifested intense zeal in behalf of his gods, but his religion was very lax. He had six wives, who bore him twelve sons, among whom he subsequently divided his dominions; and he maintained about eight hundred concubines in several of the Russian cities. No woman in his dominions was safe from his violence.

His Greatness.

His Strong Rule.

His Religion.

Domestic Relations.

Vladimir the Great was a great warrior and statesman. He conquered Red Russia and Lithuania, and rendered Livonia tributary. After completing his conquests he resolved to show his gratitude to his gods by offering a human sacrifice to them, and for this purpose he set apart the captives whom he had taken in war; but his courtiers persuaded him that the gods would be better pleased by the sacrifice of one of his own subjects, and therefore he selected a young Varangian, the son of a Christian, and who had been educated in his father's religion. The father refused to give up his son; and the populace, enraged at what they considered an insult to their religion and to their sovereign, attacked and murdered both father and son. The Russian Church has canonized both as its only martyrs.

His Conquests.

Two Christian Martyrs as Sacrifices to His Pagan Gods.

The fame of Vladimir the Great as a conqueror had by this time spread into the neighboring countries, and the four great religious bodies of the world made efforts to convert him to their respective faiths. The Eastern Bulgarians recommended to him the conquering religion of Mohammed, and his voluptuous imagination was excited by the description of its paradise and its lovely maidens, but his repugnance to circumcision and the interdiction of wine could not be overcome. Said he: "Wine is the delight of the Russians; we cannot do without it." He disliked Roman Catholicism, which the Germans offered him, because of its Pope, an earthly deity, which seemed to him a monstrous thing. He disliked Judaism, because it had no country, and he did not regard it as either rational to take advice from wanderers under the ban of heaven or desirable to be punished with them.

His Objections to Islam, Roman Catholicism and Judaism.

**His  
Conversion to  
Greek  
Christianity.**

The Greek religion which Olga had professed had been expounded to Vladimir by a learned man from Constantinople, and he embraced it after due deliberation and was baptized. He at once overthrew the idols and closed their temples. His example was speedily followed by his subjects, who said: "If it be not good to be baptized, the prince and the boyars would never submit to it." Thus the Greek Christian Church was established in Russia in A. D. 988. Vladimir the Great founded churches, schools and new towns during the remainder of his reign, and energetically applied himself to the work of establishing civilization and Christianity among his subjects.

**The  
Greek  
Church  
Established in  
Russia.**

**Vladimir's  
Domestic  
Troubles.**

Vladimir the Great was successful in several wars with the Petchenegs in the latter part of his reign. Domestic troubles embittered his last days. He had divided his dominions among his twelve sons, who soon became involved in civil war with each other. He had granted Novgorod to his son Yoraslav, but this son refused to pay the tribute due him as his vassal, and applied to the Varangians for assistance against his father. Vladimir, who was now an old man, took the field against his unnatural son, but died of grief in consequence of being under the necessity of so doing, A. D. 1015.

**His  
Death.**

**Kelly's  
Estimate  
of  
Vladimir  
the Great.**

Concerning Vladimir the Great, Kelly says: "This rough-hewn colossus had great qualities. If he was not always able to repress his turbulent neighbors, he generally frustrated their incursions. He caused deserts to be cleared by colonies established for that purpose. He built towns, and while he was rendering his country more flourishing he thought it his duty to provide for its embellishment, and invited from Greece architects and workmen eminent for their skill. By their means he raised convenient and substantial churches, palaces and other buildings. The young nobles were brought up in seminaries endowed by the prince, to which his bounty had attracted able masters from Greece. Parents saw with horror these strokes aimed at ignorance, and the honors that were paid to foreign services. It was necessary to use violence in taking their children to place them in the new establishments, where they were to be taught reading and writing, unholy arts, identified with sorcery. Vladimir, who waded through the blood of his brother to the throne of Kiev, received from his nation the surname of the Great, was advanced to the rank of a saint, and is recognized by the Russian Church as coequal with the Apostles."

**Sviatopolk's  
Usurpation.**

The civil wars which Vladimir's sons had commenced during their father's lifetime were continued after his death, with the result that SVIATOPOLK, the son of Vladimir's brother Yaropolk I., whom Vladimir had adopted as his own son, seized the Russian throne after murdering three of his brothers. Yaroslav, another brother of Vladimir the Great, entered into an alliance with the German Emperor Henry II.

against Sviatopolk and his father-in-law, Boleslas I., King of Poland. This war was ended in 1019 by a three days' battle, in which Yaroslav and his ally won the victory. Sviatopolk fled to Poland, but died on the journey.

**His Overthrow and Flight to Poland.**

YAROSLAV thus became the sole sovereign of Russia. He destroyed the Petchenegs in a vigorous campaign, and caused his power to be dreaded by Finland, Livonia, Lithuania and Bulgaria. In 1026 he was defeated in a war with his brother MSTITSLAV, Prince of Tmutarakan, by whom he was defeated. Mstislav had conquered the Crimean remnant of the kingdom of the Khazars in 1016, and had subdued the Circassians in 1022. He dealt generously with his brother, leaving him half of his dominions.

**Yaroslav and His Conquests.**

**His Defeat by Mitislav.**

After Mstislav's death, in 1036, Yaroslav again became sole sovereign of Russia. After securing his power he engaged in the work to which he is indebted for his real fame. He was an ardent friend of education, and caused numerous Greek works to be translated into the Russian language. He erected schools and churches, increased the number of the towns, and caused many waste tracts to be settled with colonies. He caused the Scriptures to be translated into the Russian language, and transcribed several copies of them with his own hand. He likewise kept the Russian Greek Church independent of the Greek Church at Constantinople, and appointed its bishops without reference to the Greek Patriarch.

**Yaroslav's Restoration.**

**His Patronage of Learning and the Church.**

Yaroslav's three daughters married respectively the Kings of Norway, Hungary and France; his sons married Greek, German and English princesses; and his sister married the King of Poland. These marriage alliances brought Russia into more intimate relations with the other European nations.

**Royal Inter-marriages of His Children.**

The greatest work of Yaroslav's reign was the preparation of the *Russkaya Pravda*, the first Russian code of laws. This was a rude and barbarous code, but it was an effort to establish the reign of justice in Russia, and to afford protection to the weak against the strong. This code recognized the right of private vengeance, but restricted it to the relations of the man who had been murdered. If none came forward to avenge the murder, the murderer could atone for his crime by paying to the state a fixed price, regulated by the code according to the victim's rank. Judges were appointed, and circuits were assigned to them; while trial by a jury of twelve respectable persons was secured.

**The Russkaya Pravda.**

Several days before his death, in 1054, Yaroslav divided his dominions among his four sons, on condition that the younger ones should obey their eldest brother, IZASLAV, to whom he assigned Novgorod and Kiev. This arrangement failed to preserve peace, as the younger sons rejected their eldest brother's control over them, and civil war ensued.

**Izaslav and His Brothers**

- Civil War and Division of the Russian Dominions.** The result was that the Russian dominions were divided into a number of principalities, which were united in a kind of confederation, but which were constantly quarreling and fighting with each other. During this period of confusion the Poles, the Lithuanians, the Danes and the Teutonic Knights seized large parts of Western Russia.
- Vladimir II.** VLADIMIR II., who succeeded to the Russian throne in 1114, was a great and wise sovereign; and Russia made great progress during his reign. He died in 1125, and was succeeded by his eldest son MSTITSLAV II., who reigned only six years. At his death, in 1131, Russia became a prey to anarchy, and very soon the dominion of the Russian sovereign embraced only the city of Kiev and its vicinity.
- Anarchy.** In 1155 IGOR of Susdal obtained the ascendancy, and for a while it appeared that he would reunite Russia under one scepter. His principality of Susdal comprised the territory included in the present governments of Yaroslav, Kostroma, Vladimir and Moscow, and a portion of Novgorod, Tver, Nijni Novgorod, Tula and Kaluga, or almost all of Central Russia. He had founded the city of Moscow in 1147 and granted it important privileges. He made Kiev his capital, and under his rule that city made rapid progress in wealth and prosperity. He died in 1157, whereupon the struggle between the various Russian princes was renewed.
- Moscow and Kiev.**
- Civil War.** Igor's son ANDREW at first took part in this struggle, but retired into his principality of Susdal, and made Vladimir his capital. He energetically applied himself to the civilization and advancement of his dominions. He greatly improved Moscow, founded a number of other cities and peopled them with the Bulgarians of the Volga, and fairly established the civilization of Central Russia. He was repulsed in an attempt to take Novgorod in 1168, after which he marched against Kiev and took that city by storm, plundering it and forcing it to acknowledge the supremacy of Vladimir.
- Andrew of Susdal.** In 1169 Andrew sent an army under his son against Novgorod, which was then at the height of its power, having recently been admitted into the Hanseatic League. The attack was repulsed, but Novgorod was forced to acknowledge the supremacy of Vladimir. Andrew's principal object was to destroy the numerous petty princes which ruled in Russia and to consolidate the entire power of the various Russian principalities in the hands of the Grand Prince of Vladimir, or Susdal. But these various Russian princes united against him and defeated his armies, thus ending his attempts at consolidation. Andrew was assassinated by his subjects in 1174. His successor was unable to hold the vast domain of Vladimir, or Susdal, together, and the next Grand Prince relinquished all claim to the homage of the petty princes.
- His Promotion of Civilization.**
- His Conquest of Kiev.**
- His Reduction of Novgorod.**
- His Defeat by the Other Russian Princes.**
- His Assassination.**

The internal dissensions which weakened Russia rendered her an easy prey to a foreign foe. The Mongol, or Tartar hordes under Zingis Khan, which had overrun Hungary and Poland, made a resistless irruption into Russia in 1221, defeated the united forces of the Russian princes in the bloody battle of Kalka, ravaged all of Southern Russia, and then returned to Asia.

Tartar  
Invasion  
of Russia.

No sooner had the Mongols retired from Russia than the internal wars were renewed between the Russian princes, accompanied this time by famine and pestilence. In 1230 Smolensk and Novgorod were scourged by the plague, thirty thousand persons dying in the former city, and forty-two thousand in the latter.

Civil  
War  
Renewed

The  
Plague.

In 1237 the Mongols again invaded Russia, being that time under the leadership of Batou, the grandson of Zingis Khan and the Great Kahn of the Golden Horde of the Kipzak. The Mongols quickly overran Russia and laid the country waste from the present city of Kazan to Vladimir. The Mongols proceeded to establish themselves in the country after they had conquered it. They founded the cities of Sarai and Kazan, and forced the Russian princes to pay tribute to the Great Khan of the Golden Horde.

Tartar  
Conquest  
of Russia.

The Mongol conquerors themselves collected the tribute of each district; they received the homage and the appeals of every Russian prince; and when they established a Grand Prince they permitted several rivals to claim the feudal supremacy, made them wait for their decision, and sometimes detained them at their horde for two years. They also prevented the settlement of any order of succession. In short, they made themselves lords-paramount; as they adopted the plan of not permitting any Russian prince, great or small, to assume the government of his states before he had journeyed to the Great Khan of the Golden Horde to solicit the investiture. These journeys usually required a year for their accomplishment, and their effect was to leave the Russian principalities without native chiefs, and under the authority of the Tartar governors, or *Baskaks*. Other effects of these journeys were to prove the supremacy of the Great Khans; to disclose to the Mongols what kind of men they had to deal with; to ruin the Russian rival princes by the customary presents; and to make the Russian princes dread the terrible vengeance of the Great Khan in case they even sighed for independence.

Russia  
under  
Tartar  
Rule.

The  
Great  
Khan  
of the  
Golden  
Horde.

Several Russian princes were summoned to the Great Khan of the Golden Horde and executed. But the Mongols, who punished the insubordination of the Russian princes so cruelly, united with them in their foreign wars, and even served them in their civil wars. A Russian prince would journey to the Great Khan of the Golden Horde to impeach the Grand Prince and to petition to be substituted in his place,

Mongols  
in the  
Russian  
Armies.

and he would return with a Mongol army, which permitted him to reign over ashes and blood.

Novgorod  
under  
Alex-  
ander  
Nevski.

Russia was under the Tartar supremacy for two and a-half centuries. In 1245 ALEXANDER NEVSKI became Grand Prince of Novgorod. He was a great statesman and warrior, and gained many victories over the Teutonic Knights and the Lithuanians, and recovered the Neva from the Swedes, this latter success giving rise to his surname. He secured the good-will of the Tartars. About this time the Grand Prince of Kiev was considered guilty of an act of rebellion in the eyes of the Great Khan, because he recognized the Pope as Head of the Christian Church, instead of the Greek Patriarch. The Grand Prince's sister was married to the Grand Prince of Vladimir, who refused to pay tribute. This enraged the Great Khan, who sent his armies to dethrone both the Grand Princes, and granted the principalities of Kiev and Vladimir to Alexander Nevski with the title of *Grand Duke of Russia*.

His  
Victories.

Alexander Nevski thereafter kept Russia at peace, and employed his wealth in rebuilding the Russian towns and encouraging every good enterprise. His grateful subjects rewarded him with their affection. He died suddenly in 1262, believed to have been poisoned by the Great Khan of the Golden Horde, who had begun to suspect him of aiming at independence. At his death he was canonized. He is still revered as a saint, and festivals are yet held in his honor.

He Is  
Made  
Grand  
Duke of  
Russia.

His Good  
Rule.

His Death  
and  
Canoniza-  
tion.

Wars  
among  
the  
Russian  
Princes.

For many years after the death of Alexander Nevski the petty Russian princes kept up a constant warfare among themselves, each aspiring to the sovereignty of the entire Russian nation, and each seeking to supplant the others with the Great Khan of the Golden Horde and to gain his favor; so that there was as much political intrigue and party feeling at the barbarous court of the Golden Horde as there was in the palaces of the Christian princes of Russia. In the meantime Moscow became the Russian capital, and the Grand Duchy of Russia was named *Muscovy*, from which circumstance the Russians are called *Muscovites*.

Muscovy  
and Mus-  
covites.

Origin  
of the  
Cossacks.

Kiev fell into the possession of the Lithuanians, while the Poles also wrested several states from Russia. During these wars many Russians deserted their homes, taking their wives and children into portions of the country hitherto uninhabited; and, as their numbers were increased by fresh refugees, they built villages, cultivated the land, and formed themselves into military republics. These people were called *Cossacks*, from Asiatic tribes of that name, with which they intermingled. The Cossacks themselves are a mixed race of Caucasian and Tartar origin.

Great  
Fairs.

Commerce flourished in Russia under the Tartar sway; and great fairs were held, which were attended by merchants from Greece, Italy and Asia. At these fairs the goods and products of many countries

were exhibited to the thousands of visitors who flocked to these gatherings.

IVAN I., surnamed KALITA, "the Purse," because he always carried a purse of money with him to distribute to the poor wherever he went, became Grand Duke of Moscow in 1328. He annexed the principality of Tver to the Grand Duchy of Moscow, adorned his capital with many new churches, and began the erection of the Kremlin in 1339. He induced the Head of the Russian Church to remove his residence from Vladimir to Moscow, and purchased the favor and protection of the Tartars by means of his immense wealth. He was a statesman of the Machiavellian sort; and the result of his tortuous policy was the establishment of his authority over the Russian princes, whom he kept down with a firm hand, with the aid of his influence with their Tartar masters. He restored tranquillity to Russia, thus enabling the country to revive and increase its commercial prosperity, and to acquire the means to resist its barbarian oppressors in the future.

Ivan I.,  
Grand  
Duke of  
Moscow.

His Able  
Rule.

Ivan I. died in 1340, leaving to his son SIMEON the means to purchase his throne from the Golden Horde, thus securing the direct succession to the throne of Russia. Simeon vigorously carried out his father's policy, and died in 1353; whereupon his brother IVAN II. succeeded him, being also obliged to purchase the sanction of the Golden Horde to his accession. The regular order of succession thus maintained was vastly beneficial to Russia, as it gave the country half a century of repose and prosperity. The Grand Duke's throne became the rallying point of the Russians, and its strength and stability inspired them with a patriotism and courage which clearly indicated an early effort to recover their country's independence.

Simeon.

Ivan II.

Beneficial  
Result  
of the  
Regular  
Suc-  
cession.

In 1359 DIMITRI II., the son of Ivan II., ascended the Russian throne. His first act was the establishment of the natural order of succession to the Russian crown from father to son. The Russian nobles, or *boyars*, had recognized the advantages held out to them by this mode of succession, and readily agreed to it. Dimitri II. then established his power over the minor Russian princes, making them his vassals. Moscow became the Russian capital in a truer sense than it had ever been before; and it was very evident that at Moscow was the only protecting power, and that it was a matter of necessity to have recourse to its support. The petty Russian princes cou'd only obtain this support by sacrificing their independence, and thus all of them became vassals to the Grand Duke of Moscow.

Dimitri  
Donskoi.

Regular  
Suc-  
cession  
Definitely  
Estab-  
lished.

Moscow  
as the  
Russian  
Capital.

From 1362 to 1380 the dissensions of the Tartars, who had by this time split up into several hordes, enabled the Grand Duke Dimitri II. to carry out his project unmolested by them. He was likewise able to beat back the Lithuanians, who thrice besieged Moscow and threatened

Repulse  
of the  
Lithua-  
nians by  
Dimitri  
II.

**His Bold  
Defiance  
of the  
Great  
Khan  
of the  
Golden  
Horde.**

to put an end to his reign. After driving away these enemies and securing his power at home, Dimitri II. felt himself strong enough to cast off the Tartar yoke. In 1378 he refused the customary tribute to the Great Khan, and put to death the Tartar ambassador sent to demand the tribute. The Great Khan burst into a storm of rage when he was informed of the murder of his ambassador, and summoned his hitherto invincible warriors to assist him in the conquest and destruction of Moscow.

**His  
Victory  
over the  
Great  
Khan.**

Russia was thus threatened with a great danger, and all the Russian princes united under the Grand Duke Dimitri II. for the common defense. In 1380 the Great Khan advanced into Russia at the head of all his warriors. He encountered the Grand Duke of Moscow and his army on the banks of the Don, and was routed with the loss of one hundred thousand killed. This memorable victory acquired for Dimitri II. the surname of **DONSKOI**.

**Vladimir  
and  
Moscow  
Burned  
by the  
Tartars.**

In 1382 the Tartars returned, and took and burned Vladimir and Moscow, massacring twenty-four thousand persons in the latter city. Dimitri II. was under the necessity of purchasing peace by making large sacrifices. The defection of the vassal Russian princes had been the cause of his defeat, and he now proceeded to wreak his vengeance upon them and to reduce them to their former vassalage. Dimitri II. passed his last years in consolidating and strengthening his power in his dominions.

**Humiliat-  
ing Peace.**

**Vassili  
III.**

Dimitri II. died in 1389, and was succeeded as Grand Duke of Moscow by his son **VASSILI III**. Vassili III. treated his vassal princes with severity; but by timely submissions and presents he gained the goodwill of the Great Khan, who conferred upon him the principalities of Susdal, Tchernigov and Nijni Novgorod, which were thenceforth inalienably united with Moscow. Vassili III. sought to render the Great Novgorod tributary to Moscow, but failed in that undertaking. Money was first coined in Russia during the reign of Vassili III.

**His  
Grants  
from the  
Great  
Khan.**

**Vassili  
IV.**

Vassili III. died in 1425, leaving to his son and successor, **VASSILI IV.**, the most compact and powerful of the Russian states. Vassili IV. was only five years old at his accession; and his uncle Igor, taking advantage of the Grand Duke's youth, usurped the Muscovite throne. Vassili IV. appealed to the Golden Horde, who ordered the usurper to relinquish the Muscovite throne. Igor raised an army, took Moscow by surprise, and banished Vassili IV. to a remote part of the Grand Duchy. But in a moment of apparent triumph the usurper found himself abandoned. The whole population of Moscow followed their young Grand Duke into his exile, and Igor was left literally alone with his troops in the city. He was struck with dismay, so that he descended from his solitary throne and restored it to Vassili IV.

**Igor's  
Usurpa-  
tion and  
Abdica-  
tion.**



Vassili IV. greatly extended the Muscovite dominions by annexing Galicia, Mozhaïsk and Borousk to his Grand Duchy. During his reign, Isidore, the Metropolitan of Kiev, took part in the general council of the Christian Church at Florence in 1439, and signed the act of union of the Greek and Roman Catholic Churches. Vassili IV. disapproved of this act of union, and imprisoned Isidore, who escaped some years later to Italy.

**Annexations.**

**Bishop Isidore.**

Vassili IV. became involved in a war with the Tartars, who deprived him of his throne, but afterward restored it to him. He was afterward taken prisoner by his cousin, Igor's son, who put out his eyes and seized his throne. The Russian nobles, or boyars, rallied to the support of their blind sovereign; the usurper was overthrown and poisoned; and Vassili IV. was restored to his throne.

**War with Tartars.**

**Usurpation and Overthrow of Igor's Son.**

Vassili IV. died in 1462, and was succeeded by his son, the illustrious IVAN III., THE GREAT, who was then twenty-two years old, and who reigned forty-three years (A. D. 1462-1505). The two great objects of the life of Ivan the Great were to liberate Russia from foreign influence, and to make himself the autocrat of his own dominions. He succeeded in both undertakings.

**Ivan the Great, A. D. 1462-1505.**

**His Success.**

In 1469 Ivan the Great conquered the Tartar Khan of Kazan and made him tributary. In the next ten years he conquered and annexed the republics of Novgorod, Perm and Pskov. Novgorod was conquered early in this reign. A rich widow of Novgorod, desiring to raise her Lithuanian lover to the head of the republic, bribed a strong party to revolt and to dethrone the reigning Prince of Novgorod, who applied to Ivan the Great for aid. Ivan entered Novgorod with a large army, in violation of the chartered rights of the citizens, seized merchandise, jewels and money, and sent the insurgent nobles to Moscow.

**His Conquest of Kazan and Novgorod.**

When the citizens of Novgorod revolted a second time, Ivan the Great besieged and took the city, forced the citizens to surrender their charter of liberties and to acknowledge him as their sovereign. He removed the great bell to Moscow in 1477. This conquest sealed the fate of Novgorod. Its commerce declined, and its prosperity vanished. Before its conquest by Ivan the Great it is said to have had a population of four hundred thousand souls, but after its conquest it dwindled into a second-rate town of the Russian Empire.

**Revolt and Final Conquest of Novgorod.**

When an ambassador arrived from the haughty court of the Golden Horde of Kipzak with despatches from the Great Khan to the vassal Grand Duke of Russia, Ivan the Great, like his predecessors, had to ride out to meet him and to conduct him with all possible respect to the hall of state at Moscow, where the most costly furs were spread for his seat, while the vassal Grand Duke and his boyars were on their knees

**Ivan the Great and the Great Khan.**

around the ambassador, listening in profound silence to their Tartar master's letters.

**Ivan the Great Ends Russia's Vassalage to the Golden Horde.**

But Ivan the Great was too proud to continue this humiliating state of vassalage; and when the Great Khan's messengers arrived he took the papers from their hands, tore them in pieces and trampled them under his feet. He then declared to the Tartar envoys that he would no longer pay tribute to the Great Khan, expelled the Tartar merchants from his capital, and prepared for war. He defeated the Great Khan's troops repeatedly, destroyed their headquarters and all their settlements, and drove them from his dominions in about twenty years from his accession to the Muscovite throne. Thenceforth the Grand Duke of Moscow ceased to be a tributary of the Great Khan of the Golden Horde of Kipzak.

**Ivan's Conquests and Defeats.**

Ivan the Great next subdued Tver and several other Russian principalities and annexed them to his dominions. He also conquered portions of Siberia in 1499; but was totally defeated in a war with the Livonians and the Teutonic Knights, with whom he was obliged to make peace in 1501.

**His Greek Marriage.**

As Constantinople had been taken and the Eastern Roman Empire overthrown by the Ottoman Turks in 1453, Ivan the Great desired to become the successor of the Greek Emperors; and, for the purpose of accomplishing this object, he married the Princess Sophia, the heiress of the Byzantine imperial dynasty; his first wife having died some years previous to this. Immediately after his second marriage, Ivan the Great adopted as his insignia the double-headed eagle of the Greek, or Eastern Roman Emperors.

**Greek and Italian Arts in Russia.**

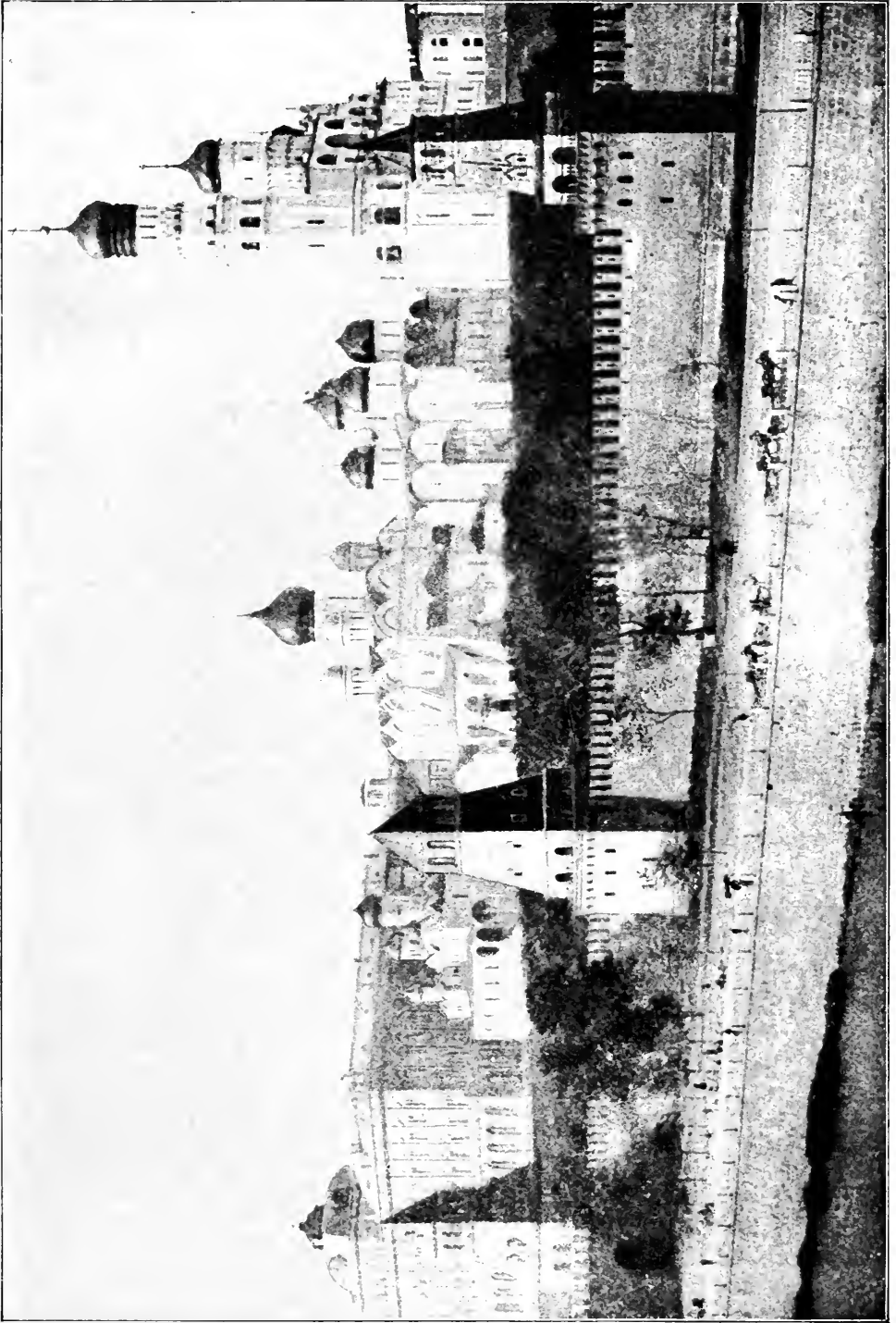
The appearance of the beautiful and highly-educated Sophia at the Russian court, with a numerous retinue of Greeks and Italians, made Ivan the Great emulous to introduce the useful and elegant arts of Greece and Italy into Russia. He sent for architects, founders and miners, thus beginning that system of improvement which Peter the Great afterwards carried out so energetically and successfully.

**Ivan the Great as a Ruler.**

Ivan the Great was a master of statecraft, and some of his most important successes were achieved by the exercise of this talent as much as by force of arms. He was a stern despot in his government of his subjects. He broke the power of the petty Russian princes and boyars, and had them beheaded at his pleasure. He was the first who assumed the title of *Autocrat of all the Russias*—a title borne by all his successors on the Russian throne. He inaugurated many important reforms, improved the laws, regulated the public taxes, and reformed the manners of the Russian clergy.

**First Autocrat of all the Russias.**

The rightful heir of Ivan the Great was Dimitri, the child of his eldest son by his first wife; but Ivan arbitrarily thrust this prince aside,



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THE KREMLIN AT MOSCOW



and finally cast him into prison. Ivan then appointed Vassili, his son by his second wife Sophia, his heir. When remonstrated with for thus arbitrarily changing the succession, Ivan exclaimed sternly: "Am I not, then, at liberty to act as I please! I will give Russia to whom I think proper, and I command you to obey!" The stern tyrant imprisoned the remonstrants. Ivan the Great died in 1505, at the age of sixty-seven years, leaving to his successor a stronger and more compact empire than had ever been ruled by his predecessors.

Ivan's  
Arbitrary  
Change  
of the  
Suc-  
cession.

His  
Death.

SECTION III.—KINGDOM OF POLAND IN MEDIÆVAL  
TIMES (A. D. 840-1506).

THE lands of the Vistula and the Oder were inhabited by tribes of the Slavonic race, known as Poles, or Slavonians of the Plain. In the year A. D. 840 a simple peasant, named PIAST, was chosen duke of the Polish territories. About the middle of the tenth century the Poles embraced Christianity, after the conversion of their duke, MICISLAS, by German missionaries.

The  
Poles.  
Duke  
Piast.

Conver-  
sion to  
Chris-  
tianity.

In accordance with the prevailing custom, Duke Micislas divided his dominions among his sons, one of whom, BOLESLAS I., THE GREAT, first united the numerous Polish principalities into one kingdom, and was crowned King of Poland about the year A. D. 1000. Boleslas the Great extended his kingdom beyond the Oder, the Carpathians and the Dniester, and waged a successful war with the Emperor Henry II. of Germany, conquering Cracow, Moravia, Lusatia and Misnia. He likewise interfered in the wars among the Russian princes. Under his reign Poland prospered, and commerce, the impartial administration of justice and the diffusion of Christianity were fostered and encouraged; and about this time the distinction between the nobles, or warrior class, and the peasants, or tillers of the soil, were distinctly drawn. Boleslas the Great was recognized as King of Poland by his suzerain, the Germano-Roman Emperor.

Kingdom  
of Poland  
Founded  
by  
Boleslas  
the Great.

His Great  
Reign,  
A. D.  
1000-  
1025.

After a period of anarchy, during the reign of MICISLAS II. (1025-1034), and the rule of RICHA as queen-regent (1034-1037), followed by an interregnum of four years (1037-1041), CASIMIR I. (1041-1058), the son of Boleslas the Great, occupied the Polish throne. The reign of Casimir I. and that of his warlike son and successor, BOLESLAS II., THE INTREPID (1058-1081), were very brilliant, but of little benefit to the country. Because Boleslas the Intrepid murdered the Bishop of Cracow with his own hand, Poland was placed under a papal interdict, and the Polish people were absolved from their allegiance to their

Micislas  
II.

Casimir  
I.

Boleslas  
the  
Intrepid.

His  
Quarrel  
with the  
Church,  
Exile and  
Suicide.

murderous king; whereupon he fled into Hungary; but being refused refuge there by the Pope's order, he committed suicide.

**Ladislav  
the  
Careless.**

The uneventful reign of **LADISLAS I., THE CARELESS (1081-1102)**, was followed by that of **BOLESLAS III., THE WRY-MOUTH (1102-1138)**, who was an energetic monarch and conquered and annexed Pomerania, defeated the heathen Prussians and defended Silesia against the Germano-Roman Emperors. A division of the kingdom among the sons of Boleslas the Wry-mouth produced internal dissension and civil war, during which Silesia was severed from Poland, though still nominally subject to it. The Kings of Poland during this period were **LADISLAS II. (1138-1146)**, **BOLESLAS IV., THE CURLED (1146-1173)**, and **MICISLAS III., THE OLD (1173-1177)**, who was deposed.

**Casimir  
the Just.**

**CASIMIR II., THE JUST (1177-1194)**, reunited the Polish dominions, excepting Silesia, and established the Polish constitution on a solid foundation, forming a Senate consisting of the bishops, the palatines and the castellans, and accurately defining the rights and privileges of the clergy and the peasantry. The death of Casimir the Just was followed by a contest among the various claimants for the Polish crown, which was speedily followed, as usual, by a division of the Polish dominions, during which Pomerania acquired its independence of Polish rule.

**Wars  
with the  
Teutonic  
Knights.**

About the same time the Teutonic Knights were summoned by the Grand Duke of Masovia to aid him against the heathen Prussians; but these knights soon became enemies as formidable to Poland as they had been to the Prussians, conquering a large portion of Podlachia and Lithuania. In 1241 the Mongol, or Tartar hordes overran Poland, reducing the country almost to ruin and defeating the Poles in a great battle near Wahlstatt. Thenceforth Poland declined. Many Polish territories were ceded to the Margraves of Brandenburg, while many other portions of Poland were colonized by Germans. Many Jews who fled from persecution in Western Europe about this time sought refuge in Poland.

**Tartar  
Invasion.**

**Poland's  
Tem-  
porary  
Decline.**

**Kings  
during  
this  
Period.**

**Poland's  
Complete  
National  
Inde-  
pendence.**

The Polish kings during this troublesome period were **LESKO V., THE WHITE (1194-1200)**, who was deposed; **MICISLAS THE OLD** restored (1200-1202); **LADISLAS III. (1202-1206)**; **LESKO THE WHITE** restored (1206-1227); **BOLESLAS V., THE CHASTE (1227-1279)**; **LESKO VI., THE BLACK (1279-1289)**; and, after an interregnum of six years (1289-1295), **PREMISLAS (1295-1304)**. During this same period Poland, which had been claimed as a fief of the Germano-Roman Empire, secured its complete national independence during the reign of the great Emperor Frederick II., in the first half of the thirteenth century.

Poland first arose to consideration in the fourteenth century, when King **LADISLAS IV., THE SHORT**, united Great Poland with Little Po-

land and was crowned at Cracow. In conjunction with Gedymin, Grand Duke of Lithuania, Ladislav the Short waged a vigorous war against the Teutonic Knights. Upon his return from this war this king, then seventy years of age, met with a triumphant reception from his subjects, who hailed him as "The Father of His Country." In 1331 the first Polish Diet was assembled for legislative purposes. Ladislav the Short died after a glorious reign of twenty-nine years (1304-1333).

Ladislav  
the Short,  
A. D.  
1304-  
1333.

His War  
with the  
Teutonic  
Knights.

The renowned son and successor of Ladislav IV., CASIMIR III., THE GREAT, who obtained the Polish crown in 1333, added Galicia and Red Russia to the Polish dominions, founded the University of Cracow, and showed himself to be a wise legislator; but his efforts to diminish the power of the Polish nobility, and to establish a powerful citizen and burgher class, proved futile; and the Polish peasants, or serfs, continued to live in the most abject servitude. He cultivated the arts of peace with zeal, amended the laws and consolidated his dominions by profitable exchanges with the neighboring nations. In the latter part of his reign he successfully defended his new acquisitions against the Tartars, Lithuanians and Wallachians.

Casimir  
the Great,  
A. D.  
1333-  
1370.

His Great  
Reign.

King Casimir the Great died in 1370; and, as he was the last of the male line of Piast, the Polish nobles, or *voivodes*, bestowed the crown of Poland on his great and illustrious nephew, King LOUIS THE GREAT of Hungary, who proved to be a wise and able monarch. Louis the Great of Hungary (1370-1382) was the first elective King of Poland, whose sovereigns were thenceforth chosen by the Polish nobles, or *voivodes*, in the Polish Diet; and Poland was thereafter called a *republic*.

Louis the  
Great of  
Hungary,  
A. D.  
1370-  
1382.

Poland an  
Elective  
Kingdom.

Louis the Great's son-in-law and successor, the Grand-Duke Jagello of Lithuania, was LADISLAV V. of Poland (1382-1434), who first united Lithuania with Poland, and was the first of the famous race of the Jagellos, who occupied the elective throne of Poland two centuries (1382-1572); during which Poland was one of the most extensive and powerful monarchies in Europe, stretching from the Baltic to the Euxine, or Black Sea, along the whole frontier of European civilization, thus forming an effectual barrier to Germany and the states of Western Europe against barbarian invasion.

Ladislav  
V., First  
of the  
Jagellos,  
A. D.  
1382-  
1434.

Poland's  
Extent.

LADISLAV VI. (1434-1444), the son of Ladislav V., was the next King of Poland, but was not acknowledged in Lithuania, which recognized his younger brother Casimir as king. Ladislav VI. also became King of Hungary in 1440, as Ladislav IV., and was defeated and killed by the Turks at Varna in 1444. CASIMIR IV., who reigned from 1444 to 1492, subdued the Teutonic Knights, who had for a long time warred against the Poles; but he was obliged to make many concessions to the *voivodes*, thus diminishing the royal power. It was the Polish aris-

Ladislav  
VI.,  
A. D.  
1434-  
1444.

Casimir  
IV., A. D.  
1444-  
1492.

The  
Polish  
Nobility.

ocracy, who alone were represented in the Polish Diet, who had a voice in legislation, the raising of taxes, and the levying of troops. The nobles, or *voiwodes*, only were regarded as citizens in Poland. The reigns of the next two Kings of Poland—**JOHN ALBERT** (1492–1501) and **ALEXANDER** (1501–1506)—were unimportant. Thus at the close of the Middle Ages, Poland was at the zenith of her glory, and thus remained almost a century longer.

Poland's  
Zenith.

#### SECTION IV.—KINGDOM OF HUNGARY IN MEDÆVAL TIMES (A. D. 900–1528).

The  
Magyars,  
or Hun-  
garians.

THE Tartaric tribe of Magyars, or Hungarians, who had settled in the valleys of the Theiss and the Danube in the beginning of the tenth century, and who made plundering incursions into Germany, were ruled by a number of princes, the chief of whom was Duke **ARPAD**, whose descendants subsequently became the only rulers of Hungary. Duke **GEISA I.**, who ruled Hungary in the latter half of the tenth century, received the doctrines of Christianity, and employed German missionaries to teach the gospel of a crucified Saviour to his savage people. At the same time the Magyars abandoned their nomadic habits and applied themselves to agriculture.

Duke  
Arpad.

Duke  
Geisa I.,  
and  
Chris-  
tianity.

Kingdom  
of  
Hungary  
Founded  
by  
Stephen  
the Pious

Geisa's son, **STEPHEN THE PIOUS**, who assumed the title and dignity of King of Hungary in the year A. D. 1000, conquered Transylvania, repressed the insolence of the Hungarian nobility, defended the royal power against all encroachments, and reigned with vigor and wisdom. King Stephen founded monasteries and invited Benedictine monks into Hungary. He was the founder of the political institutions of Hungary, and did much to civilize his barbarous subjects and to accustom them to the arts of peace; but the progress of Christianity and civilization in Hungary was retarded by civil wars among the Magyars after Stephen's death.

Progress  
of Civil-  
ization.

Stephen's  
Great  
Reign,  
A. D.  
1000-  
1038.

His Im-  
mediate  
Suc-  
cessors.

Bela I.,  
and His  
Immedi-  
ate Suc-  
cessors.

The Arpad dynasty, of which Stephen the Pious, or St. Stephen, was the greatest as well as the first, occupied the throne of Hungary for three centuries (1000–1302), and furnished some twenty kings to Hungary. Stephen the Pious died in 1038 after a glorious reign. His successor, **PETER THE GERMAN**, was deposed after a reign of three years (1038–1041); but after the three years' reign of **ABA**, or **OWEN** (1041–1044), **PETER THE GERMAN** was restored and reigned three years more (1044–1047).

The reign of **ANDREW I.** (1047–1061) was uneventful. **BELA I.** (1061–1064) saved the Christian civilization against the rebellious efforts of a very formidable party. The reigns of **SALAMON** (1064–



1075) and GEISA I. (1075–1077) were also uneventful. LADISLAS I., THE PIOUS (1077–1095), made his name illustrious by his wise legislation and his personal valor, acquiring such fame by his valiant deeds that the Council of Piacenza in 1095 selected him to lead the First Crusade, but this honor and duty was prevented by his death. His successor COLOMON, THE LEARNED (1095–1114), was the author of many wise laws. The reigns of STEPHEN II., THUNDER (1114–1131), and BELA II. (1131–1141) were uneventful.

Ladislav  
the Pious  
and His  
Immediate  
Successors.

During the reign of GEISA II. (1141–1161) colonies of Flemings from Flanders and Saxons from Germany migrated to and settled in Transylvania; and their descendants still retain the manners and customs of their ancestors. The Flemings and Saxons in Transylvania built many towns, and converted a desert land into a blooming region.

Geisa II.  
Flemings  
and  
Saxons in  
Transylvania.

The reigns of STEPHEN III. (1161–1173), BELA III. (1173–1196), EMMERIC (1196–1204) and LADISLAS II. (1204–1205) were uneventful. ANDREW II. (1205–1235) was the first leader of the Sixth Crusade. In the year A. D. 1222 the Magyar nobles, or *magnates*, compelled King Andrew II. to grant a charter called the *Golden Privilege*, Hungary's Magna Charta and the foundation of her free constitution, which conceded great privileges to the nobility and the clergy, and was the foundation of the free constitution of Hungary. Any encroachment by the king on the rights secured to the magnates by the Golden Privilege justified the Hungarian nobles in armed rebellion against their sovereign. The magnates in Hungary, like the *voivodes* in Poland, became the actual ruling class; while the Hungarian peasants, or *serfs*, pined in a condition little better than abject slavery.

Immediate  
Successors of  
Geisa II.

Andrew  
II. as a  
Crusader.

Andrew  
II.  
and the  
Golden  
Privilege.

The  
Magnates  
of  
Hungary.

BELA IV. (1235–1270) humbled the insolent and arrogant oligarchy which had ruled Hungary, and through his beneficent efforts Hungary recovered from the ruinous effects of the Mongol, or Tartar invasion in 1242. The reigns of STEPHEN IV. (1270–1272), LADISLAS III. (1272–1290) and ANDREW III. (1290–1302) were not distinguished for notable events.

Bela IV.

His  
Immediate  
Successors.

Andrew III.—the last of the royal race of Arpad—died in 1302; whereupon Hungary became an elective kingdom, whose sovereigns were thenceforth chosen by the magnates in the Hungarian Diet. The first elective King of Hungary was WENCESLAS of Bohemia (1302–1309). The next was CHARLES ROBERT of Anjou (1309–1342), belonging to the French dynasty of Anjou, which ruled Naples for a century and a-half.

Hungary  
an  
Elective  
Kingdom.

Wenceslas.

House of  
Anjou.

Under his renowned successor, LOUIS THE GREAT (1342–1382)—of the royal House of Anjou in Naples—Hungary attained her highest point of power and prosperity. Louis received the crown of Poland in

Louis the  
Great,  
A. D.  
1342–  
1382.

**His Great Reign.** 1370, extended the Hungarian kingdom to the Lower Danube, and made Venice tributary. He also protected the peasant class of Hungary from the tyranny of the magnates, improved the administration of justice, and established schools of education throughout the Hungarian kingdom. He also conducted many wars in Italy.

**Civil Wars.** After the death of Louis the Great, in 1382, disputes and contests for the Hungarian crown arose, which for many years distracted the Hungarian kingdom with civil war, the claimants being MARY (1382-1385), known as "King Mary," and CHARLES of Durazzo (1385-1387). The civil wars ended and tranquillity was only restored when SIGISMUND, afterward Emperor of Germany, was King of Hungary (1387-1437), being also King of Bohemia and belonging to the Luxemburg dynasty. Sigismund was imprisoned six months at Siklós, and only obtained his release by taking the oath to observe the Hungarian constitution. King Sigismund and Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy were defeated by the Ottoman Turks in the bloody battle of Nicopolis in 1396.

**Albert.** The next King of Hungary was ALBERT (1437-1439), of the Hapsburg dynasty, who was Archduke Albert II. of Austria and Emperor Albert II. of Germany. His successor on the Hungarian throne was ELIZABETH (1439-1440). The next King of Hungary was LADISLAS IV. (1440-1444), who was King Ladislas VI. of Poland, and who was defeated and killed by the Turks in the bloody battle of Varna in 1444.

**Ladislas V.** A year's interregnum was followed by the reign of LADISLAS V. (1445-1457), the youthful son of Ladislas IV. During the child king's minority of thirteen years the valiant John Hunniyades of Transylvania acted as regent of Hungary. The Hungarians were defeated by the Turks in the battle of Rigómagö in 1447, through the treachery of the voivode of Wallachia. But after a short captivity John Hunniyades saved Hungary from the dominion of the Ottoman Turks by his great victory at Belgrade in 1456.

**Matthias Corvinus, A. D. 1457-1490.** In gratitude to the memory of John Hunniyades, the Hungarian Diet in 1457 bestowed the crown of Hungary on his son, MATTHIAS CORVINUS, who proved to be one of the greatest and best of Hungarian sovereigns. He successfully defended his kingdom against the Ottoman Turks, and extended its frontiers on the side of Austria. He established a university and a library at Buda, and invited learned men, artists, mechanics and agriculturists into Hungary, to advance the civilization of his subjects.

**Ladislas VI.** After the death of King Matthias, in 1490, occurred the reign of LADISLAS VI. (1490-1516), who was also King of Bohemia. During his reign the Peasant War devastated the kingdom, and Dózsa and his

peasant bands spread ruin and desolation all around, but were finally exterminated by the renowned John Zapolya of Transylvania, and the entire Hungarian peasantry were reduced to a condition of serfdom.

Peasant War.

During the reign of Ladislas VI. and that of his youthful son and successor, Louis II. (1516-1526), who was only ten years old at his father's death, Hungary rapidly declined. The kingdom was invaded by the Ottoman Turks; and the royal power was diminished by the nobility, who made the raising of taxes, the declaring of war, and the making of peace, privileges of the Hungarian Diet. Finally the nobles, or magnates, usurped the whole royal authority.

Louis II.

Hungary's Decline.

When the young King Louis II. of Hungary was defeated and killed by the Turks in the battle of Mohacz, in 1526, a dispute for the Hungarian crown arose—the claimants being John Zapolya, who was a protégé of the Sultan of Turkey, and the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria—which was finally settled by leaving Transylvania and East Hungary in the possession of the mighty Turkish Sultan, Solyman the Magnificent, while West Hungary reverted to the sovereignty of the Archduke Ferdinand I. of Austria. Long and bloody wars between the Austrians and the Turks resulted in favor of the House of Hapsburg; and ever since that period the sovereign prince of Austria has borne the title and dignity of King of Hungary, the history of Hungary since that time being included in that of Austria.

Battle of Mohacz.

John Zapolya and Ferdinand of Austria.

Hungary under the House of Hapsburg

### SECTION V.—KINGDOMS OF BULGARIA, SERVIA AND BOSNIA (A. D. 680-1528).

In connection with the Eastern Roman Empire we have alluded to several conquering races that at times invaded that empire; such as the Bulgarians, Magyars or Hungarians, Russians, Servians and Bosnians. These established independent states, some of which had but a temporary existence; and the most important of these were Bulgaria, Servia and Bosnia. We will now give a brief sketch of these three states.

Origin of these Kingdoms.

The Bulgarians were a Turanian people who emigrated from their original seats near the Caspian Sea, in two divisions—one founding *Great*, or *White Bulgaria*, on the Volga river; and the other passing to the West in the fifth century, and establishing the kingdom of *Black Bulgaria*, north of the Lower Danube, in A. D. 680. This latter branch of the Bulgarian nation had come into collision with the Avars and Slavonians, and had been assimilated by the Slavonians so largely that this western Bulgarian kingdom is historically Slavic, or Slavonic.

White Bulgaria and Black Bulgaria.

Says E. A. Freeman, the English historian, in his *Historical Geography of Europe*: "The modern Bulgarians bear the Bulgarian name

Freeman's Statement.

only in the way in which the Romanized Celts of Gaul bear the name of their Frankish masters from Germany, and in which the Slavs of Kiev and Moscow bear the name of their Russian masters from Scandinavia. In all three cases the power formed by the union of conquerors and conquered has taken the name of the conquerors and has kept the speech of the conquered."

Christianity in Bulgaria.

Christianity was introduced into this Bulgarian kingdom in the middle of the ninth century, and in the latter part of the same century the kingdom was conquered by the Russians. In the middle of the tenth century there was a great revival of the power of the Greek Empire; and Bulgaria again became a part of that empire, making the Danube its southern boundary once more, thus remaining for more than two centuries. A revolt then occurred, which led to the establishment of a second Bulgarian kingdom, extending southward as far as Thessaly and Epirus; but this kingdom was again subdued by the Byzantine Empire in 1018. The Bulgarian kingdom was revived a third time by a revolt against the Eastern Empire in 1187, and remained independent until it was conquered by the Ottoman Turks after their great victory at Cossovo in 1389.

Conquests of Bulgaria by Russia, the Greek Empire and the Turks.

Avars and Servians.

Servia was a part of the Eastern Roman Empire until the early part of the seventh century, when it was ravaged by the Avars, who were afterward driven out by the Serbs, or Servians, a Slavonic people, who had hitherto occupied the region north of the Carpathian mountains, which they had abandoned at the instigation of the Eastern Emperor, to aid him against the Avars. Servia remained in vassalage to the Byzantine Empire for some time; but afterward it became dependent on Bulgaria, until the conquest of that kingdom by the Eastern Empire in 1018.

Servia under the Greek Empire and Bulgaria.

Servia's Independence and Conquests.

Servia became an independent principality in 1043, and formed an alliance with Hungary against the Greek Empire; but its prince was not crowned king until 1217. About the middle of the next century Servia made extensive conquests, and soon included in its dominion Macedonia, Albania, Thessaly, Northern Greece and a part of Bulgaria. The Servian king at that time assumed the title of *Emperor of the Serbs and the Greeks*. This was the zenith of Servian power and glory; as the Servian dominion fell to pieces under subsequent sovereigns, and was absorbed by the Ottoman Turks after their great victory at Cossovo in 1389, though Servia was not permanently annexed to the Ottoman Empire until 1521.

Servia's Fall and Conquest by the Turks.

The Bosnians.

Bosnia took its rise as an independent kingdom in consequence of an irruption of the Bosnians, a Slavonic people, who had migrated from the east in the seventh century; but the new state maintained an uncertain and changeable independence for a considerable time. In the

twelfth and thirteenth centuries Bosnia was under the dominion of Hungary; and in 1339 it became a part of the Servian Empire, to which it belonged until 1370, when it again became independent.

Bosnia  
under  
Hungary  
and  
Servia.

Bosnia acquired a real position among the European powers under its last dynasty, beginning in 1376, upon the dissolution of the Servian Empire; and it seemed likely at one time to take the place of that fallen empire. But Bosnia's greatness was shattered, along with that of Bulgaria and Servia, by the Turkish victory at Cossovo in 1389; and it finally yielded to Turkish sway, becoming a province of the Ottoman Empire in 1463, though not permanently annexed to that empire until 1528.

Bosnia's  
Great-  
ness.

Turkish  
Conquest  
of  
Bosnia.

## SECTION VI.—END OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE (A. D. 1204—1453).

WE have traced the history of the Eastern Roman Empire to the time of its temporary subversion by the leaders of the Fourth Crusade in 1204. The Crusaders had assembled at Venice, and were provided with shipping to be transported to the Holy Land. As they were unable to raise the entire sum demanded by the Venetian republic, they were allowed by the Venetians to postpone its payment on condition of conquering for them some towns on the coast of Dalmatia, which had revolted from the Venetian republic. The Crusaders complied with this condition, and captured the town of Zara, where they passed the winter.

The  
Fourth  
Crusade  
and the  
Venetian  
Republic.

The young Greek prince Alexis proceeded to the camp of the Crusaders and solicited their assistance in recovering his throne. The blind old Doge Dandolo of Venice sustained the Byzantine prince's appeal, and the Crusaders finally resolved to aid him, as he promised them ample compensation for their services in the event of success. The Crusaders besieged Constantinople in the summer of 1203, and took the city by storm after a stubborn conflict.

Alexis  
and the  
Crusa-  
ders.

ALEXIS was thus established on the Byzantine throne through the aid of the French Crusaders and the Venetians: but, as he had lost the confidence of his subjects by abandoning the Greek religion for the Roman Catholic, he was killed in a revolt of the people of Constantinople the next year, A. D. 1204. The Crusaders were so enraged by this revolt that they stormed and took Constantinople a second time, and put an end to the Eastern Roman Empire for fifty-seven years (A. D. 1204—1261).

Triumph  
and  
Death of  
Alexis.

Tempor-  
ary Sub-  
version  
of the  
Greek  
Empire.

On the ruins of this Greek Empire the Crusaders founded a Latin Empire under Count BALDWIN of Flanders, the leader of the Fourth

New Latin Empire under Count Baldwin of Flanders.

Crusade. The Crusaders divided among themselves as much of the Eastern Empire as they could secure and hold. Baldwin received only about a-fourth of the Empire, which was now split up into a number of petty states, some of which were Greek and others Latin. The remaining European possessions of the Empire were divided between the Venetians, the Lombards and the French; the Venetians receiving a disproportionately large share. The Venetians established a chain of factories or trading-posts along the coast from Constantinople to Venice. Boniface, Marquis of Montferrat, became King of Macedonia.

Greek Emperors of Nice and Trebizond.

The dominions of the Greek Empire in Asia which had not passed into the possession of the Seljuk Turks were divided between the two Greek sovereigns reigning respectively at Nice and Trebizond, each claiming the title of Emperor. The Emperors of Nice were able and prudent sovereigns, and their dominions became powerful and prosperous under their rule.

Restoration of the Greek Empire by Michael Palæologus.

The Latin Empire of Constantinople had no hold on the Byzantine people, and therefore lasted only fifty-seven years, the attempt to Latinize it having failed, so that it fell before the conquering arms of the Emperor MICHAEL PALÆOLOGUS of Nice, A. D. 1261. The restored Greek Empire under the dynasty of the Palæologi lasted almost two centuries.

Weakness of the Restored Greek Empire.

As the Greek Empire of Nice had claimed to be the legitimate successor of the Eastern Roman Empire, the conquest of Constantinople by Michael Palæologus may be regarded as a revival of that state to some extent; but it never recovered its former power, as the Ottoman Turks pressed upon its eastern border, and the Greek Emperor of Trebizond and some of the Greek and Latin princes continued to rule their territories independent of the Greek Emperor at Constantinople. The restored Greek Empire of Constantinople was merely the most powerful of the various Greek states, which continued to exist without attracting much attention, until they were all finally conquered by the Ottoman Turks in the fifteenth century.

Michael's Vain Efforts to Unite the Greek and Roman Churches.

Michael Palæologus, alarmed by the Pope's threat to arouse Western Europe to a crusade against him, sought to force his subjects into a union with the Roman Church; but his efforts in this direction brought only suffering and sorrow to his dominions, though his violence and cruelty were insufficient to satisfy the Pope, great as they were. Gibbon says that at Rome "his slowness was arraigned and his sincerity suspected."

Andronicus II., A. D. 1282-1332.

On the death of Michael Palæologus, in 1282, his son ANDRONICUS II. became his successor on the Byzantine throne. Andronicus II. put an end to the outrages which his father inaugurated, dissolved the

union with the Roman Church, and restored the Greek religion in his Empire. About twenty years after his accession a band of Catalan adventurers, reinforced by men from all portions of the world and known as the *Great Company*, having rendered good service to the Empire by defeating the Ottoman Turks in two bloody battles, imagined that they had a right to the property of the Empire which they had saved, and commenced such a series of arbitrary exactions upon the Byzantine provinces that the Emperor was put to great exertions to resist them. After their leader had been assassinated, they seized the strong fortress of Gallipoli, on the Hellespont, and defeated the forces of the Eastern Empire twice by sea and land. These successes brought many recruits to their ranks, and they continued their outrages upon the Empire until they were obliged to disperse on account of the lack of provisions and the dissensions of their leaders.

The  
Great  
Company.

Andronicus II. associated his son Michael with him in the government at the age of eighteen. Michael's son Andronicus shared the imperial honors at an early age, and soon began to wait impatiently the removal of the obstacles in the way of his sole possession of the Byzantine throne. One of these obstacles was removed by his father's premature death; but then, to the surprise of the younger Andronicus, his grandfather transferred his hopes and affections to another grandson. The younger Andronicus fled from Constantinople in 1321, and began a civil war against his grandfather. After a struggle of seven years the younger Andronicus triumphed in 1328, and the Emperor Andronicus II. retired to a monastery, where he died in 1332.

The  
Younger  
Andro-  
nicus.

His  
Revolt  
and  
Triumph.

ANDRONICUS III. thus became sole Emperor, and soon afterward he attempted to check the progress of the Ottoman Turks, but was beaten badly and wounded in his only campaign. His early intemperance brought him to a premature grave, and he died in 1341, at the age of forty-four. His son JOHN IV. by his second wife, the Empress Anne, sister of the Count of Savoy, was a child of nine years; and Andronicus III. in his will appointed his old and tried friend, John Cantacuzene, guardian of his son.

Andro-  
nicus III.,  
A. D.  
1332-  
1341.

John IV.,  
A. D.  
1341-  
1347.

During the Emperor John's minority John Cantacuzene was the real ruler of the Eastern Empire. He ruled with wisdom and firmness, and recovered the isle of Lesbos and the principality of Ætolia by his valor and prudence. One of his rivals instigated the young Emperor and his mother to cast off John Cantacuzene's rule, and the able minister was declared an enemy of the Empire and of the Church. He at once appealed to arms to recover his power, thus beginning a civil war of six years.

John  
Cantacu-  
zene's  
Rule and  
Revolt

In 1343 John Cantacuzene solicited the assistance of the Ottoman Turks, who were thus admitted into Europe, where they obtained a

John Cantacuzene aided by the Turks.

John V. and John VI.

Quarrels between Them.

Overthrow of John V.

Wars of the Genoese and Venetians.

The Eastern Empire and the Turks.

Manuel II., A. D. 1391-1425.

permanent footing, thus sealing the doom of the Eastern Roman Empire. With the aid of his Turkish allies, John Cantacuzene reduced the young Emperor to submission, returned to Constantinople in triumph, ascended the Byzantine throne with the title of JOHN V., and acknowledged the son of Andronicus III. as associate Emperor with the title of JOHN VI.

John VI. made two efforts to overthrow the elder Emperor by force, but was defeated both times. The second time he fled to the Latins of the isle of Tenedos for refuge. With the hope of ending these civil wars, John V. deposed his younger colleague John VI., associated his own son Matthew in the government, and established the Byzantine succession in his own family; thus bringing on a revolution which restored John VI. to the Byzantine throne with the aid of some Genoese troops. John V. retired to a cloister and passed the rest of his life in literary pursuits, A. D. 1355.

The reign of John V., like that of Andronicus III., had been distracted by the fierce quarrels of the Venetians, the Genoese and the Pisans, who contended with each other for the monopoly of the Eastern commerce. The Emperor was unable to enforce peace, and the imperial and Venetian forces were several times defeated by the Genoese. John V. was obliged to sign a humiliating treaty, by which he bound himself to expel the Venetians from Constantinople and to grant the desired monopoly to the Genoese. These troubles continued in some degree during the early part of the reign of John VI., who remained on the Byzantine throne until 1391.

The Eastern Empire now began to be afflicted with a most serious evil. The Ottoman Turks, whom John V. had admitted into Europe, had seized the city of Adrianople and made it their capital. They were fully resolved to extend their European dominion to the Hellespont, and the capture of Constantinople was a foregone conclusion. The Turks treated the Greek Emperors as their vassals, and the Emperors were unable to offer any resistance to such formidable foes. The Turkish Sultan Bajazet I. deprived his own son of his eyes for conspiring against him. The Greek Emperor's son John was an accomplice in the plot, his object being to dethrone his father. Sultan Bajazet I. sternly demanded that the Greek Emperor should blind his own son, and the Emperor was obliged to comply with the Sultan's demand.

Upon the death of John VI., in 1391, his second son, MANUEL II., ascended the Byzantine throne. The Turkish Sultan Bajazet I. immediately espoused the cause of the blind prince John. Manuel II. left Constantinople and hastened to France to solicit assistance, and his blind competitor occupied the Byzantine throne. Sultan Bajazet



I. now threw off the mask, and claimed Constantinople as his own capital. Prince John refused to submit, whereupon the Turkish Sultan invested Constantinople and compelled the city to undergo the horrors of a siege and famine. The Byzantine capital would undoubtedly have fallen into Turkish hands at that time had not the Sultan been suddenly called into Asia Minor to defend his dominions against the Tartar conqueror Tamerlane.

His Rival  
John.

Turkish  
Siege of  
Constantinople.

The Turkish Sultan's retirement from the siege of Constantinople gave the Greek Emperor a brief respite, and the Emperor Manuel II. took advantage of it to visit the courts of Western Europe to solicit assistance; but none of the European sovereigns were in a condition to afford him any aid. The death of Sultan Bajazet I. was followed by quarrels among his sons, thus preventing the Turks from exerting their united strength against Constantinople.

Manuel  
II., Seeks  
Aid  
against  
the  
Turks.

JOHN PALEOLOGUS II., the son and successor of Manuel II., ascended the Byzantine throne in 1425. He entertained the idea of effecting a union of the Greek and Roman Churches, and accepted the Pope's invitation to visit Italy to bring about such a consummation. In 1438 John Palæologus II. visited Ferrara, where a general council of the Roman Church was then in session. Pope Eugenius IV. summoned a council at Florence, and a reunion of the Greek and Latin Churches was formally proclaimed in July, 1438. But the Greek Church had no sympathy with this reunion, and the Greek Emperor had planned it only in order to secure the aid of Western Christendom in his efforts to maintain his Empire against the Ottoman Turks.

John  
Palæ-  
ologus  
II., A. D.  
1425-  
1448.

His  
Efforts  
to Unite  
the Greek  
and  
Roman  
Churches.

In the latter days of the Eastern Roman Empire, whenever the Greeks were in any difficulty, their Emperors always made a show of ending the division between the Eastern and Western Churches; but these schemes never took any real root, because the Greeks were fully resolved never to acknowledge the Pope's authority.

Failure  
of Such  
Efforts.

The Pope manifested a disposition to aid his Greek brethren, and sought to excite a crusade of Western Christendom in their behalf, but he found this a difficult task. The English, French and Germans took no part in the affair; but Hungary and Poland, which were more directly interested by being in constant danger of a Turkish invasion, gave a favorable response to the appeal of Pope Eugenius IV. The crowns of those two kingdoms were worn by the same monarch, Ladislas VI. Recruits were obtained from other lands by "an endless treasure of pardons and indulgences, scattered by the legate"; and a Christian army of a hundred thousand men was assembled under the command of Prince John Hunniyades of Transylvania, one of the most renowned warriors of the time. An alliance was made with the Turkish Sultan of Caramania, in Asia Minor; and a fleet was collected from

Hungary  
and  
Poland  
Engage  
in a  
Crusade  
against  
the  
Turks.

**Battle of Varna.** Burgundy, Genoa and Venice. After gaining some advantages, the Christian army was defeated by the Turkish army under Sultan Amurath II. in the bloody battle of Varna in 1444, King Ladislas VI. of Poland and Hungary being among the slain.

**Constantine Palæologus, A. D. 1448-1453.** Sultan Mohammed II., who succeeded Amurath II. on the Turkish throne in 1451, commenced fortifying the Hellespont, thus bringing on a war between himself and CONSTANTINE PALÆOLOGUS, the last Greek Emperor. In the spring of 1453 a Turkish army of two hundred and sixty thousand men invested Constantinople, and carried the city by storm, May 29th, after a siege of fifty-three days. The Emperor Constantine Palæologus died sword in hand, in a gallant effort to save his capital. In this siege the Turks used cannon, which is the first use of such engines of warfare in so important an operation. Sultan Mohammed II. made Constantinople the capital of the Ottoman Empire, and converted the Church of St. Sophia into a Mohammedan mosque.

**Turkish Siege and Capture of Constantinople.**

**End of the Eastern Roman, or Greek Empire.** The capture of Constantinople ended the Eastern Roman Empire, which had existed over a thousand years (A. D. 395-1453). The conquering Turks soon absorbed the remaining territories of the Greek Emperors. Sultan Mohammed II. treated the vanquished Greeks with great liberality, protecting them in their lives and liberties, and permitting them the free exercise of their religion, leaving them one-half of the churches of Constantinople—a toleration the benefits of which they enjoyed for sixty years.

**Retrospective View.**

Thus the Eastern Roman, Greek, or Byzantine Empire—after an existence of more than a thousand years from the final division of the Roman Empire in A. D. 395—ceased forever to exist, giving way before the arms of a conquering barbarian nation professing the religion of Islam. The Empire of the Eastern Cæsars thus subverted had long been in a decaying condition, suffering from an internal ulcer which had been for centuries sapping the vitals of the Empire, and thus rendering it an easy prey to the conquering Ottoman horde which had been gradually extending its sway over Asia Minor during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Thus the Empire over which Justinian had reigned so gloriously in the sixth century had been slowly rotting away, its internal vigor ebbing away by degrees, while its territorial extent was also gradually reduced. Constantinople as a Roman imperial capital began with a Constantine and ended with a Constantine, having been founded and made the capital of the undivided Roman Empire by Constantine the Great in A. D. 330, and having ended as the capital of the Eastern Empire with the fall of that Empire and the death of its last Emperor, Constantine Palæologus, in A. D. 1453.

GREEK, OR EASTERN ROMAN EMPERORS.

*Different Races.*

- A. D. 364 Valens.  
 379 Theodosius the Great.  
 395 Arcadius.  
 408 Theodosius II.  
 450 Marcian.  
 457 Leo I., the Thracian.  
 474 Leo II., the Younger.  
 474 Zeno the Isaurian.  
 491 Anastasius I., the Illyrian.  
 518 Justin I.  
 527 Justinian I.  
 565 Justin II.  
 578 Tiberius II.  
 582 Maurice the Cappadocian.  
 602 Phocas.  
 610 Heraclius.  
 641 Constantine III., Heracleonus.  
 641 Constans II.  
 668 Constantine IV., Pogonatus.  
 685 Justinian II. (deposed).  
 695 Leontius.  
 698 Tiberius III., Aspimar.  
 705 Justinian II. (restored).  
 711 Philippicus Bardanes.  
 713 Anastasius II.  
 716 Theodosius III.

*Isauric Race.*

- 718 Leo III., the Isaurian.  
 741 Constantine V.  
 775 Leo IV.  
 780 Constantine VI. and Irene.  
 792 Irene, Empress.  
 802 Nicephorus I., Logothetes.  
 811 Stauracius.  
 811 Michael I.  
 813 Leo V., the Armenian.  
 820 Michael II., the Stammerer.  
 829 Theophilus.  
 842 Michael III., Porphyrogenitus.

*Macedonian Race.*

- 867 Basil I., the Macedonian.  
 886 Leo VI., the Philosopher.  
 911 Alexander and Constantine VII., Porphyrogenitus.  
 919 Romanus Lecapenus and his sons.  
 920 Christopher and his sons.  
 928 Stephen and Constantine VIII.  
 945 Constantine VIII. (alone).  
 959 Romanus II.  
 963 Nicephorus II., Phocas.

- A. D. 969 John I., Zimisceus.  
 976 Basil II. and Constantine IX.  
 1028 Romanus III., Argyropulus.  
 1034 Michael IV., the Paphlagonian.  
 1041 Michael V., Calaphates.  
 1042 Constantine X., Monomachus, and Zoe.  
 1054 Theodora.  
 1056 Michael VI., Stratiotes.

*The Comneni.*

- 1057 Isaac I., Comnenus.  
 1059 Constantine XI., Ducas.  
 1067 Eudocia and Romanus Diogenes.  
 1071 Michael VII., Parapinaces.  
 1078 Nicephorus III.  
 1081 Alexis I., Comnenus.  
 1118 John Comnenus.  
 1143 Manuel I., Comnenus.  
 1180 Alexis II., Comnenus.  
 1183 Andronicus I., Comnenus.  
 1185 Isaac II., Angelus Comnenus.  
 1195 Alexis III., Angelus, the Tyrant.  
 1203 Isaac II. and Alexis IV.  
 1204 Alexis V., Ducas.

*French, or Latin Emperors.*

- 1204 Baldwin I. (of Flanders).  
 1206 Henry I.  
 1216 Peter de Courtenay.  
 1221 Robert de Courtenay.  
 1228 Baldwin II. (Latin dynasty ended in 1261).

*Greek Emperors at Nice.*

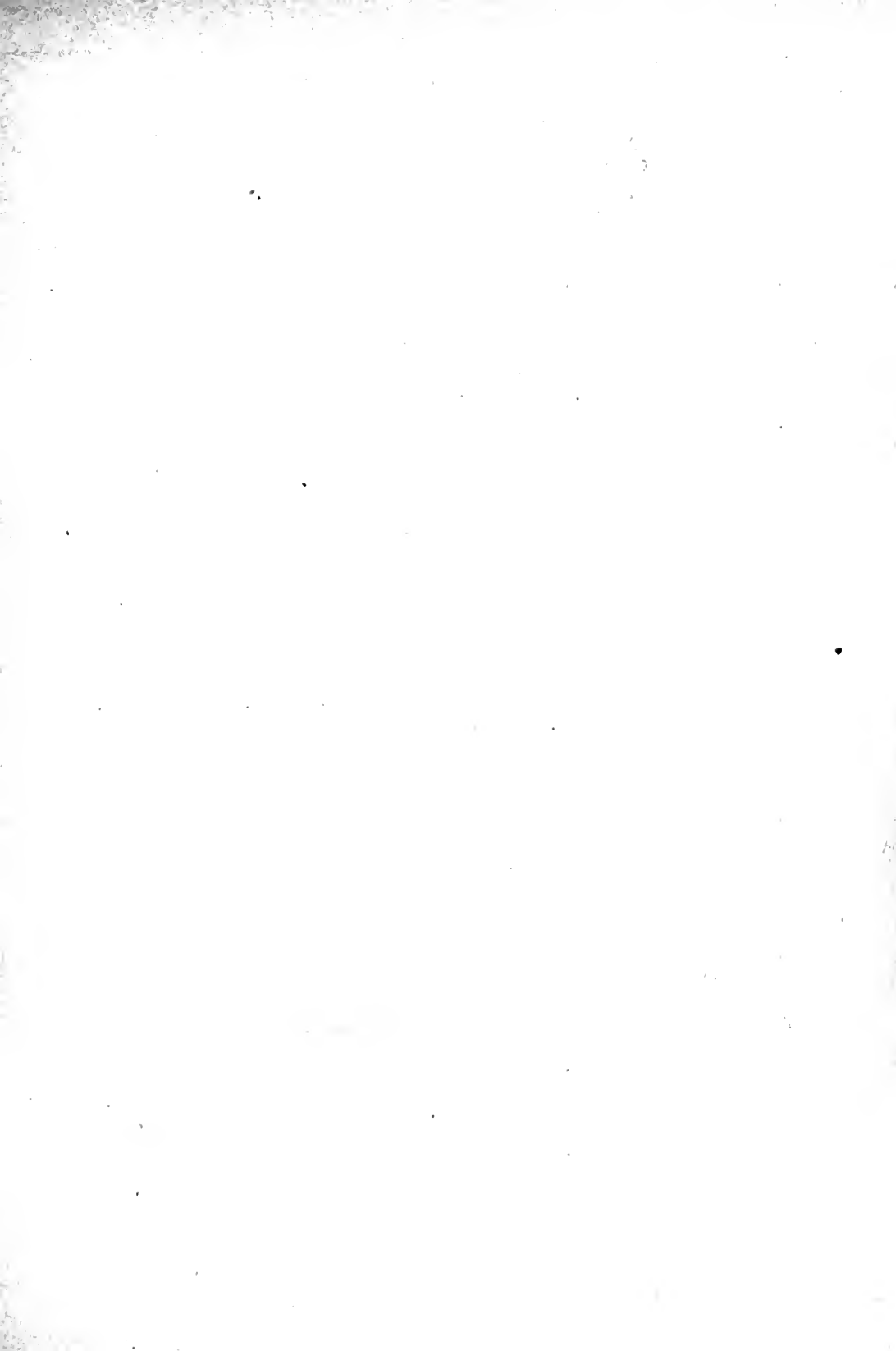
- 1204 Theodore Lascaris I.  
 1222 John Ducas Vataces.  
 1255 Theodore Lascaris II.  
 1259 John Lascaris.  
 1260 Michael Palæologus.

*The Greek Empire Restored at Constantinople under the Palæologi.*

- 1261 Michael VII., Palæologus.  
 1282 Andronicus II., the Elder.  
 1328 Andronicus III., the Younger.  
 1341 John Palæologus I. (deposed).  
 1347 John Cantacuzene.  
 1355 John Palæologus restored.  
 1391 Manuel II., Palæologus.  
 1425 John Palæologus II.  
 1448 Constantine Palæologus XIV. (killed and empire ended by the Turks, 1453).

## GREEK EMPERORS OF TREBIZOND.

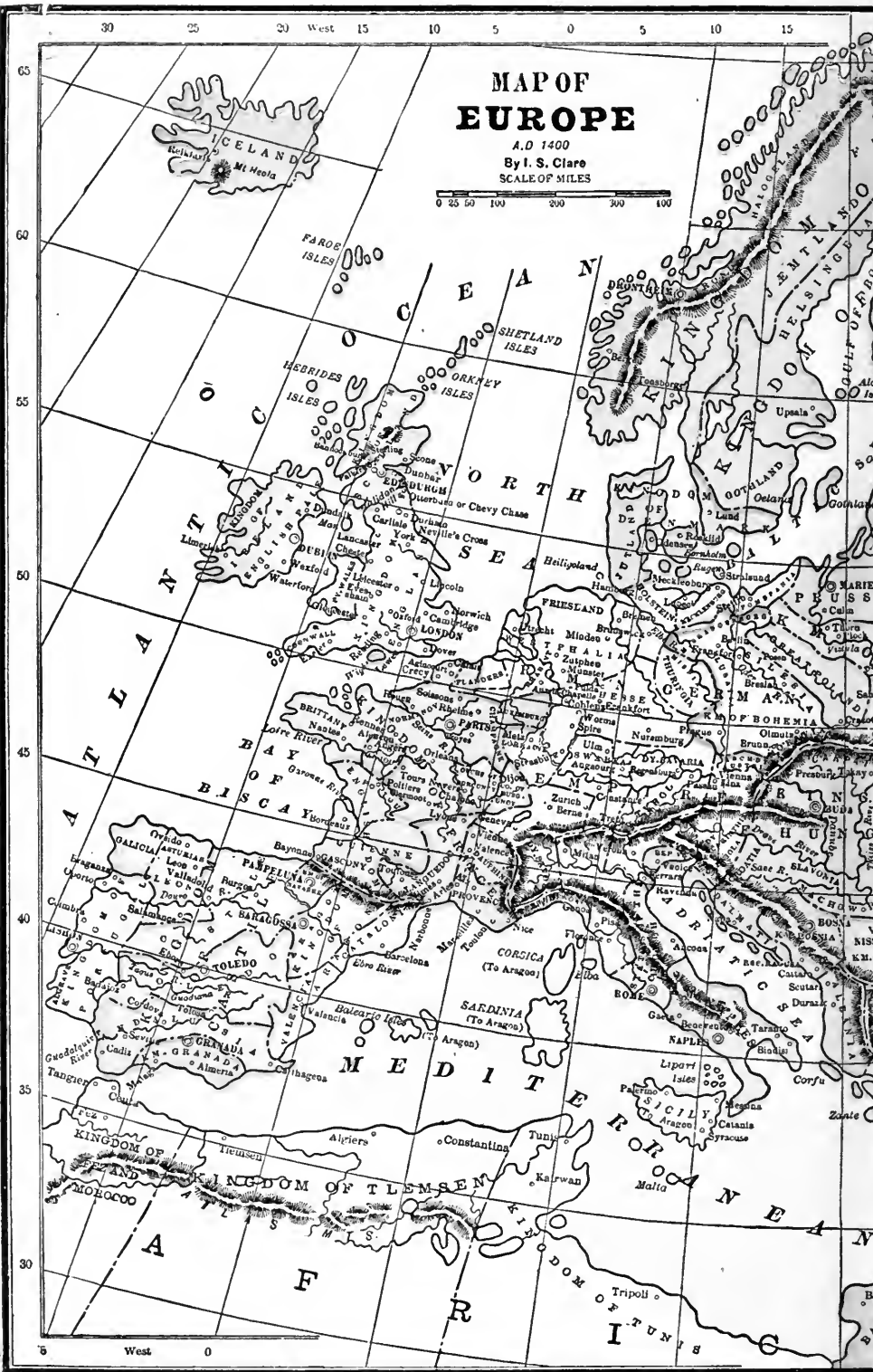
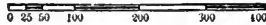
A. D. 1204 Alexis Comnenus.	A. D. 1332 Manuel II.
1222 Andronicus I.	1332 Basil.
1235 John I.	1340 Irene.
1238 Manuel I.	1341 Anna.
1263 Andronicus II.	1343 John III.
1266 George.	1344 Michael.
1280 John II. (deposed).	1349 Alexis III.
1285 Theodora.	1390 Manuel III.
1285 John II. restored.	1417 Alexis IV.
1297 Alexis II.	1446 John IV., Cabo Joannes.
1330 Andronicus III.	1458 David (Empire conquered by the Turks, 1461).



# MAP OF EUROPE

A.D. 1400

By I. S. Clary  
SCALE OF MILES









# CHAPTER XXX.

## TARTAR CONQUESTS.

### SECTION I.—ZINGIS KHAN'S TARTAR EMPIRE (A. D. 1205-1368).

ZINGIS KHAN, or TEMUJIN, the chief of a small tribe of Mongols, or Moguls, founded a vast Tartar empire in the early part of the thirteenth century—an empire which under his successors embraced almost the whole of the vast continent of Asia and the eastern half of Europe, and was thus the most extensive empire that the world has ever seen.

Zingis Khan, or Temujin.

His Vast Empire.

Origin of the Mongols.

The Mongols were originally a tribe of Tartars who spread themselves south and east of Lake Baikal, in Southern Siberia, and between the rivers that form the Upper Amoor. Even in Zingis Khan's time they numbered about four hundred thousand tents. After his time many nations adopted the name that he had made illustrious by his conquests.

Thirteen Mongol hordes who had obeyed Temujin's father refused to obey the son, who was thirteen years old at the time of his father's death in 1167. The youthful Temujin fought them and reduced them to their allegiance. This was the first military exploit of the great Mongol conqueror, who was destined to conquer five or six million square miles of territory. Though this achievement acquired fame and prestige for the youthful Temujin, he was afterward obliged to seek aid from the Great Khan of the Kin Empire of Tartary, of which he was a vassal. The Great Khan, who had been under obligations to Temujin's father, showed his gratitude for the father and his esteem for the son by reinstating Temujin in his paternal inheritance, and gave him his daughter in marriage.

Temujin's First Exploits.

Temujin had been carefully educated, and a very able minister had been intrusted with the care of his childhood. He was well versed in all the exercises constituting a Tartar education. He could shoot his arrow or strike his lance with unerring aim, either when advancing or retreating. He could endure hunger, thirst, fatigue, cold and pain. He managed his fierce and heavy war-horse, or his light and impetuous

His Physical Education.

courser, with such consummate skill, by word, or look, or touch, that man and beast appeared as but one animal swayed by one common will.

Temujin,  
the Khan  
and the  
Revolted  
Princes.

After gaining some successes for his father-in-law, jealousies were excited in his family and in the empire by the high favor with which Temujin was regarded at court. Temujin had rendered himself further unpopular by inducing the Khan to assume more authority than the vassal princes were willing to submit to. The princes therefore revolted against the Khan and defeated him in battle; but Temujin replaced his father-in-law on the throne by winning a brilliant victory over the revolted princes. Temujin tarnished his victory with great cruelty, scalding seventy of his enemies to death by flinging them alive into seventy caldrons of boiling water.

The  
Kahn's  
Over-  
throw  
and Death  
by  
Temujin.

At length the Khan's jealousy was excited against his famous son-in-law. After exhausting every conciliatory method, Temujin thought himself justified in building up a party of his own in self-defense. At last recourse was had to arms, and Temujin defeated his father-in-law, who was slain in the battle. After some further struggles with his enemies, Temujin succeeded to his father-in-law's throne, A. D. 1205.

Temu-  
jin's  
Acces-  
sion.

Temujin was then forty years old, and he convoked all the princes of his empire to do him homage. The Mongol princes all assembled on the appointed day, clothed in white. Temujin advanced into their midst, with the diadem upon his brow, seated himself upon his throne, and received the congratulations and good wishes of the assembled Mongol princes and Khans, who then confirmed him and his posterity in the sovereignty of the Mongol Empire, declaring themselves and their posterity vassals of the Great Khan.

His  
Address  
to the  
Mongol  
Khans  
and  
Princes.

After some additional victories, Temujin repeated the ceremony in a still more simple and signal manner. He stood on a plain mound of turf near the banks of the Selinga, where he harangued the assembled Mongol Khans and princes with an eloquence natural to him, after which he sat down on a piece of black felt which was spread upon the earth. This felt was revered as a sacred relic for a long time afterward. An appointed orator then addressed Temujin thus: "However great your power, from God you hold it. He will prosper you if you govern justly. If you abuse your authority you will become black as this felt, a wretch and an outcast." Seven Khans then respectfully assisted him to rise, conducted him to his throne, and proclaimed him lord of the Mongol Empire. A relative, a saint and a prophet, approached naked, and said: "Brethren, I have seen a vision. The great God of Heaven, on his flaming throne, surrounded by the spirits on high, sat in judgment on the nations of the earth. Sentence was pronounced, and he gave the dominion of the world to our chief, Temujin, whom he appointed Zingis Khan, or Universal Sovereign." He said to

Temujin: "Welcome, with God's order that you henceforth take the name of Zingis Khan." The Mongols ratified this name with extravagant joy, considering it a divine title to the conquest of the world, and regarded opposing nations as God's enemies. Thus early were the great Mongol leader and his followers inspired with fanaticism.

**His New Name, Zingis Khan.**

Zingis Khan, as Temujin was thereafter called, thus finding himself at the head of many Mongol tribes of nomads, proceeded to organize his vast dominions into a well-regulated empire, and to establish a powerful army consisting of the various Mongol elements, but mainly officered by Tartar chiefs. At this time Zingis Khan promulgated his celebrated civil and military code for his empire, under the sanction of monotheism, and in perfect toleration of all religions. He likewise afterward caused the best Arabic, Persian, Chinese and Thibetan books to be translated into the Mongol language, and this had a powerful tendency to elevate his subjects above their inherited barbarism. Roads were built and fortifications were constructed.

**His Early Enlightened Measures.**

Zingis Khan then began his wonderful career of conquest, which made him master of a large part of the Eastern Continent from the Pacific ocean on the east to the frontiers of Germany on the west. His first great conquest was in the far East.

**His Career of Conquest.**

A demand from the Chinese Emperor upon Zingis Khan for the customary tribute from the Mongol tribes brought on a war between the Mongols and the Chinese; and very soon Zingis Khan's well-disciplined Mongol hordes broke through the Great Wall and reveled in the spoils of the Celestial Empire. Though the Chinese used in their defense some substance like Greek-fire and bombs filled with gunpowder, which appears to have been used by them for centuries before its invention in Europe, they were unable to withstand the Tartar hosts. The Mongols took Pekin in 1215; and all of Northern China, a part of the Kin Empire, was annexed to Zingis Khan's dominions.

**His Conquest of China.**

After the conquest of China, Zingis Khan turned westward at the head of seven hundred thousand warriors, with the intention of making himself master of every nation from Orient to Occident. With this immense host the great Mongol conqueror overran the Korasmian Empire, the seat of which was in the region east of the Caspian Sea, in the modern Turkestan. The war between Zingis Khan and the Sultan of Korasm was brought on by the aggressions of the Sultan's subjects, who plundered some Tartar merchants.

**His March Westward.**

After collecting his seven hundred thousand warriors, and ordering recruits to be raised throughout his dominions and sent after him, Zingis Khan advanced against the Korasmians. During his march he disciplined and regulated his army in the most efficient manner, and gave the following despotic general order: "If a soldier fly without having

**His Invasion of Korasm.**

fought, whatever the danger or resistance, he shall die; if from a company of ten, any one or more shall separate, he or they shall die without mercy; if any of the company see their comrades engaged, and do not try to succor or rescue them, they shall die." The Korasmian Empire embraced Korasm, Great Bucharia, Persia, Persian Irak, and much of India. The Sultan of Korasm raised an army of half a million men to oppose the invading hosts of Zingis Khan.

His  
Conquest  
and  
Devastation  
of  
Korasm.

The great Mongol conqueror overran all parts of the Korasmian Empire at once, and one hundred and sixty thousand Korasmians were slain in the first battle. The Mongol invaders swept from city to city like a devouring conflagration, leaving behind them only blackened heaps of ruins. Samarcand, Bokhara, Balkh and other flourishing cities, the seats of learning and Central Asian civilization, filled with the treasures of art, and celebrated for their commerce and wealth for centuries, were mercilessly sacked. The country was frightfully devastated, and the inhabitants were barbarously massacred or enslaved. The Korasmian armies were uniformly defeated. The Sultan of Korasm himself, driven to extremity, came to the shores of the Caspian, embarked in a boat amid a volley of arrows, and escaped to an island, where he died of sickness and despair, after enjoining his son Jelaled-din to avenge him.

Death  
of the  
Sultan of  
Korasm.

Jelaled-  
din's  
Resist-  
ance.

The dauntless and persevering Jelaleddin did all that was possible to obey his father's dying injunctions, but fortune was always against him. He lost city after city, and finally sought refuge in an island of the Indus, where he burned his ships, except one for his family. His soldiers were slain around him while defending themselves like tigers at bay. The Korasmians sought refuge in the rocks where the Mongol cavalry could not penetrate, but as they were reduced to seven hundred men the Sultan disbanded them.

His  
Escape.

The unfortunate Jelaleddin, after embracing his family and tearing himself away from them, took off his cuirass, stripped himself of all his arms but his sword, bow and quiver, mounted a horse and plunged into the river, in the midst of which he turned around and discharged his arrows in defiance at Zingis Khan, who stood on the bank. The ship in which Jelaleddin's family had embarked split as it left the shore of the river, and the whole family fell into the Mongol conqueror's power, and were afterward murdered.

Fate  
of His  
Family.

His  
Last Ad-  
ventures  
and  
Death.

The fugitive Korasmian prince passed the night in a hollow tree, from fear of wild beasts. He then collected all the fugitives he could muster; and, after being joined by an officer of his household, with a boat laden with arms and provisions, money and clothing, he established himself in India; but after many misfortunes he returned to his native country, where he died in obscurity shortly after his conqueror.

A Turkoman horde of Jelaleddin's army engaged in the service of the Sultans of Iconium, or Roum, and from this horde sprung Othman, the founder of the Ottoman Turkish Empire. It is said that the ravages of the four years of Zingis Khan's Korasmian war were so great that five centuries were not sufficient to repair its ravages.

Othman.

In his camp on the Indus, Zingis Khan—who was now master of Persia and all the other territories of the Korasmian Empire—yielded to the desire of his soldiers for repose and for the enjoyment of the wealth which they had acquired through so much toil and blood. Returning slowly, encumbered with spoil, he viewed with regret the desolation around him, and expressed his intention to rebuild the cities which he had reduced to ruins.

Ravages.

Zingis  
Khan's  
Rest and  
Regret.

As Zingis Khan passed the Jaxartes he was met by two of his generals, whom he had sent around the southern shore of the Caspian with thirty thousand men, and who had fought their way through the passes of the Caucasus, traversed the marshy regions near the Volga, crossed that and the desert, and returned to Asia by a route north of the Caspian and Aral Seas.

March  
of Two  
of His  
Generals.

When the Mongol princes and generals had returned from their several expeditions, Zingis Khan assembled them in a large plain twenty-one miles in extent, his own quarters occupying a circuit of six miles. Over his throne, on which lay the black bit of felt used at his coronation, was spread a white tent capable of sheltering two thousand persons. Instead of the primitive simplicity of the nomadic Tartars, all the luxury of Asia glittered in the dress, horses, harness, arms and furniture of the assembled multitude. The great Mongol conqueror received the homage of his powerful vassals with majesty, and that of his children and grandchildren with tenderness as they were introduced to kiss his hands. He graciously accepted their presents, and distributed magnificent donations among them in return. One of the presents offered by a vassal prince was a herd of a hundred thousand horses.

Zingis  
Khan  
and His  
Vassal  
Khans  
and  
Princes.

The mighty Zingis Khan, who was fond of public speaking, now delivered an oration, commending his code of laws, to which he ascribed all his success and all his conquests, which he enumerated minutely. The envoys of his vassal Khans were then admitted to an audience, and were dismissed well satisfied. The entire ceremony was ended with a grand festival, lasting many days. Everything most exquisite in fruits, game, liquors and edibles was served up at the daily banquets.

Ceremony  
of  
Homage.

These festivals were followed by new triumphs, and prosperity seemed always to attend the great Mongol conqueror's military enterprises. Pillage and massacre followed in the course of his conquering hosts. Zingis Khan is said to have destroyed fifty thousand cities and six million human lives in building up an immense empire, six thousand

Zingis  
Khan's  
Destructive  
Conquests.

miles in extent from east to west, from the Sea of Japan to the steppes of Russia.

**His  
Abilities  
and  
Character.**

Zingis Khan was characterized by qualities fitting him for a conqueror—a genius capable of conceiving great and arduous designs, and a prudence equal to the execution of these designs. He was endowed with a persuasive eloquence, a degree of patience enabling him to endure and overcome fatigue, an admirable temperament, a superior understanding, and a penetrating mind that instantly seized the measure proper to be adopted. His military talents were conspicuous in his successful enforcement of a strict discipline and the introduction of a severe police among the Tartars, who had never before submitted to such restraint.

**His  
Mono-  
theism  
and  
Religious  
Toler-  
ance.**

He regulated everything, whether service, recompense or punishment. Intoxication was no excuse for wrong doing; neither were rank or power. Zingis Khan was a monotheist, believing in a deism; but his subjects were individually permitted to embrace any religion which they preferred, providing that they believed in but one God; and every one was protected against persecution for his religious belief. Some of his children and princes of the blood royal were Christians, some were Jews, and some were Mohammedans, with his full consent.

**His Code  
of Laws.**

Zingis Khan's code of laws was simple. Murder, adultery, perjury, the theft of a horse or an ox, or making a Mongol his servant by another Mongol, were all punished with death. No Tartar was permitted to give a slave meat or drink without his master's consent. Every one was required to serve the public according to his ability. All servile labor was prohibited to the victorious nation, and was abandoned to slaves and strangers. All labor was servile except military labor.

**His  
Army.**

The service and discipline of the troops were the institutions of a veteran commander. The Mongol troops were armed with bows, cimeters and iron maces; and were divided by hundreds, thousands and tens of thousands.

**His  
Illiteracy.**

Zingis Khan was unable to read or write, and most of his Mongols and Tartars were as illiterate. Neither he nor his generals left any written memorials of his achievements, and the traditions of these were not collected and transcribed until sixty-eight years after his death; but, as the Mongols mingled in the destinies of so many nations, full accounts of their exploits are given by the Chinese, the Persians, the Armenians, the Syrians, the Arabs, the Greeks, the Russians, the Poles and the Hungarians.

**History  
of His  
Exploits.**

**His  
Death and  
Burial.**

Zingis Khan died A. D. 1227, at the age of seventy years, and after a reign of twenty-two years, preserving to the last his complete ascendancy over the vassal nations and his own Mongols. He was honored with a magnificent funeral; and his simple sepulcher, beneath a tree

whose shade he had loved, became an object of veneration to his people, who loved fondly to embellish it.

Zingis Khan left a numerous offspring; and during his lifetime four of his sons, illustrious by birth and merit, had held the chief offices under their father, and their names and deeds are frequently conspicuous in the history of his conquests. These four sons were Toushi, his great huntsman; Zagatai, his judge; Oktai, his minister; and Tuli, his general.

**His  
Offspring.**

Upon the death of his renowned father, OKTAI was proclaimed Great Khan of the Mongols and Tartars, with the general consent. His three brothers and their families, firmly united for their own and the public interest, were content with dependent scepters. According to the father's direction, Tuli ruled the empire as regent while his brother was absent on a military expedition; and Oktai was only confirmed by a general council of the Mongols after the lapse of two years.

**Oktai  
Khan.**

**Regency  
of Tuli.**

Zingis Khan had selected his ministers and generals with so much judgment that Oktai did not find any change necessary. Oktai placed his chief confidence in Yelu, who had also enjoyed the implicit confidence of Zingis Khan. Yelu was a man of integrity, learned in the laws, of consummate prudence, and entirely devoted to the welfare of the vast Mongol Empire. Oktai placed his brother Tuli, to whom he was sincerely attached, at the head of his armies, and never had any cause to regret his choice.

**Yelu, the  
General.**

Oktai resolved to carry the renown of his arms to the far West. We are told that one and a-half million Mongols and Tartars were inscribed on his military roll. The Great Khan selected a third of these, and assigned them to the command of his nephew Batou, Tuli's son, who reigned over his father's conquests north of the Caspian. After a festival of forty days, Batou set out on his expedition; and the speed and ardor of his innumerable hosts were such that in less than six years they had measured a line of ninety degrees of longitude, or a fourth part of the earth's circumference.

**Oktai's  
Warriors.**

**Batou's  
Expedi-  
tion.**

The great rivers of Eastern Europe—the Volga, the Don, the Dnieper, the Dniester, the Vistula and the Danube—they either swam with their horses, or passed on the ice, or traversed in leathern boats, which they also used to transport their wagons and artillery across the streams. Batou's victories eradicated every vestige of national freedom in the vast steppes of Turkestan and Kipzak. Batou overran the Tartar kingdoms of Kazan and Astrakhan in his rapid march, and the troops which he sent against Mount Caucasus explored the innermost recesses of Georgia and Circassia.

**Batou's  
Invasion  
of Central  
Asia and  
Eastern  
Europe.**

The civil dissensions of the Russian princes betrayed their country to the Tartars, whose conquering hordes spread from Livonia to the

- Conquest of Russia and Invasion of Poland.** Black Sea. The two great Russian capitals—Kiev and Moscow—were reduced to ashes. After effecting the conquest of Russia, the Tartar hordes made a brief but destructive inroad into Poland as far as the frontier of Germany, burning the cities of Lublin and Cracow, and approached the Baltic shores. They defeated Duke Henry of Lower Silesia, the Polish Palatine, and the Grand Master of the Teutonic Knights, in the terrible battle of Liegnitz, in Silesia, and laid Breslau, the Silesian capital, in ashes. After the battle of Liegnitz, in which Duke Henry of Lower Silesia was killed, the victorious Mongols filled nine sacks with the right ears of the slain, that the number of victims might be counted, in barbarous triumph.
- Battle of Liegnitz.** The Tartar host, numbering half a million men, then turned southward into Hungary, piercing the Carpathian mountains; and the entire country north of the Danube was “lost in a day, was depopulated in a summer.” The ruins of cities and churches were overspread with the bones of the inhabitants, who thus “expiated the sins of their Asiatic ancestors.” Miserable refugees, enticed from the woods under a promise of peace and pardon, were barbarously slaughtered as soon as they had performed the labors of the harvest and the vintage, and their homes were ruthlessly destroyed.
- Invasion and Devastation of Hungary.** The Mongols crossed the Danube and besieged Gran, planting thirty engines against the place, and filling the trenches with sacks of earth and corpses. After they captured the town a promiscuous massacre followed, during which three hundred noble matrons were slain before the victorious Tartar general. Europe was in fear that her cities, her arts and her institutions would be extinguished. The Pope sent monks to convert the barbaric invaders to Christianity, but the Tartars astonished him by answering that the sons of God and of Zingis Khan had a divine right to subdue and extirpate the nations, and invited him to submission by means of threats. Frederick II., of Germany, sought to unite Germany, France and England in a league against the common foe. The Tartars were awed by the fame and valor of the French.
- Siege and Capture of Gran.** Neustadt, in Austria, was gallantly defended by fifty knights and twenty cross-bows; and the siege was raised on the approach of a German army.
- Europe's Alarm.** After ravaging Servia, Bosnia and Bulgaria, Batou slowly retreated from the Danube to the Volga, to enjoy his victories at Sarai, in latitude 48°—a city which sprang up from the desert as if by magic. This was the beginning of the empire of the Great Khan of the Golden Horde of Kipzak, under Zingis Khan's descendants, and which had Sarai for its capital. In 1242 Batou's brother led a horde of fifteen thousand families into Siberia, and his descendants reigned at Tobolsk for more than three centuries.
- Defense of Neustadt.**
- Batou's Retreat.**
- New City of Sarai.**
- Conquest of Siberia.**



Though Zingis Khan and Oktai were not Mohammedans they tolerated Islam the same as they did Christianity, Judaism and every other religion. A foreigner once told Oktai that Zingis Khan had appeared to him in a dream and had ordered a general massacre of Mohammedans throughout the empire. Oktai asked the man if he knew the Mongol language; and, when the man replied that he did not, Oktai said: "My father spoke no other; how then could you understand him?" Having thus detected the man's falsehood, Oktai punished him with death.

**Anecdote  
of Oktai  
Khan.**

At Oktai's death his wife set aside her grandson, whom her husband had intended should be his successor, and contrived to keep the regency. In two years she induced the Couroultai, or general council of the Mongols, to name her own son KAYUK as her husband's successor. Her course displeased the good minister Yelu, and she managed gradually to deprive him of power, and he is said to have died of grief.

**Regency  
of His  
Widow.**

**Kayuk  
Khan.**

Yelu appears to have been the perpetual good genius of the Mongol court, always ready to suggest or forward anything that might have a tendency to elevate the barbarian's views or soften the conqueror's heart—anything to civilize or humanize the rough natures with which he was associated. Yelu was extremely learned in Chinese science, and was the author of numerous volumes on history, astronomy, agriculture, government and commerce. He also had a taste for collecting antiquities and curiosities.

**Yelu's  
Goodness  
and  
Learning.**

Yelu was eminently endowed with all the qualities of a great minister—an inflexible steadiness, extraordinary presence of mind, a perfect knowledge of the countries under his master's dominion, judgment in the selection of the individuals whom he employed, and certain resources of money and provisions in case of emergency. He expended vast sums to draw artificers, officers, engineers and learned men from all quarters of the Mongol dominions. He was constantly laboring to inspire the princes with a love for their subjects, and the people with an abhorrence of carnage and rapine. During the sacking of Pekin and the palaces he took only some maps, books, paintings, and a few parcels of rhubarb; the last of which he used to cure the soldiers of a malignant epidemic fever.

**His Good  
Qualities  
and Wise  
Acts.**

Yelu was the first teacher of the Mongols, and also their first lawgiver by the advice he gave to Zingis Khan. He arranged a calendar for their use, and instituted wise and beneficial regulations concerning the finances, commerce, duties, the public granaries, and the subordination of officers, both civil and military. His designs encountered opposition from the natural ferocity of the Mongols, from their ignorance and defective early education; but his energy overcame all obstacles.

**Yelu as a  
Teacher  
and  
Lawgiver**

Kayuk's reign lasted eight years, during which the Mongols conquered Corea and some countries on the Caspian. Kayuk was priest-

**Kayuk's Prodigality.** ridden, and his prodigality was excessive. His subjects complained of having to furnish horses to the nobles, who were always riding post. They were also offended at the sums which the court expended for jewels and precious stones, while the soldiers received scarcely any payment, or their dues were left long in arrears.

**Mangoo Khan.** At Kayuk's death his mother and wife sought to place Oktai's former choice upon the Mongol throne; but the great council chose MANGOO, a grandson of Zingis Khan, but not belonging to the reigning branch.

**His Rule.** His firmness and celerity, and the well-regulated army that he kept at Karakorum, quelled any tendency to disturbance. Mangoo adopted the religion of the Grand Lama of Thibet, and became somewhat of a devotee. He portioned off the well-deserving of the royal family with fiefs in China, the largest and best of which was granted to his brother Kublai Khan, his successor on the Mongol throne. These Tartar lords had Chinese ministers, or stewards, who essentially modified and softened the barbarism of the Mongol government.

**Chinese Ministers.**

**Yansheu, as Minister.** Kublai Khan's minister was Yansheu, who was one of these useful officers, and who suggested many wise and profitable measures to repair the ravages of war in his fief, thus causing Tartars and Chinese to be well pleased with each other. This sagacious prime minister, on Mangoo's jealousy of his brother, followed by injustice, advised Kublai Khan to go immediately, throw himself on his brother's neck, and thus disabuse him of his suspicions. Mangoo's tenderness was at once revived, and he repeatedly embraced his brother, while tears flowed down his cheeks. Mangoo assigned his brother still more important trusts.

**Hoolagoo's Conquest of Bagdad and Syria.**

Hoolagoo had been appointed by his brother Mangoo, the Great Khan, in 1251, to govern Persia. Hoolagoo cleared the North of Persia from the Ismailians, or Assassins, whom he exterminated in 1255. He subjected Iconium, took Bagdad in 1258, capturing the last Khalif, took the cities of Mosul, Aleppo and Damascus, and conquered a large part of Syria. Hoolagoo threatened to march on Constantinople with four hundred thousand men, but was turned aside by the siege of Bagdad. Two hundred thousand Moslems perished in the defense of Bagdad.

**Plunder of Bagdad.**

When Bagdad was taken by the Mongols it was the richest city in the world. After plundering every part of Persia and Irak, the Tartar hordes hovered around this famous city like a hunter around his prey. The weak Khalif was betrayed by his own Vizier, who encouraged him in a false confidence, grateful to his avarice and indolence, until the Mongols took the city by assault; an army which had been hastily collected for the defense of the city having been lost by an inundation caused by the Tartars. The last Khalif presented himself to his Tartar conquerors with the vases containing diamonds and jewelry of

incalculable value, hoarded by his ancestors for many years. Hoolagoo immediately distributed these valuables among the leading officers of his army.

Al Mostasem, the last Khalif, was the most abstentious and inaccessible of all the Bagdad sovereigns, the most chary of his august presence, and was in the habit of appearing veiled, as he deemed the sight of his countenance too great a boon to his people. On such occasions the abject populace so thronged the streets of the city that the windows and balconies were hired at extravagant prices to see him pass. Through these same streets, which witnessed his insane pride, exposed to the view of the same multitude, did the cruel Tartar conqueror drag the vanquished Khalif, confined in a leather sack, until his life was extinct. Thus perished Al Mostasem, the last of the Khalifs of Bagdad; and that city was pillaged by the conquering Tartars for a full week, A. D. 1258.

**Murder  
of the  
Last  
Khalif of  
Bagdad.**

Mangoo perished in the siege of a city of the Song Empire in Southern China, A. D. 1259, thus leaving to his brother KUBLAI KHAN the Grand Khanate of the Mongols, and also the legacy of a war with the Song dynasty in South China, a war which Zingis Khan had almost with his dying breath enjoined upon his successors. But Kublai Khan was obliged to put down another brother, who aspired to the Mongol crown. After defeating this brother and routing his army, Kublai Khan selected wise and able counselors, and these aided in rendering his name illustrious.

**Kublai  
Khan.**

**Triumph  
over His  
Brother.**

Kublai Khan's great achievement was the conquest of Southern China, in which he employed European and Mohammedan engineers. The engines of antiquity, such as the balista and catapult for throwing stones and darts, the battering-ram, etc., were used; as were also Greek-fire, gunpowder, cannon and bombs. The Mongol troops, drawn along canals, lay siege to Hanchow, on the coast, in the most delightful climate of China. The Song Emperor, a mere youth, surrendered, put his head to the earth nine times in token of homage, and then went into exile in Tartary.

**Kublai  
Khan's  
Conquest  
of  
Southern  
China.**

The last champion of the Song dynasty endeavored to escape by sea, but was surrounded by the Mongol fleet, whereupon he exclaimed: "It is more glorious to die a prince than live a slave!" He then leaped into the sea with his infant Emperor in his arms. His example was followed by a hundred thousand Chinese; and Kublai Khan reigned over all China, founding the Yuen dynasty.

**Suicide  
of the  
Song  
Emperor.**

After the conquest of South China, Kublai Khan desired to conquer Japan, but after losing a hundred thousand men by shipwreck and other disasters he relinquished the hopeless enterprise. His conquering arms reduced Pegu, Tonquin, Cochin China, Bengal, Thibet and Corea

**Kublai  
Khan's  
Invasion  
of Japan.**

**His New Conquests.** to different degrees of tribute and subjection. He explored the Indian Ocean with a fleet of a thousand ships for sixty-eight days, during which he visited and subdued portions of the large islands of Borneo and Java, but found nothing that he considered worth retaining in those remote islands.

**His Enlightened Rule.** Under Kublai Khan letters, commerce, peace and justice flourished; and the great canal of China, five hundred miles in length, was opened from Nankin to Peking, his capital, where he displayed all the wealth and magnificence of Asia.

**Yelu's Wise Administration.** Yelu, the Chinese mandarin, the minister and friend of Zingis Khan and his sons and successors, had labored incessantly, during a spotless administration of thirty years, to mitigate or suspend the horrors of war; to save the monuments and to restore the preëminence of science; to restrain the military commander by restoring the civil magistrates; and to instill into the minds of the Mongols the love of industry, justice and peace. He struggled with the barbarism of the first Mongol conquerors, but his salutary lessons produced abundant fruits in the second generation.

**Mongol Adoption of Chinese Civilization.** Kublai Khan had been educated in Chinese manners and customs, and he inspired the loyalty of his Chinese subjects by restoring the forms of their venerable constitution, as it was easier to adopt than to invent, and as the conquering Mongols gradually submitted to the customs, manners, habits, fashions, laws and prejudices of the vanquished Chinese. The numbers, servitude, steady sense and impregnability of character of the Chinese were such that their Mongol conquerors appear repeatedly to have been absorbed and dissolved in the vast homogeneous mass of the teeming millions of the population of China. Marco Polo, the great Venetian traveler, visited Kublai Khan's court at Peking.

**Dissolution of the Mongol Empire.** After the death of Kublai Khan, in 1294, the Khans of Kipzak and Russia, the Khans of Zagatai, or Transoxiana, and the Khans of Iran, or Persia, although they received investiture from the Mongol Emperor of China, threw off the supremacy of Zingis Khan's degenerate posterity, who reigned at Peking for three quarters of a century after Kublai Khan's death. In 1368 the Mongol, or Yuen dynasty, founded by Kublai Khan, was expelled from China; and the native Ming dynasty then occupied the Chinese throne until 1644.

**Timour's Good Reign in China.** Kublai Khan was succeeded on the Mongol throne by TIMOUR, the youngest of his brother's three sons, A. D. 1294. Timour's clemency and regard for his subjects endeared him to the Chinese, who extol him as a model of perfection. He often visited the needy and unfortunate, and frequently sent his almoners and agents into the provinces to search out objects of charity. No sovereign ever displayed better judgment in the choice of his ministers and generals, and none ever exhibited a

more marked contempt for flattery and luxury. Timour died without children, and did not appoint a successor.

The Mongols and Chinese desired that Hayshan, Timour's brother, should be his successor; but another brother claimed the Chinese throne against a faction, as if for himself, and then resigned the scepter to Hayshan, surprising his brother with the grateful assurance that he acted only in his interest. HAYSHAN thus ascended the Chinese throne. He was fond of the writings of Confucius, and caused them to be translated into the Mongol language. He was licentious and intemperate, but was equitable and generous. He died after a reign of three years.

Hayshan's  
Reign in  
China.

Hayshan was succeeded by his noble-minded brother, AYYULIPALIPATA, whose virtues were rather passive. During his reign China was afflicted by drought, famine, pestilence, inundations and earthquakes. These, together with eclipses, struck terror into the hearts of the Chinese. The famine which began in 1342 carried off thirteen millions of the population of China. The Emperor revived the literary examinations for office, and associated Tartar mandarins with Chinese. He sought to abdicate his throne in favor of his son, but the son would not agree to this.

Ayyulipalipata's  
Reign in  
China.

The next Mongol Emperor of China was SHOTEPALA, who ascended the throne in 1350, and who governed with consummate wisdom, though he was but nineteen years of age at his accession. He reformed the luxury, debauchery and avarice of the Mongol court, but was assassinated after a reign of four years by the friends of a wretch whom he had justly punished.

Shotepala's  
Reign in  
China.

The next Mongol Emperor was indolent, but punished the assassins who had elevated him to the Mongol-Chinese throne. He was exhorted to banish from the palace the host of eunuchs, astrologers, physicians, women, and other idlers, whose maintenance required vast sums. His death in 1352 was followed by plots, assassinations and cabals, which continued through several short and worthless reigns.

Last  
Mongol  
Emperors  
of China.

An Empress, who was permitted to choose a sovereign, set up TOUHAN, Hayshan's grandson, who was noted for his luxury, indolence, dissipation, timidity and cruelty. His artful minister persuaded him that every official duty was a great burden for his august majesty; and while the minister was embroiling his sovereign in a thousand blind cabals, the Emperor's ambitious and licentious wife involved him in a disastrous war with Corea, which completed the ruin of the Mongol-Chinese Empire.

Touhan's  
Reign in  
China.

To add to the Emperor's troubles, a bloody revolution broke out, under the lead of a Buddhist monk named Chu Yuen-chang, who proclaimed to his followers the following phrase, which aroused the Chinese nation: "It is the Chinese who should govern the Tartars, not the

Overthrow  
of the  
Mongol  
Dynasty  
in China.

The  
Ming  
Dynasty.

Tartars the Chinese." In 1368 he succeeded in overthrowing the Mongol dynasty, and ascended the throne of China with the name of HUNGWU, thus founding the Ming dynasty, which ruled the Celestial Empire from 1368 to 1644—a period of two hundred and seventy-six years. The sixteen Chinese Emperors belonging to the Ming dynasty were generally able sovereigns.

The  
Golden  
Horde of  
Kipzak.

The Kipzak Empire, in the basin of the Volga, was one of the fragments of Zingis Khan's vast empire, and included Russia in Europe, taking tribute of the republic of Novgorod and of the other Russian principalities. The Kipzak Empire was bounded on the south by the Danube, the Euxine, the Caucasus and the Zagatai Empire; and on the north by the republic of Novgorod and the Kingdom of Sibir, on the Irtish. This empire included but very little of Tartary. It was at first a subordinate government under a grandson of Zingis Khan, but it soon became independent. About twenty warlike sovereigns reigned over it in succession. At the end of the thirteenth century it was converted from Deism to Mohammedanism. Its sovereign was styled the *Great Khan of the Golden Horde of Kipzak*. After several centuries it was broken into fragments, the most important of which were the Khanates of Kazan, Astrakhan, and the Crimea, or Crim Tartary.

The  
Zagatai  
Empire.

The Zagatai Empire, another fragment of Zingis Khan's vast dominion, was founded by that great conqueror's eldest son ZAGATAI, who had received the government of a territory which in 1290 included Transoxiana, or the region north of the Oxus, together with Balkh, Kashgar, Khotan, and the Punjab, or region of the Indus and its five tributaries. A part of this empire took the name of *Uzbek*, because of the fondness of the people there for their Khan of that name. One of these Uzbek Khans invaded Persia, and carried away four hundred camel-loads of gold and jewels, along with other valuables, giving all of it to his soldiers. The Punjab was lost to the Zagatai Empire in 1368, but the empire was extended on the north. Twenty-five sovereigns, the descendants of Zingis Khan through Zagatai, successively reigned over this empire, which lasted one hundred and seventy years, until 1402, when it was ended through dissensions among relatives whose ambition was active in expelling each other from the throne. The last sovereign of the Zagatai Empire was a monarch only in name, who held a command in Tamerlane's army. Like the Kipzak Empire, the Zagatai Empire was also converted from Deism to Islam.

The  
Mongol-  
Persian  
Empire.

The Mongol-Persian Empire, a third fragment of Zingis Khan's dominion, was founded by HOOLAGOO, a brother of Kublai Khan. In 1282 AHMED succeeded to the Mongol-Persian throne, being chosen thereto by the grandees; but he lost their esteem by embracing Islam, and was killed. His nephew then usurped the sovereignty. ALJAPTU,

who came to the Mongol-Persian throne in 1303, was distinguished for his love of justice and religion, which he caused to flourish throughout his dominions. He had founded the city of Sultania and made it his capital. He was succeeded in 1313 by his son ABU-SAID, who was disturbed by court cabals, and was poisoned by his wife Khatun in 1337. Fresh plots and disorders followed; and the nobles fortified themselves in the different provinces which they ruled, or plundered and took up arms against each other. All these petty sovereignties were finally absorbed in Tamerlane's vast Tartar dominion, of which we shall now proceed to give an account.

## SECTION II.—TAMERLANE'S TARTAR EMPIRE (A. D. 1370-1405).

TAMERLANE, or TIMOUR THE LAME, a famous Tartar conqueror, who claimed to be a descendant of the great Zingis Khan, entered upon a career of conquest, and built up a Tartar Empire that vied with that of his illustrious ancestor, embracing the greater part of Central, Southern and Western Asia.

**Tamerlane, or Timour the Lame.**

A Persian writer tells us that Tamerlane's father was the wise and virtuous Emir, Tragai, and his mother was the chaste and beautiful Tekine Khatun, the Emir's lawful wife. Timour, as Tamerlane was most generally called by his Tartar countrymen, was born near Tashkend, his father's capital, in 1336, during the reign of Sultan Kazan of Zagatai.

**His Parentage and Birth.**

It is said that Timour's birth had been foretold to one of his ancestors in a dream wherein eight stars appeared to shoot out of the sleeper; and the eight cast so great a splendor that it enlightened the four quarters of the globe. This was interpreted to signify that a prince of his race should be born in the eighth generation who should fill the world with the splendor of his virtues and conquests. Timour's horoscope was drawn at the moment of his birth, and predicted to him the crown and the empire, with all manner of prosperity and a numerous issue.

**His Horoscope.**

It is also related that Timour gave indications during his childhood that he was likely to verify the predictions of the horoscope. As soon as he had reached the age of reason something in all his actions appeared to indicate an air of sovereignty. He would talk only of thrones and crowns. His favorite diversions were such as represented the military art; and in this he disposed of the youth who attended him like a sovereign disposes of his subjects, raising those who seemed most deserving to the highest degree, and conferring the bare title of soldiers upon others. He made figures of canes to represent the enemy's

**His Youthful Characteristics.**

armies, and then attacked them with his troops, among whom he enforced a military discipline.

**His  
Early  
Physical  
Exercises.**

When Timour had attained a more advanced age, and was capable of applying himself to the sterner exercises of the body, he devoted himself to military science. His principal diversions were riding, racing, fencing, and the like. He was also frequently engaged in the pastime of the chase, and that was the only recreation that he took after his constant fatigues.

**His  
Ambition  
and  
Military  
Life.**

In these exercises Timour passed that part of his life which preceded his great and wonderful military achievements, or the period from his tenth to his twenty-fifth year. At the latter age his heart gave way to ambition, and he began to despise dangers, to win victories and to acquire the name of a great conqueror and a famous hero.

**His  
Early  
Military  
Adven-  
tures.**

Timour was driven from his inheritance, the principality of Tashkend, while yet a youth; but he distinguished himself by his bravery in several petty conflicts as an adventurer, following his fortunes from place to place. He did good service to his country by expelling from its soil a formidable army of the Getes, who had invaded it from the north. At the head of an insignificant force, aided by the stratagem of many camp-fires on the mountains, he defeated the vast army of these invaders in a desperate battle. At another time he struck terror into his foes and took a fortified city, at the head of a small body of troops whom he had ordered to tie long branches to the sides of their horses. The dust thus raised made the enemy think that Timour had a large army, and he took advantage of the dismay thus excited in the ranks of the foe by making a bold and vigorous charge. The fertilities of his expedients gained the confidence of his followers, and this with his other qualities acquired for him the strong personal affection of his troops.

**Timour  
and  
Hussein.**

To secure his inheritance, Timour was under the necessity of making an alliance with Hussein, a neighboring chieftain. Both encountered extreme perils in the constant wars which disturbed the empire through the feuds and the ambition of the various chiefs. Timour heroically exposed his life in every encounter, but knew as well how to command as how to fight. He underwent every vicissitude of fortune—victorious, defeated, a captive, released, wounded, a fugitive in the deserts, reappearing with a few vagabond troops, increasing his forces, welcomed in the great cities, or shut out with indignities, at one time on friendly terms, at another time at bitter feud with his ally, Hussein.

**Timour  
and  
Ant.**

It is said that on one occasion, after Timour had suffered three disastrous defeats, fleeing for his life and deserted by all, he had taken refuge in a ruined building, in utter despair. Almost hopelessly despondent, Timour was brooding over his misfortunes, when his eyes caught



an ant that was striving to carry a grain to her magazine, up the opposite side of the wall. The insect failed ninety-nine times in its efforts, but accomplished its task at the hundredth attempt. The indomitable patience and perseverance of so small an insect for a paltry grain gave Timour fresh courage. He rose from the ground, braced up with new energy, a new man, hazarded another engagement and came forth victor.

In one of his contests he received a severe wound in the hand, and in another action he was wounded in the foot, from which circumstance he received the name of Timour Lenk, meaning Timour the lame, which was corrupted into Tamerlane, by which name he is generally known. At length Tamerlane grew more powerful than his ally, Hussein, who lost the affection of his officers and troops through his jealousy, avarice and other bad qualities; while Tamerlane captivated the hearts of all by his valor, affability and equity.

Hussein, who became jealous and sought in every way to put Tamerlane in the wrong, finally adopted such outrageous measures that Tamerlane was obliged to declare war against him. Hussein was taken prisoner at Balkh and led to Tamerlane, who was melted to tears by the recollections of their former friendship, and could only say: "I renounce my right to his life." Some of Tamerlane's courtiers, without waiting for his words, followed Hussein out and killed him.

The Khan of Zagatai finally confirmed Tamerlane in his hereditary principality of Tashkend, and assigned him a battalion of ten thousand cavalry. Soon afterward Tamerlane was elected Khan by the general council of his nation, and found himself at the head of an empire which he afterward enlarged by victories that ranked him among the most renowned conquerors, A. D. 1370.

Like all semi-barbarians and great conquerors, Tamerlane displayed the highest virtues along with the most horrible vices; sublime justice along with the most atrocious oppression; winning and simple-hearted benevolence with the cruelty of a fiend; the most tender natural affection with the most revolting and hard-hearted disregard of all domestic and social ties; a deep sense of humility, dependence and piety with the utmost arrogance toward his fellow-creatures—trampling on everything that they held dear, and causing by his selfish ambition the violent deaths of millions of mankind, with more or less misery. These "scourges of God" have no orderly, proportionate and harmonious characters; and their mission is to destroy, overturn, unsettle, to reduce to chaos, so that the foundations of future progress may be laid broader, deeper and better. The elements are more diverse, embrace a greater multitude of particulars, and may thus contribute to a wider harmony and a higher order of things.

**His Names, Timour Lenk, or Timour the lame, or Tamerlane.**

**Hussein's Overthrow and Murder.**

**Tamerlane as Khan.**

**His Virtues and Vices.**

**His  
Ambi-  
tious  
Aims.**

Tamerlane asserted that it was neither consistent nor proper that the earth should be shared between two monarchs. His first aim was universal dominion. His second object was to live in the memory and esteem of posterity; and this appears to have been associated in his half-enlightened mind with the view of propagating Islam, which he regarded as the true religion.

**An Early  
Exploit.**

It is said that among Tamerlane's early exploits, after vainly waiting for allies who failed to join him, he fled from the hills of Samarcand into the desert with only sixty horsemen. He was overtaken and attacked by a thousand Getes, whom he repulsed with frightful slaughter, and caused his enemies to remark: "Timour is a wonderful man; fortune and the divine favor are with him." His little band being reduced to ten men, lost three more by desertion. Tamerlane wandered in the desert, was plunged in a dungeon sixty-two days, swam the Oxus and led the life of an outlaw; but adversity taught him salutary lessons.

**His  
Meeting  
with  
Three  
Chiefs.**

After Tamerlane had returned to his native country certain of his adherents eagerly sought him, to join him in the desert. He presented himself as a guide to three chiefs, and he described this recognition in the following words: "When their eyes fell upon me they were overwhelmed with joy, and they alighted from their horses, and they came and kneeled, and they kissed my stirrup. I also came down from my horse, and took each of them in my arms. And I put my turban on the head of the first chief; and my girdle, rich in jewels and wrought with gold, I bound on the loins of the second; and the third I clothed in my own coat. And they wept, and I wept also, and the hour of prayer was arrived, and we prayed. And we mounted our horses, and came to my dwelling; and I collected my people and made a feast."

**His  
Conquest  
of  
Korasm,  
Kandahar  
and  
Persia.**

Tamerlane conducted thirty-five campaigns, and placed the crowns of twenty-seven kingdoms on his head. Soon after he had been chosen Khan by the Couroultai of his nation, he annexed the dependent countries of Korasm and Kandahar to the patrimony of Zagatai, after which he turned to Persia. That unhappy country had been without a lawful sovereign since Abu-said's death, and had not witnessed peace or justice for forty years. Tamerlane conquered its petty tyrants in detail. One of them brought his peace-offering of silks, horses and jewels, each consisting of nine pieces, in accordance with the Tartar custom. There being only eight slaves in the present, the servile prince said: "I myself am the ninth." The Tartar conqueror rewarded this orientalism with a smile.

**Battle of  
Shiraz.**

In a battle under the walls of Shiraz, the valiant prince of Fars, the ancient Persia proper, at the head of three or four thousand troops, broke the main body of Tamerlane's cavalry, thirty thousand strong. Tamerlane remained near the standard with only fifteen of his guards,

where his helmet was twice struck by a cimeter, but he was not beaten down. His Mongols rallied, and were victorious after a desperate conflict. The valiant prince of Fars was slain, and his head was thrown at Tamerlane's feet. The Tartar conqueror afterward extirpated the prince's family, putting every male of that formidable princely race to death. Tamerlane advanced to the Persian Gulf, and compelled Ormuz, the island queen of commerce, to pay an annual tribute of six hundred thousand dinars of gold. He subdued the plains and valleys of the Tigris and the Euphrates, and the country as far north as the Caucasus and as far west as Mount Lebanon and the territories of the Ottoman Turks.

**Tamerlane's Conquest of Ormuz and Western Asia.**

In Tartary, Tamerlane crossed the Jaxartes, and annexed the broad belt of territory north of that stream to his dominions by conquering a large part of the Kipzak Empire. He also subdued Kashgar, marching into the heart of that country seven times, once almost fifteen hundred miles to the north-east of Samarcand. On that side the kingdom of the Oigurs, and that of Thibet south of it, separated Tamerlane's empire from the Ming Empire of China and from the remnant of the empire of the Mongols to the north of China.

**His Conquests in Central Asia.**

Tamerlane's struggle with the Kipzak Empire is interesting. Tamerlane had protected the fugitive Kipzak prince and had restored him to his throne; but ten years afterward the restored Kipzak prince forgot Tamerlane's benefits, and marched against the "usurper of the rights of the house of Zingis," as he called Tamerlane. He entered Persia on the west side of the Caspian, through the gates of Derbend, at the head of ninety thousand cavalry. On the east side of the Caspian and Aral Seas he crossed the Jaxartes with the countless hosts of Kipzak, Bulgaria, Circassia and Russia, burned Tamerlane's palace, and compelled the Tartar conqueror to struggle for Samarcand and for his life amid the snows of winter.

**His Struggle with the Kipzak Prince.**

After a mild expostulation and a glorious victory, Tamerlane sought revenge, and twice invaded Kipzak on the east and west side of the Caspian and the Volga with so mighty an army that thirteen miles were measured from his right to his left wing. His soldiers seldom beheld the footsteps of man during a march of five months, and they depended only on the chase for their daily subsistence.

**His Formidable Invasion of Kipzak.**

At length the armies of Tamerlane and the Great Khan of the Golden Horde of Kipzak encountered each other. The standard-bearer of Kipzak treacherously reversed the imperial standard, thus discouraging his troops, and giving Tamerlane the victory. In Tamerlane's words, the Great Khan of the Golden Horde of Kipzak gave the tribe of the son of Zingis Khan "to the winds of desolation." Tamerlane's victorious army burned several capitals, took a Russian prince into cap-

**His Conquest of the Golden Horde of Kipzak.**

tivity, terrified Moscow and Novgorod, reduced Azov to ashes, and then returned home, laden with an enormous spoil of precious furs, linens, and ingots of gold and silver, A. D. 1383.

**His  
Invasion  
of India.**

In 1398 Tamerlane planned an invasion of India. His troops murmured against the dangers and hardships of such a campaign, and talked with fear of the "rivers, mountains, deserts, soldiers in armor, elephants, destroyers of men." But the conqueror's frown was more terrible than all these, and Tamerlane was well aware of the real weakness and anarchy of Hindoostan. His invading army contained ninety-two squadrons of cavalry, and marched in three divisions. While crossing the Hindoo Koosh mountains, at their terrible pass, thousands of the Tartar conqueror's troops and horses perished in the snow. At five places Tamerlane was let down a precipice on a portable scaffold by means of ropes one hundred and fifty cubits long.

**His  
Capture  
of Delhi.**

Tamerlane crossed the Indus at Attok, and advanced by a circuitous route to the great city of Delhi, which had flourished under Mohammedan Sultans for three centuries. The weak Sultan was enticed from his strong castle and city, and came out into the plain with ten thousand cuirassiers, forty thousand foot-guards, and one hundred and twenty elephants, whose tusks were armed with sharp and pointed daggers. Tamerlane employed fire, a ditch of iron spikes and a rampart of bucklers against the enemy, to allay the uneasiness of his troops; but the Tartars soon learned to smile at their own fears, and as soon as they routed the elephants the enemy's troops disappeared from the field. Delhi was taken by Tamerlane's victorious troops, and was given up to pillage and massacre. The great Tartar conqueror advanced one hundred miles to the north-east and crossed the Ganges, and returned along the northern hills of India.

**Self  
Immola-  
tion  
of the  
Ghebers.**

During this wanton inroad into India millions of human beings perished. A city of the Ghebers, or fire-worshipers, was negotiating for its ransom; but during the delay a breach in the walls was effected, through which the ruthless Tartars entered the city. The dispersed Ghebers set fire to their own houses, threw their wives, their children and all their wealth into the flames, and perished to the last man, heroically defending themselves on the smoking ruins. Those who sought refuge in mountains and caverns were appalled at seeing wooden trunks suspended to iron chains at the entrance of their retreats, from which soldiers issued who pursued them into the darkness of their caves with relentless carnage.

**Tamer-  
lane's  
Whole-  
sale  
Massacre  
of  
Ghebers.**

Before his victory at Delhi, Tamerlane was told that his camp was filled with captives, mainly Ghebers and idolators, the garrisons of the cities he had taken, who might escape to the enemy during the battle. The fanatical conqueror ordered them to be put to death, and over a

hundred thousand wretched victims were massacred in less than an hour. The conquering Tartars obtained an immense booty by the plunder and devastation of the richest country in the world; and every Tartar soldier was loaded with diamonds and jewels, and carried off vast numbers of slaves.

Tamerlane was called away from the further prosecution of the *Ghazi*, or "holy war," as he called it, by insurrections in Persia. After suppressing these revolts, he marched into Georgia, where he perpetrated other religious massacres, his victims there being Christians. His soldiers scoured the rocks and caverns of Georgia in pursuit of the Christians, with the same success that they had hunted down the Ghebers in India. Wearied with their murderous brutality, the Tartars finally accepted tribute, instead of exterminating the Christians. Tamerlane would have subjected all of Georgia to his sway had he not turned his attention in another direction by taking the field against the Ottoman Turkish Sultan Bajazet I.

Before marching against Bajazet I., Tamerlane invaded Syria, where he massacred hundreds of thousands of human beings and destroyed Damascus. He also took and destroyed Bagdad. Tamerlane ordered each of his soldiers to bring him a head, and caused a pyramid of ninety thousand human heads to be erected on the ruins of Bagdad. This was in accordance with his custom during his career. In one instance he caused four thousand soldiers with their horses to be cast into the moat of a city that he had taken, and these were all buried alive. In an expedition against the Getes he once took two thousand prisoners, and caused them to be heaped upon one another alive, with bricks and mortar between them, to construct towers or pyramids. These horrible scenes of cruelty were frequent with him.

When the Persian city of Ispahan, which had a population of a million, revolted against Tamerlane, he ordered all the inhabitants to be massacred, except such as had saved the lives of some of his soldiers. To insure the execution of this atrocious decree, he required each company of his army to furnish him a specific number of human heads. His troops bought these heads from each other to finish their contingent. So many were slaughtered that finally the heads were sold for a trifling sum. The Divan's register states that seventy thousand heads were obtained in this manner, and were used with stones and mortar as building materials for towers or pyramids in different parts of the city.

At Tamerlane's capture of the Syrian city of Aleppo the streets of that city streamed with blood, and reëchoed to the shrieks of violated maidens and the cries of mothers and children, while towers or pyramids of human heads were also constructed. At Tamerlane's capture

**His Wholesale Massacre of Christians in Georgia.**

**His Destruction of Damascus and Bagdad and Massacres There.**

**Other Massacres.**

**His Massacre at Ispahan.**

**His Massacres at Aleppo and Damascus.**

of Damascus all the inhabitants of that city were massacred, except one family and a colony of artificers sent to Samarcand. Ten millions of gold were exacted from Damascus, and the city was reduced to ashes.

Games  
and  
Festivals  
for His  
Soldiers.

His  
Brilliant  
Feast at  
Samar-  
cand.

But Tamerlane was not altogether savage. A certain historian says that he greatly delighted to see his soldiers enjoying themselves in games and festivals for whole days together after a victory. He would then reward his generals with vests of honor and jewels, warmly interest himself in their happiness, be present at their weddings, and receive their felicitations with marks of sensibility in any prosperity which attended himself. He gave a splendid feast at his capital, Samarcand, when his sister congratulated him on the birth of a grandson. The tents occupied a space of six miles; and his pavilion, which was placed near a canopy supported by forty columns, was as spacious as a palace. When all was ready Tamerlane advanced, with the crown encircling his brow and the scepter in his hand, and seated himself on the throne erected in the middle of the tent and ornamented with precious stones, shining with splendor. The two sides of the throne were filled by a vast number of the most beautiful females of Asia, shaded with veils of gold brocade studded with jewels. Two rows were occupied with musicians; and nine stewards holding golden maces preceded the courses, and were followed by cupbearers holding decanters containing various kinds of wine and brandy. The many lovely women, whose braided hair extended to the ground, gave additional luster to the brilliant assemblage. The festival ended with shows and dances.

Tamer-  
lane  
and the  
Ottoman  
Turkish  
Sultan  
Bajazet I.

While the Tartar arms had been employed in Syria and Mesopotamia, after the destruction of the Ottoman Turkish Sultan's city of Sivas, Sultan Bajazet I., who had been besieging Constantinople, had two years to prepare for the final encounter with Tamerlane. In Tamerlane's first expedition the Tartar conqueror and the Ottoman Sultan had addressed a great deal of princely billingsgate and bravado to each other. Tamerlane called Bajazet I. "nothing but a Turkman," and himself a Turk, bidding him "be wise in time, reflect, repent, and avert the thunder of our vengeance." He exclaimed: "Thou art! why wilt thou seek to provoke elephants? They will trample thee under their feet!" Bajazet replied still more indecorously, and made domestic allusions considered the most degrading insults and unpardonable offenses. The two barbarian conquerors were very much alike in their arrogance and in their ruthless ambition.

Their  
Rival  
Armies.

Sultan Bajazet's army numbered four hundred thousand infantry and cavalry, among whom were forty thousand Janizaries, a large force of national cavalry, twenty thousand European cuirassiers clad in black and impenetrable armor, troops of Asia Minor, and a colony of Tartars whom Tamerlane had driven from Kipzak. This army was

posted in the plain near Sivas. Tamerlane moved through Armenia from the Araxes. His boldness was secured by the wisest precautions. His speed was guided by order and discipline. The flying squadrons which marked his road and preceded his standard diligently explored the woods, the mountains and the rivers. He moved on, marched into the very heart of the Ottoman Empire, and besieged Angora. Sultan Bajazet I. hastened to oppose him. The impatient rivals engaged in battle in the plains around the city of Angora, and after a mighty struggle Tamerlane was victorious, July 28, 1402.

**Battle of Angora.**

Tamerlane owed his signal victory to himself, the genius of the moment, and the military discipline of thirty years. He had improved the tactics, without violating the manners of the Tartars, whose force still consisted in the missile weapons and the rapid evolutions of a numerous cavalry. The mode of attack was the same, from a single troop to a great army. A foremost line advanced to the charge, and was supported by the squadrons of the great vanguard in proper order. The general's eye watched over the field, and, at his command, the front and rear of the right and left wings successively advanced in their respective divisions, and in a direct or oblique line. The enemy was pressed by eighteen or twenty attacks, each of which afforded a chance of victory. But in the battle of Angora the main body itself was supported, on the flanks and in the rear, by the bravest squadrons of the reserve, under the command of Tamerlane's sons and grandsons.

**Tamerlane's Genius in that Battle and His Brilliant Victory.**

Sultan Bajazet I. displayed the qualities of a soldier and a chief on that memorable day, but his genius was no match for his invincible adversary, and from various causes most of his troops failed him at the decisive moment. The European cuirassiers, who formed part of his right wing, charged with faithful hearts and irresistible arms; but these men of iron were soon broken by an artful flight and a headlong pursuit. The Janizaries alone, without cavalry or missile weapons, were encompassed by a circle of Tartars; but their valor was at length overcome by heat, thirst, and the superior numbers of their foes. The unfortunate Sultan Bajazet I., afflicted with the gout in his hands and feet, was transported from the field on the fleetest of his horses. He was relentlessly pursued and finally taken prisoner by Tamerlane's victorious troops.

**Bajazet's Valiant Conduct, Defeat and Capture.**

Tamerlane was playing chess with his son when the captive Turkish Sultan was brought to his tent, and he kept his illustrious prisoner standing at the door until the game was finished. Bajazet I. was then courteously received and treated with princely generosity by his Tartar conqueror; but when he afterwards attempted to escape he was loaded with chains and thrust into an iron cage, against the bars of which he dashed out his brains.

**His Captivity and Suicide.**

**Tamerlane's Plunder of Brusa.** After the battle of Angora the Turkish kingdom of Anatolia submitted to Tamerlane, who enacted his usual scenes of rapine and destruction on every side. The spoils of the palace and city of Brusa were enormous, but one of Sultan Bajazet's sons carried the royal treasury into Europe, and the inhabitants had fled. The buildings, which were mainly of wood, were burned. Tamerlane took Smyrna by storm, after an obstinate defense by the Knights of St. John, and massacred all the garrison, beheading the Christian heroes on board two great ships in the harbor. The two straits of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus were defended by the Turks and the Christians, who combined in this emergency to prevent Tamerlane from crossing over into Europe; but he was master of all Western and Central Asia, from the Archipelago on the west to the Ganges and the frontiers of Mongolia on the east.

**His Vast Empire.** Solyman, Bajazet's son—then King of Roumania—and the Eastern Roman Emperor both paid tribute and swore allegiance to the conquering Tamerlane. The Sultan of Egypt submitted, and coin was struck and prayers were said for the great Tartar conqueror at Cairo. The indefatigable Tamerlane, in his camp at Smyrna, now meditated the conquest of China, and thus making himself master of the East of Asia as well as of the western portion of that great continent. The fanatical Tartar conqueror hoped to atone for the Moslem blood that he had shed, and to smooth his way to the joys of Paradise, by forcing the Chinese to embrace Islam, by filling China with Mohammedan mosques and drenching that land with heathen blood. While he was still in Asia

**His Designs on China.** Minor he sent pioneers beyond the Jaxartes to subdue the pagan Kalmucks and Mongols, to found cities and magazines in the desert, and to open a way through Central Asia to China.

**His Raids in Tartary.** Tamerlane returned to Samarcand after his triumph over the Turkish Sultan; and there, during a brief rest, he displayed his magnificence and power, listened to the complaints of his subjects, distributed a just proportion of rewards and punishments, employed his wealth in erecting palaces and temples, and received ambassadors from Egypt, Arabia, India, Tartary, Russia and Spain, A. D. 1404, 1405.

**His Rest in Samarcand.** Tamerlane now occupied himself with the marriage of six of his grandsons; and, as this was considered an act of religion, no less than of paternal tenderness, the pomp of the Saracen Khalifs was revived in these nuptials. On this occasion the nobility and the people of Asia crowded to Samarcand. The nuptials were celebrated in the gardens of Carighul, decorated with a countless number of tents and pavilions, displaying the luxury of a great capital and the spoils of a triumphant army. Entire forests were cut down to supply fuel for the kitchens. The plain was spread with pyramids of meat and vases of every liquor,



to which thousands of guests were courteously invited. The orders of the state and the nations of the world, including the European ambassadors, were marshaled at the Great Khan's banquet. Illuminations and masquerades testified the public joy. The trades of Samarcand passed in review; and every trade was emulous to execute some quaint device, some marvelous pageant, with the materials of its peculiar art, adding to the splendor. After the marriage contracts had been ratified by the cadis, the bridegrooms and their brides retired to their nuptial chambers. In accordance with the Asiatic fashion they were dressed and undressed nine times; and at each change of apparel pearls and rubies were showered on their heads, and they were left to their attendants with surprising indifference. A general indulgence was proclaimed; and every law was relaxed, and every pleasure permitted. The Great Khan's proclamation was in these words: "This is the season of feasts, of pleasure and of rejoicing. No one is allowed to dispute or reprimand. Let not the rich exult over the poor, nor the powerful over the weak. Let no one ask his neighbor, Why hast thou acted thus?" The festival lasted two months, during which the people were free and the sovereign was idle.

Splendor  
of this  
Festival.

But after these two months of festivity Tamerlane returned to the cares of government and war. His standard was unfurled for the invasion of China. The Emirs reported two hundred thousand men under arms, and these were the select and veteran soldiers of Persia and Turkestan. Their baggage and provisions were transported on five hundred wagons and an immense train of horses and camels. The troops were prepared for a long absence, as it required six months for a caravan journey from Samarcand to Peking. It is said that Tamerlane had raised an army of one million two hundred thousand troops for the conquest of China.

Tamer-  
lane's  
March for  
China.

Tamerlane's impatience was not retarded by age or the rigor of winter. He mounted on horseback, crossed the Jaxartes on the ice, marched three hundred miles from his capital, and pitched his last camp in the vicinity of Otrar, "where he was expected by the angel of death." He was seized with a fever, the progress of which was accelerated by fatigue and by the indiscreet use of ice water; and the great Tartar Khan who had conquered half of Asia died in the seventieth year of his age, A. D. 1405—thirty-five years after he had ascended the throne of Zagatai. His death put an end to his enterprise, his armies were disbanded, and China was saved from another great Tartar conquest.

The  
March  
Ended  
by His  
Death.

Tamerlane was fond of chess, and invented a new game. He was likewise fond of reading, particularly history. His custom was to converse awhile every evening with learned and literary men, whose society he prized. He looked after all details, leaving to others nothing that

His  
Tastes,  
Pastimes,  
Memory,  
Etc.

he himself was able to attend to. He had so retentive a memory that those who knew the vastness of his affairs were astonished at his minute questionings as to different circumstances and persons on revisiting the great variety of places through which he passed. He neglected no opportunity to do honor to the tomb of a saint or to a relic, either from policy to secure the veneration of his subjects for himself, or from a strong native tinge of superstition in his own mind.

His  
Personal  
Appear-  
ance.

Tamerlane was corpulent and robust in person, and was rather tall and well formed. He had a high forehead, a large head, a ruddy and fair complexion, a long beard, broad shoulders, thick fingers, long legs, eyes full of fire, a loud and piercing voice, and an engaging air. His right hand and right foot were lame from wounds. His biographer says: "Never a prince carried a more majestic and terrible air in his wrath, nor yet a more sweet and agreeable one when he was pleased to bestow his favors."

His  
Virtues  
and Good  
Results  
of His  
Reign.

Even in old age Tamerlane retained a sound mind, a strong body, a great degree of firmness and an unshaken constancy. He had the greatest veneration for Zingis Khan, and the judicial formula which he adopted was: "By virtue of the laws of Zingis Khan." Tamerlane loved the truth without disguise, even if it was to his disadvantage. The motto of his seal was: "I am simple and sincere." Neither prosperity nor adversity disturbed his equality of soul. Though he was a scourge to mankind, and though his ambition and cruelty brought twelve million human beings to violent deaths, he put an end to the anarchy and rapine to which Asia had been a prey at his accession; and it is said that under his vigorous and prosperous rule a child might carry a purse of gold from one end of his dominions to the other without fear or without being molested.

Incapac-  
ity of His  
Posterity.

But the blessings of Tamerlane's administration ended with his death. Not one of his thirty-six sons and seventeen daughters and their children was found equal to the task of governing the empire which he had founded. His son CHAROC alone maintained the glory of the empire for a time; but after his death there was a renewal of those scenes of darkness and bloodshed that have involved the destinies of Tartary from time immemorial. In less than a century after Tamerlane's death Transoxiana and Persia—Turan and Iran—were ravaged by the Uzbecks and the Turkomans.

Baber's  
Conquest  
of India.

Tamerlane's race was saved from extinction by his descendant in the fifth generation, the hero Baber, who fled before the Uzbek conquerors of Turkestan, and himself effected the conquest of Hindoostan in 1525, founding an empire which under his successors, the *Grand Moguls*, embraced all of Hindoostan, Afghanistan and Beloochistan. The history of this Mongol, or Mogul, Empire in India will be related shortly.

## CHAPTER XXXI.

# MODERN MOHAMMEDAN EMPIRES.

### SECTION I.—RISE OF THE OTTOMAN TURKISH EMPIRE (A. D. 1280–1566).

SOLYMAN, the chief of a Turkish tribe called *Oguz*, perhaps the same as the ancient Oigurs and the modern Ogres, had attached himself to the fortunes of Korasm. When the Korasmian power was overthrown by the victorious Mongol hordes under Zingis Khan, Solyman fled westward with his followers, taking with them their wives and children, their sheep and cattle. They first sought an asylum in Armenia, but after a residence of seven years in that country they returned to their native land. Their leader Solyman was drowned in crossing the Euphrates, and his four sons divided the leadership and sovereignty of the tribe between them.

Solyman,  
the  
Turkish  
Chieftain.

Many of the tribe dispersed into the deserts, but about four hundred families remained attached to ORTHOGRUL, one of Solyman's four sons. Orthogrul immediately marched westward to seek his fortune in Asia Minor, where the chieftains who ruled the fragments of the dismembered Seljuk Turkish dominions were harassing each other with mutual wars, and could not be induced to unite against the Mongols or the Crusaders. While the Korasmian Turkish tribe under Orthogrul was on its journey to Asia Minor it fell in with two armies engaged in a fierce struggle. Orthogrul joined the weaker party, and thus changed the fortune of the day. The victorious chief was Aladdin, a Seljuk chieftain, who rewarded Orthogrul for his aid by the present of a rich silk robe, which was a gift of honor in the East, and also with the grant of a mountainous district on the frontiers of Bithynia and Phrygia, where there was sufficient pasturage for the flocks and herds of the nomad followers of Orthogrul.

Ortho-  
grul's  
Migration  
to Asia  
Minor.

The first settlement of Orthogrul's tribe was a camp of four hundred tents at Surgut, on the banks of the river Sanjar, on the frontier of the Eastern Empire, A. D. 1280. Orthogrul made constant raids into the Byzantine territories; and, as the Seljuk Sultan of Iconium had

His Con-  
quests  
There.

appointed him commander-in-chief of his armies, he maintained and extended his conquests in that quarter for half a century.

Othman  
I,  
Founder  
of the  
Ottoman  
Empire,  
A. D.  
1299-  
1326.

OTHMAN I., or OSMAN I., the youngest of Orthogrul's three sons, gave his name to this Turkish tribe, which was thereafter known as the *Ottoman Turks*; and he is considered the founder of the Ottoman Empire, which has existed for six centuries and has been steadily declining for the last two centuries. On the death of his father, Othman was chosen his successor, in preference to his two elder brothers, because of his superior bravery and enterprise, A. D. 1299.

His Con-  
quests.

Othman I. was in high favor with Aladdin II., the last Seljuk Sultan of Iconium, who gave him a castle and additional territory, and granted him the privilege of holding as his own any Christian states that he might conquer. The young Emir of the Ottoman Turks profited by this permission, and gradually extended his conquests on all sides until he was master of a large extent of territory. The neighboring Emirs grew jealous of the growing power of Othman I., and they contrived many stratagems to destroy him.

Othman  
I.,  
and the  
Apostate  
Greek.

On the death of the Seljuk Turkish Sultan Aladdin II. of Iconium, without children, his dominions were seized and divided by his Emirs. Nearly all of Bithynia came into the possession of Othman I. He was fortunate in obtaining the friendship of a young Greek who espoused the Moslem faith to please his patron, and who instructed the Turkish Emir in the art of government. This renegade Greek Christian was the ancestor of the family of the Michaelogi, so frequently conspicuous in Turkish annals. Othman I. was chiefly indebted for the supremacy which he speedily obtained to the information which he received from this apostate Greek. His proximity to Constantinople opened to him a wide field of enterprise, and the civil wars between the elder and younger Andronicus, which then distracted the Eastern Empire, left the Asiatic subjects of the Empire to their own feeble resources, in consequence of which they fell an easy prey to the first invaders who attacked their dominions.

Othman  
I., Makes  
Brusa His  
Capital.

The Christian princes of Asia Minor, alarmed at the progress of Othman I., united their forces and sought to crush the rising power of the ambitious Turk by one decisive effort; but Othman I. gained the victory in a battle on the frontiers of Phrygia and Bithynia, and took Prusa, the ancient capital of Bithynia, and made it his capital, slightly altering its name to *Brusa*, which it retains at the present day. Othman's policy was equal to his military skill, and what he won by his valor he secured by wise and salutary regulations. He reconciled his Christian subjects to his government by his impartial administration of justice and mercy, and many who fled before his arms returned to enjoy safety and repose under his powerful protection.

His Good  
Rule.

Othman I. died in 1326, and was succeeded by his son ORKHAN, who prosecuted his father's ambitious designs with vigor. He defeated the Christians under the Eastern Emperor Andronicus III., captured Nice and Nicomedia, and extended the Ottoman dominion to the Hellespont. During the civil war which distracted the Eastern Empire after the death of Andronicus III., concerning the regency, John Cantacuzene solicited the aid of the Turkish Emir against the Empress Anne, and secured his friendship and assistance by giving him his daughter Theodora in marriage. Orkhan aided John Cantacuzene with a force of ten thousand Turkish cavalry, which, under the command of his son Solyman, crossed the Hellespont in 1358, and obtained possession of Gallipoli.

**Orkhan,**  
A. D.  
1326-  
1360.

**His Con-**  
**quests in**  
**Asia**  
**Minor.**

The admission of these Turkish auxiliaries into Europe gave a deep and mortal wound to the Eastern Empire, which succeeding Emperors vainly endeavored to heal. The Ottoman Turks, as allies of John Cantacuzene, seized the fortresses of Thrace, and held on to the most important of those strongholds, even after their restitution was demanded and a ransom paid therefor; and Gallipoli, the key of the Hellespont, was peopled by a Turkish colony.

**His Con-**  
**quests in**  
**Thrace.**

**Turkish**  
**Colony at**  
**Gallipoli.**

While Solyman was securing a foothold for the Ottoman Turks in Europe, his father had compelled many of the neighboring Emirs, by force or fraud, to seek his protection and to acknowledge his supremacy. In the midst of his triumphs he suffered a misfortune in the death of his son, who was killed by a fall from his horse while hunting. Orkhan did not long survive this loss, and died in 1360.

**Orkhan's**  
**Suprem-**  
**acy in**  
**Asia**  
**Minor.**

**Orkhan**  
**and His**  
**Army.**

Orkhan is extolled by the Turks for his justice, clemency, and liberality to the poor. He adorned the city of Brusa, his capital, with a splendid mosque, a hospital and an academy. He was the first of the Turkish sovereigns who assigned regular pay to the troops while they were on duty. There was a great variety of costume and weapons in the Ottoman armies at that period. Some of the Turkish soldiers wore iron helmets, and coats of armor made of felt or cloth, quilted and stuffed with cotton, with shoulder and neck pieces of iron. Gunpowder was then scarcely known.

On the death of Orkhan, in 1360, his son, AMURATH I., ascended the Ottoman Turkish throne, and became one of the most famous of Turkish sovereigns. He wielded his father's cimeter with terrible effect. He carried his arms into Europe, overran all of Thrace, and made Adrianople the capital of the rising Ottoman Empire. He was recalled from his European conquests by disturbances in Asia Minor.

**Amurath**  
**I., A. D.**  
**1360-**  
**1389.**

Aladdin, the Seljuk Turkish Emir of Caramania, who had married Amurath's daughter, and who was the most powerful of the Turkish chieftains in that region, had taken advantage of his father-in-law's

**Aladdin's**  
**Revolt**  
**and Over-**  
**throw.**

absence to invade his Asiatic territories. Amurath I. hastened to repel his son-in-law's aggression. The two armies engaged in battle on the plains of Dorylæum, and Aladdin fled after a stubborn conflict, taking refuge in the city of Iconium. He was pardoned at his wife's intercession, and his possessions were restored to him by his father-in-law.

Amurath's Conquests in Europe.

Amurath I. now devoted his entire energies to the extension of the Ottoman dominion in Europe, which already extended within sight of the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire. Amurath I. next subdued the Slavonic nations of Bulgaria, Servia, Bosnia and Albania.

Origin of the Janizaries.

From the multitudes of his Christian captives Amurath I. selected the strongest and most beautiful youths, and caused them to be trained for his service. They became the famous body-guard of the Turkish Sultans, and were called *Janizaries*. They were reared in the Mohammedan faith in early childhood, and were treated with great favor by the Sultan, so that they became his most devoted subjects. They constituted the flower of the Turkish army, and were considered the most formidable body of troops in the world.

Their Military Education.

In the military colleges in which they were instructed in the Moslem religion they were likewise trained in the Turkish military discipline. In order to increase their number, a law was promulgated that the Christian subjects of the Sultan should give up all their male children born in every fifth year, to be educated in the military schools, where they were taught to speak the Turkish language, to shoot with the bow and to wrestle. As they grew to manhood some were appointed to attend the Sultan and guard the palace. The rest were formed into companies, and constituted a disciplined army.

Origin of Their Name.

They were called *Janizaries*, from a dervish, whom the Sultan ordered to bless and consecrate the new army. As they were drawn up in order, this dervish threw the sleeve of his gown over the foremost soldier's head, and said: "Let them be called *Janizaries*—a word signifying *new soldiers*. May their countenances be ever bright, their hands victorious and their swords keen. May their spears hang always over the heads of their enemies, and wherever they go may they return with a shining face."

Their Military Costume.

The Janizaries wore long gowns and tunics, which were common among the Turks. They also wore a red cloth cap, the back of which was formed like a sleeve, and hung down behind, in memory of the dervish from whom they received their name. When they were on duty the gown of the Janizaries was changed for a jacket, which was worn over large trowsers. Their boots were of red leather. All of them wore long beards, except the cavalry, who shaved their chins and wore mustaches. All the Turks from the time of Othman I. shaved their heads, with the exception of a single lock on the crown. This custom

has given adequate employment to the barbers, who are very numerous in all the Turkish towns.

The Turkish institutions were well calculated to nourish the military spirit. The laws of Mohammed make every true Mussulman a soldier, and a third of all the conquered land belonged to the army. In the time to which we here allude the Turkish conquests had become so extensive that every Turk held an estate of his own directly from the Sultan, who now claimed a right over all property. He granted these lands under a kind of feudal title, each proprietor being obliged to keep a horse and a number of men for military service, in proportion to the size of his estate.

Turkish Land System.

The lands were usually tilled by the conquered people, mainly Greeks, who paid a certain proportion of their produce—generally one-tenth—to their landlords. This practice was so general that a Turkish soldier would not accept land in a province where the population had been exterminated or driven out, as the people were more valuable than the land. These estates were not hereditary, and the Sultan might at his pleasure take them away from the holder.

Tenants and Landlords.

At length the Servians, Bosnians and Bulgarians revolted against Amurath I., and were aided by the Hungarians and the Wallachians. Amurath I. took the field against his enemies, and a terrible battle was fought at Cossovo, in Servia, in 1389. The conflict was long doubtful, until the Turks, by pretending to give way, threw the Christian ranks into disorder. A frightful slaughter ensued, and the allied Christian hosts fled, leaving the field to the victorious Ottomans. The Servian prince Lazarus, who had instigated the revolt, was among the slain. But the triumph of Amurath I. was cut short in a most unexpected manner. As he was walking over the battlefield he stopped to look at some wounded men, when one of them, a fierce Croat, among the Hungarian wounded, just breathing his last, made a sudden plunge at the Turkish sovereign, and with a short sword which he still held in his hand he gave Amurath I. a mortal wound, causing almost instant death.

Battle of Cossovo.

Amurath's Victory and Death.

Amurath I. was succeeded by his son BAJAZET I., who secured himself on the Turkish throne by murdering his brother, an unnatural custom which became the settled policy of his successors. Bajazet I. was the first of Ottoman rulers who assumed the title of *Sultan*. He was ferocious and cruel by nature, and crushed all the petty Turkish Emirs of Asia Minor, either putting them to death or driving them into exile.

Sultan Bajazet I., A. D. 1389-1402.

His Cruelties.

During the whole of his reign Bajazet I. was incessantly engaged in wars in Asia and Europe, and he was named *Ilderim*, "Lightning," from the rapidity and energy of his movements. His victories in Europe left to the Greek Emperor very little but his capital, which was

His Conquests.

several times besieged by the Turkish armies. Bajazet I. secured uninterrupted communication between his European and Asiatic dominions by stationing a fleet of galleys at Gallipoli, so that he was able to command the Hellespont and to intercept the expeditions sent from Western Europe to the relief of Constantinople.

**Battle of  
Nicopolis.**

Bajazet I. filled Europe with terror, and made a strenuous effort to conquer Hungary. All Western Europe sent aid to Hungary, whose cause was that of all Christendom; but the great warrior Sultan defeated the allied Christian army of one hundred thousand men under the command of King Sigismund of Hungary and Duke John the Fearless of Burgundy in the bloody battle of Nicopolis, on the Danube, in Bulgaria, in 1396.

**Bajazet's  
Siege of  
Constantinople.**

Sultan Bajazet I. invariably treated the Greek Emperors as his vassals. He enclosed the Eastern Empire, which by this time consisted of but little more than Constantinople and its suburbs, by surrounding it on all sides with his extensive dominions; and the capture of the Byzantine capital was only a question of time. Bajazet I. took advantage of the death of John Palæologus I. and the accession of Manuel II. to the Byzantine throne to claim Constantinople as his own capital, and when his demand was rejected he besieged the city, which would have speedily fallen into his possession had he not been called to Asia Minor to save his dominions there from falling into the power of the great Tartar conqueror Tamerlane.

**Tamerlane's  
Invasion  
of Asia  
Minor.**

The Seljuk Turkish Emirs who had been driven from Asia Minor by Sultan Bajazet's usurpations fled to Turkestan and found refuge at Samarcand, Tamerlane's capital. These refugee Emirs solicited the assistance of the great Tartar chieftain to recover their dominions. Tamerlane at first refused to interfere with the Ottoman Turkish Sultan in his pious task of humbling the Christians and extending Islam; but he was at length persuaded to aid the fugitive Emirs.

**Tamerlane's  
Demand  
Rejected  
by  
Bajazet I.**

Tamerlane sent an ambassador to Sultan Bajazet I. to demand the restoration of the exiled Emirs to their respective possessions. He also required that the Ottoman Sultan should become his vassal, and that the Sultan should testify his submission by substituting the name of Tamerlane for his own upon the Turkish coinage and in the public prayers in the Ottoman dominions. The haughty Turkish Sultan, who acknowledged none as his suzerain or superior, rejected the great Tartar Khan's degrading demand with scorn, hurling his defiance in the most insulting terms that his pride and indignation could dictate. Bajazet I. and Tamerlane were equally confident of success, and each prepared for the decisive struggle.

Manuel Palæologus, the reigning Greek Emperor at Constantinople, who was then engaged in a civil war with his nephew who claimed the



Byzantine throne, proposed terms of peace to the Turkish Sultan. Bajazet eagerly embraced the proposal; and a treaty of peace was accordingly concluded, by which one of the streets of Constantinople was appropriated for the residence of Turkish merchants, who were permitted to carry on their trade with the Genoese and the Venetians. A mosque was also erected for the Turkish residents in the Byzantine capital at the Byzantine Emperor's expense, and they were allowed to have a *cadi* among them to settle their differences according to the Mohammedan laws. All these terms of the treaty were fulfilled.

**Bajazet's Treaty of Peace with the Eastern Emperor.**

The progress of Tamerlane's fierce barbarian warriors was irresistible. They overran the greater part of Asia Minor with scarcely any resistance; and, before Sultan Bajazet I. could lead his army to the scene of action, most of his Asiatic dominions had been ravaged with fire and sword by the fierce Tartar invaders. At the capture of Sivas, the ancient Sebaste, the bravest of the Turkish garrison were buried alive by the ferocious victors.

**Tamerlane's Conquest of the Turkish Dominions in Asia Minor.**

Finally the armies of Bajazet I. and Tamerlane encountered each other on the plains of the city of Angora, the ancient Ancyra, in Galatia; and after a desperate and bloody battle Sultan Bajazet I. was defeated and taken prisoner, July 28, 1402, and was confined in a cage by his Tartar conqueror, where he dashed out his brains; as already related.

**Battle of Angora.**

**Bajazet's Suicide.**

Bajazet I. had five sons. Of these, Mustapha was slain on the bloody field of Angora; Solyman escaped from Tamerlane's pursuing cavalry, fled to Adrianople, and preserved the Ottoman power in Europe; Musa retained the sovereignty of the small kingdom of Anatolia, in Asia Minor, having Brusa for its capital; Isa reigned over a small territory in the vicinity of Angora, Sinopé and the Black Sea; and Mohammed retained the government of Amasia, which his father had assigned to him.

**His Five Sons.**

Ten years of civil war ensued between these five brothers, A. D. 1403-1413, and this period is known in the Turkish annals as an interregnum. Solyman drove Musa from his throne, and united the governments of Adrianople and Brusa for a time; but Solyman was afterwards surprised by Musa in his capital, and was overtaken and slain while fleeing toward Constantinople. Musa and Isa both fell before the valor and policy of their younger brother, who thus reunited the Ottoman dominions under his own scepter, and was recognized by the entire Turkish nation as Sultan MOHAMMED I.

**Their Civil Wars.**

**Sultan Mohammed I., A. D. 1413-1421.**

The eight years of the reign of Mohammed I. were peaceful, and were passed in the consolidation of his power and in restoring the reign of law which had been overthrown by the civil war. The only disturbance was by an impostor who pretended to be Mustapha, that son

**Overthrow of the Impostor Mustapha.**

of Bajazet I. who was killed at Angora, but whom the impostor pretended had escaped alive from that fatal field. The impostor's pretensions were supported by the Wallachians, but Sultan Mohammed I. routed the Wallachians and forced them to pay an annual tribute, while the impostor sought refuge at Constantinople.

Kind  
Treat-  
ment  
of the  
Christian  
Ambas-  
sadors by  
Sultan  
Moham-  
med I.

Mohammed I. faithfully observed his friendly engagements with the Eastern Empire during his entire reign. His treatment of the Christian ambassadors from Servia, Wallachia, Bulgaria and Greece showed his earnest desire to cultivate a good understanding with his neighbors. These ambassadors were permitted to eat at the Sultan's table, and after being entertained with great kindness and hospitality they were dismissed by Mohammed I., who addressed them in these words: "Tell your masters that I offer them peace, that I accept of that which they offer me, and I hope that the God of peace will punish those who violate it." His last care was to provide two able counselors to guide the youth of his eldest son Amurath, and he consigned his two youngest sons to the guardianship of the Greek Emperor Manuel II.

Sultan  
Amurath  
II., A. D.  
1421-  
1451.

Mohammed I. died in 1421, and was succeeded on the Turkish throne by his eldest son AMURATH II., whose reign was soon disturbed by the impostor who had disturbed the preceding reign. The impostor's pretensions were supported by the Greek Emperor Manuel II., and his career was successful for a time. The army of Sultan Amurath II., commanded by his Grand Vizier, Bajazet, was defeated, and the Grand Vizier himself was slain. The pretended Mustapha entered Adrianople in triumph, and seized the vast treasures which Amurath II. had collected in that city. He passed a short time in riotous pleasures, but was soon aroused from his revels by the Sultan's approach at the head of an army. The impostor's career was ended after a short campaign, and Mustapha was deserted by his friends and ended his life on the scaffold.

The  
Impostor  
Musta-  
pha's  
Over-  
throw  
and  
Execu-  
tion.

The  
Sultan's  
Brother's  
Revolt  
and Exe-  
cution.

The Greek Emperor raised up another claimant for the Ottoman throne in the person of the brother of Sultan Amurath II., a child of only six years, who had escaped from Amurath's hands when his other brother was murdered. His standard was set up at Nice, but Sultan Amurath II. soon obtained possession of that city, and caused his little brother to be strangled with the bowstring.

Revolts  
in Asia  
Minor.

Amurath II. renewed the attack upon Constantinople, but retired after a siege of two months. He was a sovereign of singular moderation and justice for an Ottoman Turk, and preferred the repose of private life to the cares of sovereignty. His reign was perpetually disturbed by the rebellions of the Emirs of Asia Minor, and by the invasions of the Hungarians under John Hunnfyades. The Emirs were easily quelled, but the Hungarians proved a more formidable foe.

Hun-  
garian  
Invasions.

After concluding a ten years' truce with the Hungarians, Amurath II. resigned the Turkish scepter to his son Mohammed, then only fifteen years of age, and retired to Magnesia, near Smyrna, in Asia Minor.

Abdication of Amurath II.

No sooner had Amurath II. begun to taste the sweets of repose than the restless Caramanians, who had repeatedly rebelled against him, and who had been as often subdued and pardoned, took advantage of his retirement and again took up arms. The Hungarians also, instigated by the Pope, and in violation of a solemn treaty, crossed the Danube into Bulgaria with a large army, composed of various Christian nations, being under the command of King Ladislas VI. of Poland and Hungary and John Hunniyades of Transylvania.

Caramanian Revolt.

Formidable Hungarian Invasion.

The young Mohammed, thus surrounded with enemies, and destitute of experience, yielded to the advice of his counselors and entreated his father to resume the throne. Amurath II. reluctantly complied, hastened to Adrianople, took command of the Ottoman armies, and saved the Ottoman Empire from ruin by his great victory over the Christian army under King Ladislas VI. of Poland and Hungary and John Hunniyades of Transylvania, at Varna, in Bulgaria, on the Black Sea coast, in 1444, King Ladislas VI. himself being slain, and his head being carried about on a spear, while the papal legate Julian was overtaken by death during the flight from the fatal field. Soon afterward Amurath II. again retired from the cares of government to the solitude of his beautiful residence at Magnesia; but his son's feeble hand was unable to restrain the licentiousness of the Janizaries. Adrianople became a prey to domestic faction, and the aged Sultan again resumed the scepter.

Resumption of Amurath II.

Battle of Varna.

Second Retirement and Resumption of Amurath II.

Amurath II. has been praised by both Turkish and Greek writers. He was a just and valiant prince, moderate in victory, and always ready to grant peace to the vanquished. He was a learned man himself, and encouraged learning in others. Says the historian Cantemir: "Every year he gave a thousand pieces of gold to the sons of the Prophet, and sent twenty-five hundred pieces to the religious persons at Mecca, Medina and Jerusalem." He founded many colleges and hospitals, built many mosques and caravanseries, and added much to the magnificence of the cities and towns of the Ottoman Empire.

Good Character of Amurath II.

Amurath II. died in 1451, and was succeeded by his son MOHAMMED II., who was then twenty-one years of age, and who was one of the most famous of the Turkish Sultans. He had been educated by his father with the greatest care, and is said to have been able to speak in the Arabic, Persian, Hebrew, Greek and Latin languages, in addition to his native Turkish tongue. But, in spite of his training, he was a cruel and lustful tyrant; and began his reign by putting his two infant brothers to death.

Sultan Mohammed II., A. D. 1451-1481.

His Learning and Cruelties.

Siege and  
Capture  
of  
Constantinople  
by  
Mohammed II.

From the beginning of his reign Mohammed II. was resolved upon taking Constantinople and making that city the capital of the Ottoman Empire. Constantinople and its suburbs were now all that remained of the Eastern Roman Empire. The inhabitants of Constantinople were but ill prepared to withstand the attack of an enemy. They were distracted with religious feuds. Some desired a union with the Roman Church, but others declared that they would rather see the turban of Mohammed in their cathedral than the tiara of the Pope. The Christian nations of Western Europe refused to send relief to their Greek brethren of the East, and Constantinople was left to its fate. In 1452 Sultan Mohammed II. commenced fortifying the Bosphorus, to prevent the passage of European fleets to the relief of the Byzantine capital; and in the spring of 1453 he advanced to Constantinople with an army of two hundred and sixty thousand men, invested the city and took it by storm, after a siege of fifty-three days, May 29, 1453. The last Greek Emperor, Constantine Palæologus, was slain while gallantly defending his capital. Constantinople became the capital of the Ottoman Empire, but the triumphant Sultan Mohammed II. treated the vanquished Greeks with liberality, and encouraged them to remain in the conquered city. Thus ended the Eastern Empire of the Romans; the last remnants of Roman and Greek civilization in the East were now extinguished; the Greek Christian Church of St. Sophia became a Mohammedan mosque; the crescent supplanted the cross in the city of Constantine; and a Moslem monarch occupied the throne of the first Christian Roman Emperor.

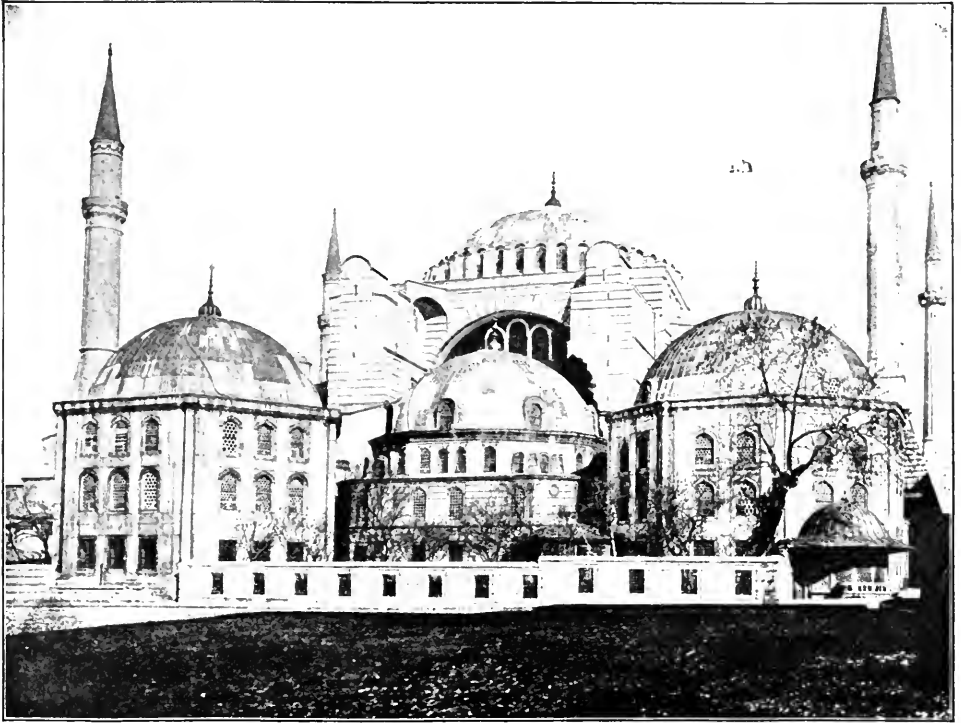
End  
of the  
Eastern  
Roman  
Empire.

Alarm of  
Christendom.

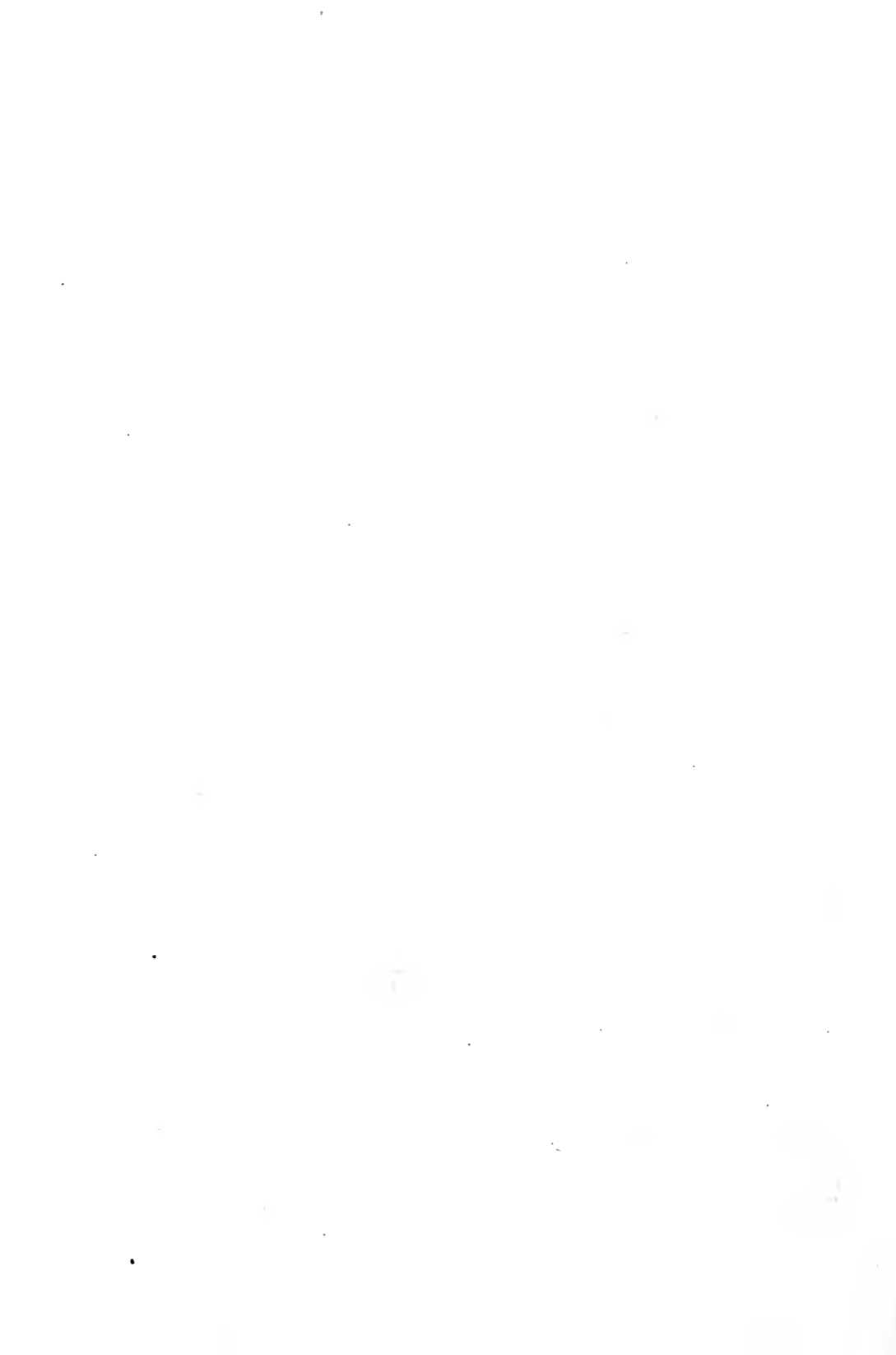
The capture of Constantinople and overthrow of the Greek Empire by the arms of Sultan Mohammed II. alarmed all Europe and caused Italy to tremble for its safety. Pope Nicholas V., and his second successor, Pius II., sent the most urgent appeals to all the monarchs of Western Christendom, entreating them to combine their forces against the conquering Turks. Pius II. even resolved to animate this new crusade by his own presence, but death prevented him from executing his purpose. But two Christian princes arrested the progress of the Ottoman arms, and thus proved themselves protectors and saviours of Christendom; as we shall now see.

Defeat of  
Mohammed II.  
by the  
Hungarians  
at  
Belgrade.

Sultan Mohammed II. sought to follow up the capture of Constantinople by the conquest of Hungary. He advanced to the Danube and laid siege to the important fortress of Belgrade, but was defeated and driven back with heavy loss, after a siege of six months, in 1456, by the Hungarians under the valiant regent, John Hunniyades of Transylvania. According to a Greek writer, the Sultan lost many troops "not only by the plague, but by engines cast in the form of tubes, which, by means of a dust, composed of nitre, sulphur and charcoal, shot out balls



MOSQUE OF ST. SOPHIA  
Exterior and Interior



of lead, five or ten together, each as big as a walnut." This is one of the earliest descriptions of gunpowder to be found in any history.

The victory of Hunniyades at Belgrade saved Hungary's independence. The renewal of these efforts at conquest by Sultan Mohammed II. met with no better success, and the Ottoman arms made no further progress in that quarter for many years. The voiwodes of Mo'davia defended themselves with such valor that the Sultan was content with their nominal submission.

Ottoman  
Conquest  
Checked

Mohammed II. turned his arms against the remaining Greek states. He conquered Greece proper and annexed it to the Ottoman Empire in 1460; and the next year Trebizond, at the east end of the Black Sea, surrendered to his arms, and the Greek dynasty of the Comneni, which had reigned there for two and a-half centuries, came to an end.

Conquest  
of Greece  
and  
Trebizond  
by  
Mohammed II.

In the mountainous region of Albania, the ancient Epirus, the valiant prince, Alexander Castriota, better known as Scanderbeg, which in Turkish signifies *Alexander the Great*, defended himself. In 1467 the Turks invaded his territory; but Scanderbeg, at the head of a small but faithful band of followers, resisted the mighty Ottoman hosts with success and forced them to raise the siege of his capital. Thenceforth until his death Scanderbeg maintained the independence of his little principality.

Scanderbeg's Successful Resistance in Albania.

In 1481 Sultan Mohammed II. sent an army across the Adriatic, and this Turkish force stormed and sacked the town of Otranto, on the eastern coast of Lower Italy. After securing this important footing in Italy, the Turkish Sultan prepared to follow it up by the conquest of that entire peninsula; but, in the midst of the general alarm which his movements occasioned throughout Europe, Mohammed II. died the same year, A. D. 1481.

Turkish  
Invasion  
of Italy  
and  
Capture  
of  
Otranto.

A dispute for the succession to the Turkish throne arose between the two sons of Mohammed II., Bajazet and Zizim, each of whom had partisans among the Janizaries. BAJAZET II. prevailed in Constantinople, and seized the throne. Zizim raised an army in Bithynia, and took possession of Brusa. Bajazet II. sent his Grand Vizier, Ahmed, against his brother with a strong force; and Zizim was forced to seek refuge with his mother and his two children in Syria, and afterward in Egypt, both of which countries were then under the dominion of the Mameluke Sultans.

Sultan  
Bajazet  
II., A. D.  
1481-  
1512.

Zizim's  
Revolt.

The Sultan of Egypt and Syria received Zizim with great hospitality, and endeavored to persuade him to relinquish his ambitious schemes, but without success; and Zizim next resorted to the Emir of Caramania, in Asia Minor, the petty province which had so long been hostile to the Ottoman Sultans. Zizim and the Emir of Caramania took the field against Bajazet II., but were defeated; and Zizim fled to the island of

His  
Defeat  
and  
Flight.

Rhodes, where he sought an asylum with the Knights of St. John, who were then at war with Bajazet II.

His  
Refuge at  
Rhodes  
and  
Imprison-  
ment at  
Rome.

Zizim was favorably received at Rhodes by the Knights of St. John. Sultan Bajazet II. made advantageous offers of peace to the Knights of St. John, on condition that they should deliver his brother into his power. They refused this condition; but, as they were anxious to conclude a treaty with the Sultan, they persuaded Zizim to retire to Italy. The Pope kept him a prisoner at Rome for several years, assigned him elegant apartments at the Vatican, and treated him with all the respect due to his rank, but refused him his liberty.

His  
Release  
and  
Suspicious  
Death.

Several Christian kings desired to have the custody of the captive Turkish prince, as a check upon the Sultan. At length King Charles VIII. of France, while passing through Rome, on his expedition against Naples in 1494, caused Zizim to be released; but the exiled Turkish prince died several days afterward, believed to have been poisoned through the instrumentality of the wicked Pope Alexander VI. at the instigation of Sultan Bajazet II. Being thus relieved of a dangerous competitor, Bajazet II. devoted himself to the cultivation of literature. During his reign the Turkish power declined. Bajazet II. conquered Bessarabia and some provinces in Asia.

Forced  
Abdica-  
tion and  
Suspicious  
Death of  
Bajazet  
II.

The last days of Sultan Bajazet II. were embittered by the unflial treatment which he received from his son Selim, who was fierce and warlike, and a great favorite with the Janizaries, by whose aid he forced his father to abdicate the Turkish crown in his favor, in preference to his elder brother, Achmet. Bowed down with age and infirmities, Bajazet II. retired from Constantinople with about five hundred domestics, but died on his way to Adrianople, supposed to have been poisoned by his physician at the command of his son and successor, SELIM I., A. D. 1512.

Sultan  
Selim I.,  
A. D.  
1512-  
1520.

His  
Crimes  
and  
Triumph.

Selim I., surnamed Gavúz, or "the Savage," who had usurped the Turkish throne in 1512 by dethroning his father, whom he put to death along with his two brothers and his five nephews, was obliged to maintain his throne by a series of bloody civil wars with other members of his family and was victorious. He was the first of the Ottoman Sultans to assume the sacred title of Khalif, which has ever since been borne by his successors.

His Wars  
with  
Persia.

Selim I. waged frequent wars with the modern Persian kingdom under the Suffecan dynasty, defeated Ismail Suffee at Tabriz in 1514, and annexed Kurdistan and Mesopotamia, along with Diarbekr and several other provinces east of the Tigris, to the Ottoman Empire.

His  
Conquest  
of Syria.

The Mameluke Sultans of Egypt and Syria had aided the Persians, and their army under Sultan Gauri was defeated in a sanguinary engagement near Aleppo, their leader slain and their power completely



broken in Syria. Aleppo and Damascus both submitted to the Turks, and Syria became a province of the Ottoman Empire, A. D. 1517.

Selim I. then invaded Egypt. Túman Bey, who had been elected as the chief Mameluke Sultan to succeed Gauri, assembled the remnants of the Mamelukes under the walls of Cairo, was reinforced by Arab auxiliaries, and prepared to resist Selim I., who advanced steadily and attacked the Mameluke camp. After a bloody and desperate battle, in which the Turkish artillery fire was served mainly by Christian cannoniers, Selim II. won the victory; and, after having done all that was possible for his cause, Túman Bey was driven into Cairo. Selim I. took the city by storm, and Túman Bey fled across the Nile, and by incredible exertions raised another army. The Turks pursued him closely and forced him to battle, utterly routed the Mamelukes and captured Túman Bey himself.

The conquering Selim I. at first was disposed to spare his captive's life, but his officers, who feared and envied Túman Bey, persuaded the Turkish Sultan that such clemency might inspire the Mamelukes with the hope of recovering their dominions, and the unfortunate Mameluke Sultan was hanged at the chief gate of Cairo. This completed the Turkish conquest of Egypt, which thus became a province of the Ottoman Empire, A. D. 1517.

The Turkish conquerors did not attempt to impose their religion on the people whom they conquered. They even left the conquered race in the enjoyment of their own political institutions. They contented themselves with levying a tribute on every Greek town and village, according to its population. So long as the inhabitants paid their tribute regularly they were left at liberty to worship in their own churches, to elect their own magistrates, and to be governed by their own municipal laws. Although the conquered people were subject to a heavy contribution for the benefit of the Sultan's treasury, this tribute was collected in the least oppressive manner by their own magistrates, whose duty was to tax all persons, without distinction, according to their means. Not many people who have been subjected to foreign dominion have been left in possession of so many political privileges as were the Greeks by their Ottoman conquerors.

Sultan Selim I. died in 1520, and was succeeded on the Turkish throne by his renowned son, SOLYMAN THE MAGNIFICENT, the greatest of all the Ottoman Sultans, who reigned forty-six years (1520-1566), and under whom the Ottoman Empire reached the zenith of its power and glory. The remainder of the Turkish history will be given in subsequent portions of this work, where the various great wars of the Ottoman Empire with the great Christian powers of Europe will be fully dealt with in their proper places.

**His  
Invasion  
of Egypt  
and  
Victories  
at Cairo.**

**Execution  
of the  
Mame-  
luke  
Sultan.**

**Turkish  
Conquest  
of Egypt.**

**Turkish  
Exaction  
of  
Tribute  
from the  
Con-  
quered  
Nations.**

**Sultan  
Solyman  
the Mag-  
nificent,  
A. D.  
1520-  
1566.**

**Turkish  
Glory.**

## SECTION II.—THE MODERN PERSIAN EMPIRE (A. D. 1501 TO THE PRESENT TIME).

Rise of  
Modern  
Persia  
under the  
Suffeean  
Dynasty.

FOR more than a century under Tamerlane's successors Persia was distracted by civil wars, until the beginning of the sixteenth century, when that famous land again came under the sway of a native Persian dynasty. In 1501 ISMAIL SUFFEE, a descendant of the holy sheikh Suffee, established the independence of Persia, and became the founder of the Suffavean, or Suffeean dynasty. From small beginnings Ismail saw his power increase during a period of four years until the whole of Persia submitted to his authority, thus giving rise to the Modern Persian Empire.

Ismail  
Suffee,  
A. D.  
1501-  
1523.

His Wars  
with  
Turkey.

Sultan Selim I. of Turkey, alarmed at the rise of this new Mohammedan power in the East, marched from Constantinople to crush his rising rival. The Shah Ismail was defeated in the great battle of Tabriz, in 1514; but Sultan Selim's death, in 1520, enabled him to retrieve his losses, and to subject even Georgia to his sway. Ismail is still venerated by the Persians as the restorer of their national independence.

Tamasp,  
A. D.  
1523-  
1576.

Ismail died in 1523, and was succeeded as Shah of Persia by his son TAMASP, whose reign of fifty-three years was a period of great prosperity for Persia. Anthony Jenkinson, one of the earliest English adventurers to Persia, visited Tamasp's court as an envoy from Queen Elizabeth; but the Mohammedan sovereign's intolerance soon drove this Christian ambassador from his presence.

Abbas  
the Great,  
A. D.  
1582-  
1628.

After the death of Tamasp, in 1576, his three sons disputed the Persian crown among themselves; but their short reigns deserve no notice. In 1582 ABBAS THE GREAT, grandson of Tamasp, was proclaimed Shah of Persia by some of the discontented nobles, and was compelled to appear in arms against his father Mohammed Mirza, who was deserted by his army, and is not mentioned again in history. But Abbas the Great did not long remain a mere instrument in the hands of others; but, seizing the reins of power, he soon rose to distinction, and became a great and powerful monarch; and his reign is the most brilliant in the history of modern Persia.

His  
Great  
Reign.

His  
Conquests  
from the  
Turks.

Shah Abbas the Great successfully defended his kingdom against the efforts of the Turks to conquer it, defeating the Ottoman forces in many battles. In the battle of Erivan one hundred thousand Turks were defeated by a little more than sixty thousand Persians. The result of this Persian victory was that all the Turkish territories on the Caspian Sea, in Azerbijan, Georgia, Kurdistan, Bagdad, Mosul and Diarbekr were annexed to the Persian Empire.

During the reign of Shah Abbas the Great commercial intercourse was established between Persia and England, and the most amicable relations between those two nations continued for many years. With the aid of the English East India Company, Abbas the Great wrested Ormuz from the Portuguese in 1622; and that great emporium of the East soon relapsed into its original insignificance.

**Com-  
mercial  
Inter-  
course  
with  
England.  
Ormuz.**

Shah Abbas the Great was in many respects an enlightened sovereign. Though he professed to be a devout Mohammedan, he tolerated all religions, and was particularly friendly to the few Christians who came into his dominions. His foreign policy was generally liberal. He expended his revenues in useful public works. Caravansaries, bridges, aqueducts, bazaars, mosques and colleges arose in every part of his dominions. His capital, Ispahan, was splendidly embellished, as were also other Persian cities. The ruins of the palaces of Furrabhad, in Mazunderan, and of Ashruff, in Astrabad, still attest his munificence. Even at the present time, if a stranger sees an edifice of more than ordinary beauty or solidity, and inquires who was its founder, he is likely to be answered that it is the work of Shah Abbas the Great.

**Religious  
Tolera-  
tion.**

**Great  
Works of  
Abbas the  
Great.**

There have been few sovereigns who have done more substantial good to their kingdom than Shah Abbas the Great. He studied to improve the administration of Persia, and his exertions proved beneficial to his subjects. He established an internal tranquillity throughout his dominions that had been unknown for centuries. He put an end to the annual ravages of the Uzbek Tartars, whom he confined to their own territories. He drove the Ottoman Turks from his kingdom, of which they had held some of the fairest provinces when he ascended the Persian throne. Justice was administered in accordance with the laws of religion; and the state seldom interfered, except to support the law, or to punish those who thought themselves above it. In short, Shah Abbas the Great raised Persia to a height of prosperity beyond what it had enjoyed for ages.

**Beneficial  
Results  
of His  
Reign.**

Abbas the Great was severe in his administration of justice; and in his later years his punishments were sudden and summary, and were inflicted upon mere suspicion. He was a cruel tyrant to his own family and relatives. He had four sons, on whom he doted so long as they were children; but when they approached manhood they became objects of his jealousy. The eldest of these sons, Suffee Mirza, a brave and high-spirited youth, fell the first victim to his father's suspicion; being stabbed as he came out of the bath, by order of his unnatural father, who was soon afterward so stung with remorse for his unfatherly act that he put to death the nobles who had inflamed his mind against his son. But repentance wrought no change in the gloomy soul of Shah Abbas the Great. One of his sons had died before the murder of Suf-

**His  
Cruelties  
to His  
Sons.**

fee Mirza ; and the inhuman father caused the eyes of the two remaining sons to be put out, so as to render them incapable of reigning.

**His Son's  
Murder  
of His  
Daughter  
and  
Suicide.**

The elder of these two surviving sons had two children, the elder of whom was a lovely girl named Fatima, who was the delight of her grandfather. The father of this child, goaded to desperation by his blindness and other misfortunes, seized her one day, as she came out to caress him, and, with maniac fury, killed her ; after which he groped for his infant boy ; but the shrieking mother fled, carrying her child to her father-in-law for protection. The grief and rage of Abbas the Great for the murder of his favorite grandchild afforded a momentary joy to that child's miserable father, who ended the horrible tragedy by committing suicide by swallowing poison.

**Crimes in  
Oriental  
Courts.**

Such appalling scenes are of frequent occurrence in the palace of an Oriental despot. Yet Shah Abbas the Great is the monarch who is most admired by the Persians, and the tenure of arbitrary power is so precarious in Persia that sovereigns of a similar character alone have successfully ruled the nation. The perpetration of crime appears too often the dreadful obligation of that absolute power to which an Oriental monarch is born, and therefore the character of the government merits our abhorrence more than that of the despot. Persia's prosperity ended with the death of Abbas the Great, in 1628.

**Succe-  
sors of  
Abbas the  
Great.**

After the death of Shah Abbas the Great, in 1628, Persia was ruled by a series of imbecile tyrants—SHAH SUFFEE I. (1628–1641), ABBAS II. (1641–1666), and SHAH SUFFEE II. (1666–1694)—whose reigns are almost a blank in the history of that Oriental monarchy.

**Hussein,  
A. D.  
1694–  
1722.**

In the reign of HUSSEIN, who became Shah of Persia in 1694, the Afghan tribes, who had long been subject to Persia, broke out in open rebellion. At the same time the Uzbek Tartars ravaged the Persian province of Khorassan, and tribes of wild Kurds overran different portions of the Persian kingdom. Shah Hussein was wholly incompetent for the government of the kingdom in such an emergency. To add to his perplexities, the astrologers predicted the total destruction of Ispahan by an earthquake—a prediction which caused a universal panic in Persia. The Shah and his court fled from the capital ; and the Mohammedan priests assumed the direction of affairs, prescribing every measure that fanaticism could suggest to avert the threatened vengeance of Heaven.

**Afghans,  
Uzbecks  
and  
Kurds.**

**Prediction  
and  
Panic.**

**Afghan  
Invasion  
of Persia.**

In this crisis it was announced that an Afghan army of twenty-five thousand men under Mahmoud Ghiljee had invaded Persia, A. D. 1722. The inhabitants of the Persian capital received this announcement as the signal of their doom, but made no adequate preparations to meet the Afghan invaders. The Afghan army of twenty thousand men advanced rapidly to Ispahan. The Persian army numbered fifty thou-

sand men, who shone in gold and silver, while their pampered steeds were sleek from high feeding and repose. The Afghans were mounted on lean but hardy horses, and the only things that glittered in their camp were swords and lances.

The Afghans defeated the Persians at Gulnabad, nine miles from Ispahan, and compelled them to flee in disorder into the capital, which was at once besieged by the victorious Afghans. The inhabitants of Ispahan endured indescribable miseries during the siege, being obliged to subsist on human flesh; and the streets, the squares and the gardens were covered with putrefying carcasses. After enduring these miseries for seven months, Ispahan finally surrendered to the besieging Afghans, October 21, 1722.

The triumphant Afghans deposed Shah Hussein, and cast him into prison, where he was murdered. Amazed at his own success, Mahmoud Ghiljee at first adopted conciliatory measures; but when he found the inhabitants of Ispahan recovering from their apathy he became gloomy and suspicious, and resolved upon the frantic enterprise of exterminating all the male population of the Persian capital. He commenced by massacring three thousand of Hussein's guards and three hundred Persian nobles. He then proscribed every one who had been in the Shah's service. For more than a fortnight the streets of Ispahan flowed with blood, and the spirit of its inhabitants was so utterly broken that it was a common thing to see one Afghan leading three or four Persians to execution.

But the practice of these horrid massacres soon made Mahmoud Ghiljee a madman. He secluded himself in a dungeon for a fortnight, fasting and practicing the severest penances, hoping thus to propitiate Heaven. The only effect of this was to increase his madness; and at length his mother caused him to be smothered, in order to relieve him of his sufferings. He was succeeded as chief of the Afghans by his cousin Ashruff.

For seven years the Afghans under their chief, Ashruff, ruled Persia with the most horrible tyranny and cruelty, costing the country the blood of a million of its population. But the fortunes of Persia were soon retrieved, and Ashruff encountered a rival in every part of the country where he least expected opposition. TAMASP II., Shah Hussein's son and successor, had assumed the nominal sovereignty of the Persian kingdom, with the support of Khouli Khan, a chief who had risen from the humble condition of a common laborer to the leadership of the Affshar tribe of Persia, and who declared his determination to drive every Afghan from the soil of Persia, A. D. 1730.

Ashruff, the Afghan chief, prepared for war, but was defeated by Khouli Khan in three great battles. The Afghan invaders were soon

**Afghan  
Siege and  
Capture  
of  
Ispahan.**

**Hussein's  
Deposition and  
Murder.**

**Massacre  
at  
Ispahan  
by the  
Afghans.**

**Insanity  
and  
Murder of  
Mahmoud  
Ghiljee.**

**Persia  
under  
Afghan  
Tyranny  
and  
Cruelty.**

**Khouli Khan's Victories and Expulsion of the Afghans from Persia.**

**Tamasp II., A. D. 1730-1736.**

**Khouli Khan's Usurpation as Nadir Shah.**

**His Conquests from Russia, Turkey, Afghans and Moguls.**

**His Vast Empire.**

**His Tyranny and Cruelty.**

**Blinding of His Son Reza.**

**His Cruelties and Assassination.**

obliged to evacuate Ispahan, and were overtaken by Khouli Khan at the ruins of Persepolis, where they were again defeated, whereupon they fled to Shiraz. Their numbers still amounted to twenty thousand; but, as their leader deserted them to save himself, they dispersed, and very few reached their homes. Ashruff was overtaken in Seistan, and was slain by a Beloochee, who sent his head and a large diamond which he wore to Shah Tamasp II. "Thus was destroyed the grisly phantom which for seven wretched years had brooded over Persia, converting her fairest provinces into deserts, her cities into charnel-houses, and glutting itself with the blood of a million of her people."

In 1732 Khouli Khan, whose ambition was insatiable, deposed Tamasp II., and Tamasp's youthful puppet son and successor, ABBAS III., in 1736, and made himself Shah of Persia with the title of NADIR SHAH. He soon reconquered several provinces on the Caspian which Peter the Great of Russia had wrested from Persia, and compelled the Sultan of Turkey to cede Armenia and Georgia to him after driving the Turks from Persia. He reduced the province of Khorassan, took the important cities of Candabar and Balkh, and subdued Afghanistan. In 1739 he invaded Hindoostan, and, by gaining a great victory over the Mogul army, became master of the Great Mogul Empire, occupying and plundering its capital, the great city of Delhi, and massacring a hundred thousand of its inhabitants. The Persian army returned home laden with a booty estimated at three hundred and fifty million dollars.

Under Nadir Shah the proud days of Persian splendor and glory appeared to be restored; and the boundaries of the Modern Persian Empire were the Caucasus mountain range, the Caspian Sea and the Oxus river on the north, the Indus river on the east, the Arabian Sea and the Persian Gulf on the south, and the river Tigris on the west.

But like Shah Abbas the Great, Nadir Shah, in the midst of his glory, was rendered miserable by domestic calamities; as he was, like Abbas the Great, a cruel tyrant to his subjects and to his own family. He was rendered haughty by ambition, and made suspicious and cruel by avarice. Suspecting his eldest son Reza to be plotting against him, he caused the prince's eyes to be put out. Said Reza: "It is not *my* eyes you have put out; it is those of Persia." Says Sir John Malcolm in his *History of Persia*: "The prophetic truth sank deep into the heart of Nadir, who, becoming from that moment a prey to remorse and gloomy anticipations, never knew happiness nor desired that others should feel it."

The remaining years of his life were marked by a frightful succession of cruelties. Whole cities were depopulated by his murders, and people left their abodes and sought safety in caverns and deserts. Finally his madness rose to such a height that he contemplated putting to

death almost every Persian in his army. His barbarities eventually drove his subjects to despair; and he was assassinated by the captain of his guard, his officers being obliged to resort to this step to save their own lives, A. D. 1747. **SHAH ROKH** reigned four years (1747-1751).

After the assassination of Nadir Shah, Persia relapsed into anarchy, while the Afghans and the Uzbecks reasserted their independence. More than half a century of revolution and civil war followed, in consequence of the efforts of various competitors for the Persian crown. **KERIM KHAN** ruled Persia twenty years, from 1759 to 1779, and fought successfully against the Ottoman Turks and the Turkomans. But after his death the internal troubles of Persia were renewed, and the Russians took advantage of this anarchy to seize Georgia in 1783.

In 1795 **AGA MOHAMMED KHAN** made himself Shah of Persia, and became the founder of the Kadjar, or Turkoman dynasty, which still occupies the Persian throne. After usurping the sovereignty of Persia, Aga Mohammed Khan restored order to the kingdom which had been so long distracted by civil war and anarchy, and removed the capital of Persia from Ispahan to Teheran, which still remains the seat of government of that famous Oriental monarchy. He then invaded Georgia, captured and pillaged Tiflis, its capital, and massacred its inhabitants.

Aga Mohammed Khan was a man of an extraordinarily ferocious disposition, and treated his family with great cruelty. Although he was a sagacious and profound dissembler, he was rigorously just; and, although he was grasping and avaricious himself, he would not in the least tolerate peculation in his officials. He was particularly indulgent to his soldiers, and they repaid his kindness by their fidelity. In his latter years his temper, which had always been peevish and dangerous, became ferocious. His countenance is said to have resembled that of a shriveled old woman, and to have occasionally assumed a horrible expression, of which he was sensible, and for which reason he could not endure to be looked at. Even his confidential domestics approached him trembling, and their blood curdled at the sound of his shrill, dissonant voice, which was usually raised only by uttering a term of gross abuse or an order for punishment.

Aga Mohammed Khan was assassinated in 1797 by two of his attendants whom he had sentenced to death for disturbing him with their noise. He was succeeded on the Persian throne by his nephew **FUTEH ALI SHAH**, whose long reign of thirty-eight years, A. D. 1797-1835, was disturbed by several bloody wars with Russia, which will be noticed in the history of the nineteenth century. Futeh Ali Shah's grandson and successor, **MOHAMMED SHAH**, had an uneventful reign of thirteen years, A. D. 1835-1848. Shah Mohammed's son and successor, **NASR-ED-**

**Anarchy and Civil War.**

**Kerim Khan,**  
A. D.  
1759-  
1779.

**Kadjar Dynasty Founded by Aga Mohammed Khan.**

**Teheran.**

**Cruelty and Ferocity of Aga Mohammed Khan.**

**His Assassination.**

**Futeh Ali Shah.**

**Mohammed Shah.**

**Nasr-ed-Din.** DIN, waged a short war with Great Britain in 1857. He was assassinated in 1896 and was succeeded by his son, **MUZAFER-ED-DIN**, who in 1906 gave Persia her first constitution and Parliament.

**Muzaffer-ed-Din.**

## SHAHS OF MODERN PERSIA.

<p style="text-align: center;"><i>Suffean Dynasty.</i></p> <p>A. D. 1501 Ismail I.            1523 Tamasp I.            1576 Ismail II.            1577 Mohammed Mirza.            1582 Abbas the Great.            1628 Shah Suffee I.            1641 Abbas II.            1666 Shah Suffee II.            1694 Hussein (deposed).</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Different Dynasties.</i></p> <p>1722 Mahmoud (Afghan chief).            1725 Ashruff (usurper).            1730 Tamasp II.            1732 Abbas III.</p>	<p>A. D. 1736 Nadir Shah (Khouli Khan),            murdered in 1747.            1747 Shah Rokh.            1751 An interregum.            1759 Kerim Khan.            1779 Rival Shahs and assassinations till 1795.</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Kadjar, or Turkoman Dynasty.</i></p> <p>1795 Aga Mohammed Kahn (murdered in 1797).            1797 Futeh Ali Shah.            1835 Mohammed Shah.            1848 Nasr-ul-Din, or Nasr-ed-Din (murdered in 1896).            1896 Muzafer-ed-Din.</p>
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SECTION III.—THE MOGUL EMPIRE IN INDIA  
(A. D. 1525–1803).

**Conquest of India by Mohammed of Gaur.** THE dismemberment of the Ghiznivide Empire, about the middle of the twelfth century, was followed by the conquest of most of its territories in Hindoostan by Mohammed of Gaur, the chief of a horde of barbarians from the Hindoo Koosh, who plundered Benares, the most holy place of Hindoo superstition, and established his capital at Lahore, in the Punjab, A. D. 1183. After his death a new Afghan dynasty, called Patans, obtained possession of most of Hindoostan, and made the more central city of Delhi their capital. Baber, the second Patan sovereign of India, conquered Bengal; but his Persian and Tartar dominions were conquered by Zingis Khan's successors. For two centuries the wealth of the Patan kings at Delhi exposed them to constant attack from the Mongols and Tartars; but the most destructive of these invasions was that by Tamerlane in 1399, who captured Delhi after a great battle, plundered the city of its wealth, massacred one hundred thousand captives who impeded his march, and atrociously slaughtered multitudes of unarmed pilgrims to the Ganges.

**Patan, or Afghan Dynasty in India.**

**Tamerlane's Capture and Massacre of Delhi.**

Tamerlane established no permanent empire in India; and the Patan dynasty ended with the death of Mahmoud, in 1413, when the governors of provinces set up independent sovereignties, all of which were



united into the *Great Mogul Empire*, founded in 1525 by **BABER**, a descendant of Tamerlane, and which lasted almost three centuries. Baber had been the sovereign of a little principality between Kashgar and Samarcand, the throne of which he ascended at the age of twelve years, and which he secured permanently only after a struggle with rival claimants. He invaded India in 1525 with thirteen thousand cavalry, and routed Ibrahim II., the native ruler of Delhi, who had a hundred thousand cavalry and a thousand elephants, fifty miles from Delhi—a victory which made Baber sovereign of Hindoostan. The native princes of India then combined against Baber, but their army of a hundred thousand men was put to flight.

**Mogul Empire in India Founded by Baber.**

**His Victories over the Native Princes.**

**Baber's Good Qualities.**

Baber exhibited nothing of the barbarous character of the race from which he was descended. He was generous, enlightened and humane, and patronized literature and the arts. He was equaled by very few of his race in military capacity. He accomplished the most daring enterprises by his dauntless courage and perseverance, which arose above all difficulties, and rendered him more the object of admiration in his adversity than in the height of his prosperity. He did not forget himself in the hour of victory, but always exhibited that moderation and equanimity characteristic of a great soul. He distinguished himself as a lawgiver, excelled in literature, and wrote a volume of commentaries on his own reign, in the Mogul language, with elegance and perspicuity. He was somewhat of a voluptuary, notwithstanding his great capacity for politics. When disposed to abandon himself to pleasure he caused a fountain to be filled with wine, upon which a verse of this kind was inscribed: "Jovial days! blooming spring! wine and love! Enjoy freely, O Baber, for life is not twice to be enjoyed!" He was rashly brave, and merciful to a fault, thus frequently endangering his own safety. He so often pardoned ingratitude and treason that he seemed to make a principle of returning good for evil.

**His Vices.**

Baber died in 1530 at the age of forty-nine, and was succeeded by his son **HUMAYAN**. Humayan defeated the King of Guzerat; but his brothers conspired against him; while the Afghan prince Shere Shah also rebelled against him, defeated him in several battles and dethroned him in 1540, compelling him to seek refuge in Persia, and seizing the Mogul crown for himself.

**Humayan, A. D. 1530-1540.**

**His Overthrow**

**SHERE SHAH**, as sovereign of Hindoostan, improved his dominions. He built caravansaries at every stage from the Indus to Bengal, dug a well at every two miles, erected the most magnificent mosques, planted rows of trees along the public highways, and established horse posts for the quicker conveyance of intelligence. Shere Shah reduced the power of the governors, and regulated the finances and the military. He devoted a fourth part of his time to administering justice, a fourth to

**Shere Shah, Afghan Prince, A. D. 1540-1545.**

the care of his army, a fourth to worship, and a fourth to rest and recreation. The native historian says that the public security was such that "travelers and merchants, throwing down their goods, composed themselves to sleep, without fear, upon the highway."

His Son  
Selim,  
A. D.  
1545-  
1553.

Shere Shah was killed by accident in 1545, after a reign of five years, and was succeeded by his son SELIM, who subdued a rebellion against himself with great difficulty, and then reigned quietly. Selim, who was an able and moderate sovereign, displayed a taste for magnificence in architecture, and erected intermediate caravansaries between those built by his father.

Humay-  
an's  
Second  
Reign,  
A. D.  
1553-  
1555.

After the death of Selim, in 1553, Hindoostan was plunged into great disorder, and Humayan was entreated to return and resume his authority. He had excited the sympathy of the sister of Tamasp, Shah of Persia, and of some of the Persian nobles, and was allowed a troop of ten thousand Persian cavalry to recover Cabul from his traitorous brothers.

Camiran's  
Treachery  
and  
Ingrati-  
tude.

Humayan's temporary loss of his throne had been largely the result of the treason of his brother Camiran, who had wrested the Punjab from his brother, and who had deserted him just before his second defeat by Shere Shah. No treaty could bind Camiran, and no kindness or generosity could arouse his gratitude; and he was now the chief obstacle in the way of Humayan's success. On one occasion Camiran exposed Akbar, his own nephew, Humayan's son, upon the walls of Cabul to deter Humayan from an assault; but he finally relented when he was told that every person in Cabul should die in case any harm happened to Akbar.

Humay-  
an's  
Kindness  
to  
Camiran.

Camiran soon afterward fell into his brother's power; and, notwithstanding all his offenses, Humayan treated him with kindness and respect, only to be repaid with the basest perfidy at the first opportunity. The other brother, Hindal, repented of his treason, and died fighting nobly in Humayan's service.

Camiran's  
Captivity  
and  
Blind-  
ness.

When Camiran had again fallen into Humayan's power all the Mogul chiefs demanded that he should be put to death for his repeated crimes. Humayan's refusal of this demand almost occasioned a revolt of the chiefs. Humayan finally consented with great reluctance that his brother should be blinded with antimony, in order to prevent any further mischief. Several days afterward Humayan went to see his blinded brother. Camiran rose to meet him, exclaiming: "The glory of the king will not be diminished by visiting the unfortunate." Humayan burst into tears and wept bitterly, although Camiran sought to console him by acknowledging the justice of his punishment. The restless prince obtained permission to make a journey to Mecca to expiate his crimes, and spent his last days in the Holy City of Arabia.

As Humayan had no army fit for the task of recovering his lost throne when he returned to Hindoostan, he fell into a deep melancholy; but, after his chiefs had made out some favorable omens to act on his mind through superstition, he crossed the Indus with a small force and took Lahore. His Vizier defeated one army sent to oppose him; and his son Akbar vanquished another of eighty thousand cavalry, many elephants and a large train of artillery.

**Defeats  
of Hu-  
mayan's  
Enemies.**

The victorious Humayan entered Delhi in 1554, but died the next year from a fall. He walked out on the terrace of his library one evening, and sat there for some time to enjoy the fresh air. When he began to descend the steps of the stair leading to the terrace, the crier of the mosque, according to custom, proclaimed the time for prayers. Humayan, conformably to the practice of the Mohammedan religion, stood still and repeated the creed; after which he sat down until the proclamation was ended. As he was about rising he supported himself upon a staff, which slipped upon the marble step, thus causing him to fall headlong to the foot of the stairs. About sunset on the fourth day after this fall, "his soul took her flight to Paradise," says the Persian historian who gives the account of this affair. The same writer sums up Humayan's character in one phrase: "Had he been a worse man he would have been a greater monarch."

**Humay-  
an's Ac-  
cidental  
Death.**

On the death of Humayan, in 1555, his son AKBAR became sovereign of the vast Mogul Empire in India, at the age of thirteen. His father had appointed his Vizier, Byram, regent during the youthful monarch's minority. Several highly popular measures favorably introduced the new reign; such as prohibiting the usual exaction of presents from farmers, permitting all goods to pass free of toll, and abolishing the practice of pressing laborers to the wars.

**Akbar,  
A. D.  
1555-  
1605.**

**Byram's  
Regency.**

Upon hearing of Humayan's death, the Afghan Vizier, Himu, marched to Delhi and captured the city. Akbar at once intrusted the direction of affairs to Byram, whom he called "father." As Himu's army was five times larger than Akbar's, the latter's council of war advised a retreat to Cabul; but was opposed by Byram, who was so heartily seconded by the boy sovereign Akbar that the Mogul chiefs, delighted with the gallant alacrity of their youthful monarch, unanimously placed their lives and fortunes at his disposal.

**Afghan  
Capture  
of Delhi.**

**Resolu-  
tion of  
Byram  
and  
Akbar.**

The hostile armies encountered each other near Delhi; and the Moguls galled the troops of elephants in Himu's army so severely with arrows, lances and javelins that they became unmanageable and did as much injury to their masters as to their enemies. Himu, on a huge elephant, pushed four thousand cavalry into the very heart of the Mogul army. Being wounded in one eye he pulled out the arrow, and with it the eye; and, though thus horribly wounded, he continued the battle.

**Defeat,  
Capture  
and  
Murder  
of Himu,  
the  
Afghan  
Leader.**

His driver, in order to save himself, pointed out his master to the Moguls; and, through this treacherous cowardice, Himu was taken prisoner and conducted to Akbar's presence. Byram told his sovereign that it would be a good action to kill "that infidel" with his own hand. Akbar drew his sword, but burst into tears and only laid the sword on Himu's shoulder. Byram sternly reprov'd Akbar's untimely clemency, and beheaded Himu at one blow.

**Byram's  
Banish-  
ment,  
Revolt,  
Defeat  
and  
Captivity.**

Byram's imperious disposition and severity soon caused Akbar to banish his faithful Vizier, who then headed a rebellion, but was defeated by Akbar's generals. Byram sent a slave to implore his sovereign's clemency, and Akbar generously pardoned his rebellious Vizier and treated him with the greatest kindness. The repentant Vizier, touched by his sovereign's magnanimity, burst into tears and cast himself at the foot of the throne. Akbar extended his hand to him, ordering him to rise and replacing him at the head of the princes of the Empire, and thus addressed him: "If the lord Byram loves a military life he shall have the government of Calpi and Chinderi, in which he may exercise his martial genius; if he chooses rather to remain at court, our favor shall not be wanting to the great benefactor of our family; but should devotion engage the soul of Byram to perform a pilgrimage to Mecca, he shall be escorted in a manner suitable to his dignity."

**Akbar's  
Kindness  
to Him.**

Byram chose the last offer; but on his way to the Holy City of Arabia he was basely assassinated by the son of an Afghan chief whom he had killed in battle. Thus died a brave warrior and enlightened statesman, whose inhumanity, partly the result of a natural severity of disposition, was undoubtedly confirmed to a principle by repeated experiences of the unfortunate effects of the clemency of Humayan and Akbar, the sovereigns whom he had so ably served.

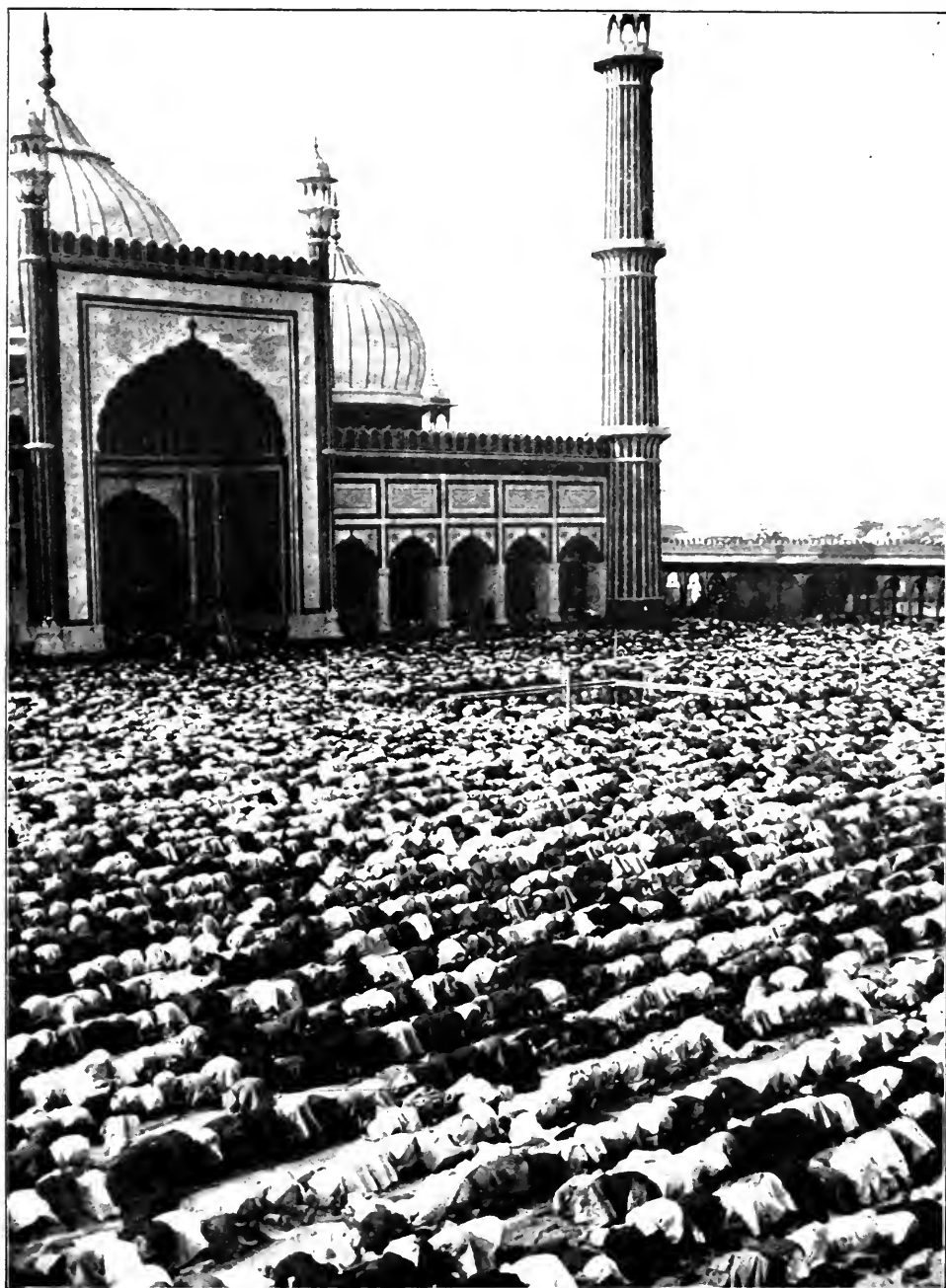
**Byram's  
Journey  
to Mecca  
and  
Assassi-  
nation.**

**Akbar's  
Military  
Virtues  
and  
Abilities.**

Akbar conquered the Deccan, and had to suppress repeated rebellions. In his military character he displayed the most reckless courage and audacity, and the most remarkable rapidity and decision of attack before the enemy was able to gather or concentrate his strength. On one occasion, while marching to the relief of the governor of Guzerat, who was besieged, Akbar, with only three thousand cavalry and three hundred camels, repulsed an attack by seven thousand cavalry, utterly routing the assailants. On numerous other occasions he risked his life in the thickest of the fight like a common trooper.

**His Great  
Reign.**

Akbar's good fortune and valor brought him triumphantly out of every danger, and, along with the unparalleled vigor and skill of his government during a reign of fifty years, impressed his subjects with an idea that his powers of mind and body were supernatural. He was one of the most successful and powerful sovereigns that have reigned over Hindoostan, and his administration was distinguished by wisdom



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PUBLIC PRAYER—COURT OF THE JUMMA MUSJID MOSQUE AT DELHI, INDIA



and equity. By his wise, liberal and beneficent policy, Akbar acquired and merited the title of "*Guardian of Mankind*"; and his reign was called the *Golden Age of India*.

The *Ayeen Akberry*, the "Mirror of Akbar"—a literary work written under his immediate direction, by his distinguished literary Vizier and friend, Abul Fazil, and which is still extant—details the comprehensive and excellent system of administration which Akbar put in practice. This work shows Akbar to have been preëminently a statesman, and affords valuable material for the historian. In addition to much financial and statistical matter, and sagacious observations upon men, politics and government, the *Ayeen Akberry* furnishes the regulations of the various departments and the domestic economy of the Mogul Empire in India, from the collection of the revenues and the care of the army to the stipends of the ladies of the harem, the daily food of Akbar's camels, and the manner in which the illustrious monarch's dinner was served.

From the *Ayeen Akberry* we learn the methodical survey of the Mogul Empire in India made by Akbar, and which comprises an account of the revenues, manufactures and agricultural productions of the different districts, etc. The resources of the Empire being thus fully ascertained, Akbar, with the aid of his learned Vizier, effected a thorough improvement of the internal state of his Empire, while his generals were enlarging it by conquest. The improvement of the administration was carried on with the greatest vigor. A new division of the Empire was made; and under this arrangement the Mogul dominions in India were divided into eleven *soobahs*, or states, which were subdivided into *circars*, and the latter into *pergunnahs*—distinctions existing in Hindoostan at the present time, though the Mogul sovereignty has been at an end for more than a century.

Akbar encouraged literature and learning. He founded schools and directed the compilation of books. He fostered the arts and industry so successfully that no country seems ever to have been more prosperous than the Mogul Empire in India during his reign. There was abundance in every portion of his dominions. Though no heavy burdens were imposed upon the people, the revenues amounted to the immense sum of two hundred and fifty million dollars, according to some estimates.

No Oriental monarch ever distinguished himself in a more striking manner by administrative reforms than Akbar. His internal improvements accomplished more real good for his subjects, and acquired more true glory for himself, than could have been effected by the most brilliant and successful military career of the mightiest monarch of the world.

The  
Ayeen  
Akberry.

Akbar's  
Civil  
Admini-  
stration.

Prosper-  
ity of His  
Empire.

Reforms  
and  
Internal  
Improve-  
ments.

**Akbar's  
Personal  
Habits  
and Occu-  
pations.**

Akbar spent most of the night in business and in listening to the discourses of philosophers and historians, whom he delighted to gather about him. About three hours before day musicians were introduced, and these performed vocal and instrumental music. After that His Majesty passed an hour in silent prayer. Just before dawn people of all classes were in attendance, awaiting their sovereign's appearance. In addition to the opportunities of audience regularly afforded to all, Akbar occasionally appeared at a window, when petitions might be offered to him without any kind of intervention. He abolished the immemorial custom of prostration. He took but one meal daily, and that was so simple that he did not taste any animal food for months. He slept but little, and that mainly in the forenoon and evening.

**His Wise  
and Just  
Rule.**

Akbar's principles of government were to gain and secure the affections of his subjects; to prevent all injustice, and all delay of justice; to be tolerant in religion; and to make a sparing use of capital punishment. It is said that he never even laughed at or ridiculed any religious sect. The governors of the various provinces of the Empire were changed every three years. Taxes were required to be collected in an "affable" manner; and the collector was to consider himself "the immediate friend of the husbandman," and to lend him money when he needed it, this money to be repaid at a favorable time.

**His  
Equitable  
Taxation.**

Akbar's remarks on the administration of justice were peculiarly admirable for their clear, searching and impartial character. He removed many vexatious and injurious taxes, and substituted one broad, equitable levy upon all real estate, which he caused to be accurately surveyed, and the tax whereon he caused to be fixed. He remitted the navigation duties, and reduced the taxes on manufactures. He enhanced the value of the coin by improving its fineness.

**His Good  
Qualities.**

Akbar was the first man in his dominions in accomplishments, intellect and virtue as well as in station. He possessed that rare and fortunate combination of qualities for rule by which he was enabled to project, and to appreciate when others had projected, some of the loftiest principles of government, and to carry them into practice by his practical skill and by his diligent and personally close attention to details.

**Agra  
Rebuilt.**

The ancient city of Agra had become much dilapidated, and Akbar resolved to rebuild it and to make it the capital of his dominions instead of Delhi. For this purpose he collected the most skillful artisans and mechanics from all portions of Hindoostan, and by their aid the city rose from its ruined condition with great splendor.

**Its  
Splendid  
Palace.**

A magnificent castellated palace was erected there, which surpassed every other structure of its character in Hindoostan. It was four miles long; and lofty walls were constructed of enormous red stones resembling jasper, which shone with great brilliancy under the bright sun.



The entire structure was ornamented with stately porticoes, galleries and turrets, all elegantly painted and gilded, and many of them plated with gold.

The gardens attached to this immense edifice were laid out with the most exquisite taste, and were decorated with all that could gratify the eye or the ear. There were the loveliest shades of foliage, the most blooming bowers, grottoes of the most refreshing coolness, fruits of the most delicious flavor, and cascades that never ceased to murmur. In front of the palace toward the river was a vast area for the exercise of the royal elephants and for the combats of wild beasts—spectacles which the Mogul Emperors of India viewed with the greatest delight.

The Dutch traveler Mandelslo, who visited Agra in 1638, stated that the great palace just described was the most magnificent structure that he had ever beheld. The avenue to the Emperor's presence-chamber was lined with pillars of silver. The chamber itself was of the size of a large hall, and was adorned with pillars of gold. The throne was of massy gold incrustated with diamonds and other precious stones. One of the towers of the edifice was likewise plated with gold. This tower contained the imperial treasures, in eight large vaults, which were filled with gold, silver, and precious stones of inestimable value.

In a line with the palace along the banks of the river were ranged the magnificent residences of the princes and the great rajahs, who vied with each other in embellishing the new capital and metropolis of India. These majestic structures were interspersed with avenues of lofty trees, broad canals and beautiful gardens. Akbar's munificence also provided Agra with an immense number of caravansaries, bazaars and mosques, remarkable for their stately size and for their elegant architecture.

Akbar's policy was in a high degree liberal to foreigners. This enlightened monarch invited intelligent men of all nations to settle in his capital. He caused houses and stores to be erected for them, permitted them free toleration for their religion, and granted them various privileges and immunities.

He opened an intercourse with the Portuguese, and invited the Portuguese government to send missionaries into his dominions that the Hindoos might be instructed in Christianity. Instead of displaying the bigotry so characteristic of most Mohammedan sovereigns, Akbar seems to have understood the principles of religious toleration better than any Christian monarch of his time. In his letter to the King of Portugal, he severely censured the slavish propensity of mankind to adopt the religious opinions of their fathers without evidence or investigation; and he desired to be supplied with translations of the Christian Scriptures, as well as other works of general utility.

**Its Lovely  
Gardens.**

**Internal  
Structure  
of the  
Palace.**

**Princely  
Resi-  
dences,  
Caravan-  
saries,  
Bazaars,  
Mosques,  
Etc.**

**Liberality  
to For-  
eigners.**

**Inter-  
course  
with the  
Portu-  
guese.**

**Akbar's  
Religious  
Liberal-  
ity.**

His Noble  
Senti-  
ment.

In one of his proclamations, addressed to the officers of his Empire, he gave expression to the following sentiment: "The most acceptable adoration in this world, which a man can pay to his Creator, is to discharge his duty faithfully toward his fellow-creatures, discarding passion and partiality, and without distinction of friend or foe, relative or stranger."

Splendor  
of Agra,  
or Akbar-  
abad.

He allowed the Portuguese to erect a church and found a college at Agra, and even endowed the college with a pension from his own treasury. By such liberal and politic measures, Akbar succeeded in making Agra the most flourishing city of Hindoostan; and it became thronged with Portuguese, Persian, Arab and Chinese merchants, who flocked in multitudes to this rich mart of Oriental commerce. During Akbar's reign the name of Agra was changed to *Akbarabad*, or the City of Akbar.

Jehan-  
ghire,  
A. D.  
1605-  
1627.

Upon the death of Akbar, in 1605, his son Selim ascended the throne of the Mogul Empire in India, assuming the title of *JEHANGHIRE*, meaning "Lord of the World." The Mogul nobles attempted to place Jehanghire's son upon the throne; but the result was the execution of many of the nobles, and the confinement of the young prince. One of Jehanghire's first acts involved the remainder of his life in remorse.

Plot and  
Result.

Mher-ul-  
Nissa.

Before his accession he had fallen deeply in love with the beautiful and accomplished Mher-ul-Nissa, "the Sun of Women," the daughter of a poor Tartar named Chaja Aiass, who had been admitted into the service of an omrah or prince at the Mogul court. As the maiden had been betrothed by her father to a Turkoman noble named Shere Afkun, Prince Selim applied to his father, the Emperor Akbar, who sternly refused to be a party to an act of injustice, even in the interest of his own son, the heir to the Mogul throne. The prince retired abashed, and Mher-ul-Nissa became the wife of Shere Afkun.

Jehan-  
ghire's  
Base  
Crime and  
Remorse.

But when Selim, or Jehanghire, became Emperor by the death of his father Akbar, in 1605, he gave way to the dictates of his passion by causing Shere Afkun, the husband of the beautiful woman whom he coveted, to be murdered. No obstacles then stood in the way of Jehanghire's desires; but the new Emperor was so stricken with remorse at his base crime that he refused even to see the object of it; so that she lived neglected in his harem for four years, where she was so scantily provided for that she was obliged to earn a livelihood by turning her accomplishments to needlework and painting, her productions becoming objects of general desire and admiration.

Mehr-ul  
Nissa,  
or Noor  
Mahl.

Jehanghire's curiosity was finally aroused, and he visited Mher-ul-Nissa, who then assumed the name of Noor Mahl, "Light of the Harem," and thenceforth exercised the most unbounded influence over him. Her father, Chaja Aiass, was promoted to the distinguished position of

Vizier; and his two sons were created omrahs, and proved themselves worthy of their stations. The affairs of the Mogul Empire were never better conducted than under Chaja Aiass, whose administration is still considered one of the few luminous spots in the dark history of internal government in India.

Her  
Father,  
Chaja  
Aiass, as  
Vizier.

During Jehanghire's reign several European embassies arrived at the Mogul court with commercial objects. These were received with great favor by Jehanghire; but his vacillating disposition, which induced him alternately to grant and withhold their requests, or to alter their conditions, at the wish of his nobles, caused the failure of all these embassies.

European  
Embassies.

The Vizier Chaja Aiass had held the haughty and imperious disposition of his daughter Noor Mahl under subjection; but after his death she conspired to raise to the Mogul throne Jehanghire's youngest son, who had married her daughter by her first husband, the murdered Shere Afkun. Her brother Asiph Jan was made Vizier, and was endowed with almost the same qualities as his father.

Noor  
Mahl's  
Plot.

Noor Mahl's most determined enemy was Jehanghire's third son, Shah Jehan, who eventually became his father's successor on the Mogul throne. Shah Jehan had murdered his brother Chusero, and took up arms against his father to escape his resentment, but failed, chiefly through the abilities of his father's heroic and noble-minded general, Mohâbet. Jehanghire's empress hated the general as a matter of course, and sought to ruin him with her husband, who appears to have appreciated properly his character and services.

Shah  
Jehan's  
Revolt  
and  
Defeat.

Mohâbet was now summoned to court, through Noor Mahl's influence; but he took the precaution to bring five thousand devoted rajputs as an escort. An audience was ignominiously refused to him until he accounted for certain alleged precautions. His son-in-law was sent to Jehanghire to protest Mohâbet's devotedness to his sovereign and to explain matters, but was sent back stripped and cruelly bastinadoed.

Mohabet  
and Shah  
Jehan.

Mohâbet perceived that decisive measures were demanded, and he therefore planned a bold scheme. The imperial army had to cross the Jhylum. When the greater part of the army had reached the opposite side of the stream Mohâbet galloped to the bridge with two thousand cavalry, destroyed the bridge, and left a body of his determined friends to prevent the troops from returning across the river; after which he appeared in Jehanghire's tent with a pale but determined countenance, and made the Emperor his prisoner.

Mo-  
habet's  
Seizure  
of Jehan-  
ghire.

Every effort which the army under Asiph Jan made to recross the river to the aid of the captive sovereign was resisted with great slaughter by Mohâbet's few but resolute troops. Noor Mahl herself, who had caused all the mischief, had already crossed the river, and was half

Asiph  
Jan's  
Failure  
and Noor  
Mahl's  
Despera-  
tion.

frenzied at the success of Mohâbet's maneuver. She rushed into the water, discharged three quivers of arrows from the bow in her own hands, and had three successive drivers killed on the back of her elephant; thus inflaming the courage of her soldiers to the highest pitch.

**Mohâbet's Capture and Liberation of Noor Mahl.**

Mohâbet crossed the river and drove all before him. He finally took Noor Mahl prisoner, accused her of high treason and other crimes, and obtained an order for her execution. She begged to see Jehanghire once more, and her request was granted. She was admitted into Jehanghire's presence, and stood before him in silence. Jehanghire burst into tears, and exclaimed: "Will you not spare this woman, Mohâbet? See how she weeps." Mohâbet replied: "It is not for the Emperor of the Moguls to ask in vain." Mohâbet thereupon instantly gave Noor Mahl her liberty.

**Jehanghire's Restoration.**

The loyal Mohâbet then released Jehanghire, restored to him all authority, and dismissed his guards. But Noor Mahl was sufficiently base to demand the magnanimous general's death, and when Jehanghire refused to grant her request she sought to assassinate Mohâbet. Jehanghire warned his general of her intentions; whereupon Mohâbet fled, was proclaimed a traitor, and a price was set upon his head. His lofty and fearless character now led him to decide on a most extraordinary step. He disguised himself and went into the camp of Asiph Jan, the brother of his deadly enemy, Noor Mahl, and obtained an interview.

**Mohâbet's Flight and Bold Step.**

**His Interview with Asiph Jan.**

Asiph Jan appreciated Mohâbet's mercy to his sister, as well as his generous confidence on this occasion, and therefore received the general with open arms, taking him to a secret apartment. Said Mohâbet: "Purvez, the elder of the princes, is virtuous and my friend; but we must not exchange one feeble sovereign for another. I have fought Shah Jehan and know his merit. Though his ambition acknowledges no restraint of nature or justice, his vigor will prevent intestine disorder and give power to the laws." Asiph Jan coincided in these views; but their schemes were rendered unnecessary by the deaths of Purvez and Jehanghire, which occurred soon afterward, A. D. 1627.

**Shah Jehan, A. D. 1627-1659.**

**His Murders.**

**Rebellions and Death of Lodi.**

SHAH JEHAN succeeded his father on the Mogul throne, and secured himself against competitors by the murder of every other male descendant of Baber, except his own four sons—Dara, Sujah, Aurungzebe and Morad. Asiph Jan was created Vizier, and Mohâbet was appointed commander-in-chief. Lodi, a descendant of the Patan, or Afghan sovereigns of India, and who had formerly fought against Shah Jehan, was now his principal enemy, but surrendered himself on condition of receiving a province. He was soon afterward invited to the Mogul court, but was received with such studied insult that he shed tears and fainted away—a strange effect on so brave a man. In another unsuccessful rebellion he perished in despair, after seeking "an honorable

death" by leading thirty followers in an attack on a considerable force of the enemy. Shah Jehan displayed the most indecent joy at Lodi's death—a compliment to the latter's abilities and heroism. Some disturbances in the Deccan were soon quieted.

Shah Jehan's millions of subjects enjoyed such tranquillity and happiness during his reign as had seldom prevailed in Hindoostan. His governors were watched closely and brought to a strict account, and his reign is celebrated for the strict execution of the laws. The collection of the revenue was better managed than even during Akbar's reign. India is indebted to Shah Jehan for some of its noblest architectural structures. He founded the city of Jehanpoor, near Delhi, for his own residence, and erected one of the finest palaces in the world. He constructed a mausoleum of white marble, inlaid with precious stones, one hundred and ninety yards square, on an elevated terrace in the midst of a beautiful garden, for his favorite queen, Noor Jehan.

Shah Jehan's illness encouraged his sons to aspire to the Mogul crown. The most dangerous of these sons was the crafty, courageous and energetic Aurungzebe, who professed to be intensely religious and desirous of restoring the purity of the Mohammedan worship, which had become wisely tolerant in order to conciliate the Hindoos. Aurungzebe cajoled his brother Morad, thus inducing him to place money and troops at his disposal. He also attached the enormously wealthy emir of the Prince of Golconda to his fortunes.

Dara, Shah Jehan's eldest son, who was called to administer the government of the Mogul Empire for his father, whose illness incapacitated him for its functions, began his administration by forbidding his brothers to approach the palace on penalty of death. The brothers broke out into open rebellion; and the hostile armies engaged in a desperate conflict, during which one of Dara's captains deserted to Aurungzebe with thirty thousand men, thus giving that prince the victory and making him Emperor, A. D. 1659.

The victorious AURUNGZEBE then made his father his prisoner, and detained him in captivity during the remainder of his life. Shah Jehan had previously sought to inveigle Aurungzebe into the harem of the citadel of Agra, where he had stationed some powerful Tartar women, who were ready to fall upon and crush his son. Aurungzebe also reduced his brother Morad to helpless captivity. Sujah, another brother, was driven into exile, and sought refuge with the King of Arakan, by whom he was basely murdered.

Aurungzebe's eldest brother Dara endured every hardship, and was at length treacherously betrayed to Aurungzebe, who caused him to be paraded about the streets of Delhi, attired in a dirty cloth, on a miserable, filthy-looking elephant. At this humiliating sight cries of dis-

Shah  
Jehan's  
Quiet and  
Pros-  
perous  
Reign.

His Great  
Works.

Shah  
Jehan's  
Sons.

Aurung-  
zebe's  
Rebell-  
ion,  
Victory  
and  
Usurpa-  
tion.

Aurung-  
zebe,  
A. D.  
1659-  
1707.

Captivity  
of Shah  
Jehan and  
Morad.

Captivity  
and  
Murder of  
Aurung-  
zebe's  
Brothers.

tress and piercing shrieks were uttered by men, women and children on all sides, as if some great calamity had befallen themselves. This popular commiseration sealed the fate of Dara, and he was murdered by Aurungzebe. Soon afterward Morad met with a similar fate.

**Result  
of Royal  
Family  
Murders.**

These dissensions in the reigning Mogul family—the result of no fixed rule of succession—were evidence of a decline of the Mogul Empire. Shah Jehan had struck the first blow at the Mogul sovereignty by murdering his relatives. By a similar atrocity Aurungzebe shook that sovereignty to its very center. Thus the principle became established that, on the death of a Mogul Emperor, “there was no place of safety but the throne, the steps to which must be the dead bodies of unsuccessful competitors”; and these victims were usually the nearest relatives of the aspirant to the Mogul throne.

**Aurung-  
zebe,  
Shah  
Jehan  
and the  
Royal  
Jewels.**

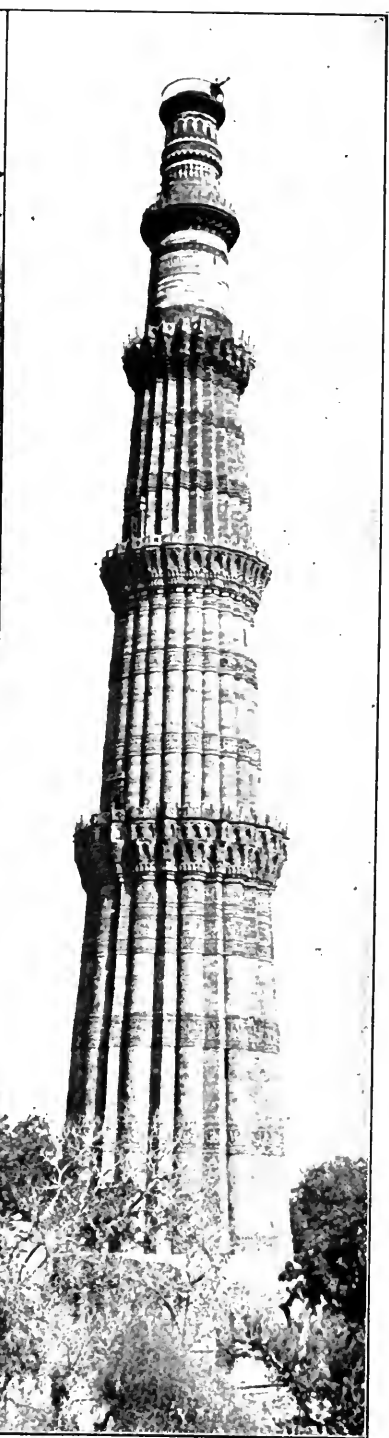
Aurungzebe's character appears to have undergone a remarkable change for the better when he had become undisputed master of the Mogul dominions in India. He showed his father all attention and respect consistent with his captivity. Desiring to adorn the throne with some of his father's jewels, Aurungzebe sent to ask for them of the captive Shah Jehan, who told his son that hammers were ready to pound the jewels into dust if there were any more importunity for them. Aurungzebe replied: “Let him keep his jewels; nay, let him command those of Aurungzebe.” When this remark of his son was reported to Shah Jehan the captive father sent a number of the gems which he had refused, saying: “Take these, which I am destined to wear no more. Wear them with dignity, and, by your own renown, make some amends to your family for their misfortunes.” When this remark of his captive father was reported to Aurungzebe the latter shed tears.

**Aurung-  
zebe and  
His Vast  
Empire.**

Aurungzebe was the most powerful of the Mogul Emperors of India, and one of the most powerful of all Oriental sovereigns. During his reign the Mogul Empire in India attained its highest pinnacle of wealth, power and magnificence. Its dominion extended from Persia on the west to Burmah on the east, and from the Hindoo Koosh and the Himalayas on the north to the river Kistna on the south; thus embracing all of Hindoostan north of that river, and all of Afghanistan and Beloochistan. The population of this vast Empire was about ninety millions. Aurungzebe displayed abilities of the highest order. He was familiar with the entire business of internal administration, and devoted his attention thereto with unremitting assiduity. He rose at dawn every morning, and was in his hall of audience at seven o'clock, where, in accordance with the custom of Oriental monarchs, he listened to the complaints of his subjects, rich and poor, and administered justice with the strictest impartiality. He gave money liberally to the

**His  
Abilities.**

**His  
Justice.**



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MONUMENTS OF THE MOGUL EMPIRE IN INDIA

Upper : The Taj Mahal  
Lower : Base of Kutab Minar

Right : Kutab Mina,  
or Tower of Victory, near Delhi





poor, and commanded that persons learned in the law and the precepts of the Koran should attend in the public courts at his own expense to aid the poor in matters of litigation.

**Kindness  
to the  
Poor.**

Aurungzebe punished judges who were guilty of corruption or partiality with extreme severity. His activity kept the machinery of government in motion through all the members of the political fabric. His discerning eye followed corruption to its most secret haunts, and his inexorable justice established tranquillity and secured property all over his vast dominions.

**Adminis-  
tration of  
Justice.**

The splendor of Aurungzebe's court was never surpassed in the Oriental world. His trappings of state were of unparalleled expense, and almost beyond credulity. The roof of his hall of audience was of silver, and the screens that separated it from the other apartments were of solid gold. His throne, with the canopy, the trappings, and the harness of the state elephant, were valued at sixty millions. All else pertaining to the royal person and to the royal residence was on a scale of similar splendor.

**Splendor  
of  
Aurung-  
zebe's  
Court.**

Most of Aurungzebe's wealth was obtained by plunder and oppression, of which he was guilty, but which he would not tolerate in any of his officials or servants. He increased the expenses of his government to an immense degree, but the legal revenues were not much larger than during the economical reign of Akbar.

**Revenues  
and  
Expenses.**

Aurungzebe passed much of his time in his camp, because of his apprehensions of the hostile designs of his sons against one another and against himself. This camp was in the nature of a moving city, and usually contained fifty thousand troops, one hundred and fifty thousand horses, mules and elephants, one hundred thousand camels and oxen, and three or four hundred thousand camp followers. All the leading men of Delhi attended the court wherever it went, and the magnificence of this style of living supported the immense number of traders and artisans attached to the camp.

**Aurung-  
zebe's  
Camp.**

In 1665 a remarkable rebellion broke out in the Mogul Empire, which exhibited the great power of superstition over the weak-minded and credulous Hindoos. A class of fanatical devotees in Hindoostan, called *fakirs*, wandered about the country in multitudes nearly naked, pretending to live by begging, but in reality practicing theft, robbery and murder. In the territory of Manwar, or Judpore, a wealthy old woman commenced increasing her liberality toward the fakirs. These sturdy beggars gathered about her by thousands, not satisfied with the alms of the pious patroness, and commenced plundering the neighboring country. The inhabitants rose in arms against these hypocritical robbers, but were several times very signally and disastrously defeated with terrible slaughter.

**The  
Fakirs  
and the  
Old  
Woman of  
Judpore.**

**Rebell-  
ion.**

**Super-  
stition.**

The belief became prevalent that enchantment was at work. The people considered the old woman a sorceress, and believed that she compounded a witch's mess, rendering the fakirs invincible by mortal weapons. Finding the old woman's protection so powerful, the fakirs assembled in vast numbers, and ravaged the country far around. The Rajah of Manwar attacked them, but was defeated. Their unexpected success made them presumptuous, so that they determined to attack the capital of the Mogul Empire itself.

**Ravages  
of the  
Fakirs.**

**The "Old  
Woman's  
War."**

Accordingly an army of twenty thousand fakirs, under the leadership of the old woman, marched against Agra, and defeated an imperial force under the command of the collector of the district when within five days' journey of the capital. The victorious fakirs now considered themselves invincible, and therefore able to seize all the wealth and authority of the Empire; so that they at once proclaimed the old woman Empress of Hindoostan.

**Effect  
of the  
Popular  
Super-  
stition.**

Aurungzebe had at first despised this insurrection, but he now became convinced of its serious character. The soldiers were affected with the popular superstition; and it was extremely hazardous to permit them to engage with these fanatical banditti, who were believed to be possessed of magic arts by which they could paralyze the bodies of their enemies.

**Aurung-  
zebe's  
Religious  
Habits.**

Aurungzebe's prompt sagacity invented an antidote for the religious contagion. His reputation for sanctity was as great as that of the old woman. In his younger days he had been distinguished for the devotion and austerity of a religious mendicant, leading a life of severe penance, eating only barley bread, herbs and fruits, and drinking nothing but water.

**His  
Ingenious  
Expedient  
and its  
Result.**

He now turned the reputation which he had thus acquired to good account. He pretended that he had discovered, by means of incantation, a counter-enchantment to the enchantment of the fakirs. He wrote with his own hands certain mysterious words upon slips of paper, and declared that each of these slips of paper carried upon the point of a spear before each of the squadrons of troops would neutralize the spell of the enchantress. He was believed. The counter-enchantments were carried into battle; and the fakirs were cut to pieces, though they fought desperately.

**Aurung-  
zebe's  
Remark.**

Such was the result of the *Old Woman's War*, one of the most singular events in all history. When speaking of this affair, Aurungzebe remarked: "I find that too much religion among the vulgar is as dangerous as too little in the monarch."

**End of  
Mogul  
Glory.**

The glory of the Mogul Empire ended with the death of Aurungzebe, in 1707; and civil wars soon led to the dismemberment of that vast dominion, which was gradually split up into fragments.

The remaining history of the Great Mogul Empire in India after Aurungzebe's death, in 1707, is but the melancholy record of a series of miserable struggles among Baber's descendants for the imperial sway, while the Empire was constantly becoming less worth the contest. Aurungzebe's death was immediately followed by a bloody civil war among his sons. Battles in which three hundred thousand men were engaged were fought near Agra, the capital of the Empire. Aurungzebe's second son, Mohammed Mauzm, defeated his brothers, who were slain in battle, and ascended the Mogul throne under the names of SHAH ALLUM, the "King of the World," and BAHADUR SHAH, the "Valiant King."

Rapid  
Decline  
of the  
Empire.

Civil War  
among  
Aurung-  
zebe's  
Sons.

Shah Allum did not inherit his illustrious father's capacity or his good fortune. Involved in a struggle with the Sikhs of the Punjab, and perplexed by the restless ambition of his four sons, who appeared as competitors for the Mogul crown during his life-time, he died of grief and anxiety in 1712, after a reign of five years, leaving behind him the reputation of an accomplished, liberal and humane monarch.

Shah  
Allum,  
A. D.  
1707-  
1712.

After Shah Allum's death the usual civil war arose among his four sons, who, besides appealing to force of arms, resorted to every stratum that fraud and treachery could suggest to base minds, in order to circumvent each other. Mauz Odin, the eldest of Shah Allum's four sons, by a superior stroke of perfidy, succeeded in overthrowing his three brothers and putting them to death. He thus gained the Mogul throne, and assumed the title of JEHANDER SHAH. His chief adviser was a concubine, one of the impure class of public dancers; and he was frequently seen near Delhi, walking with such abandoned females.

Civil War  
among  
His Sons.

Jehander  
Shah,  
A. D.  
1712-  
1713.

After reigning for a year and a-half in voluptuous indolence, Jehander Shah was dethroned by the disaffected omrahs; whereupon his nephew FEROKHSIR seized the Mogul throne, after defeating and killing his uncle, A. D. 1713. But while Ferokhsir was invested with the external marks of authority, the omrahs, who had raised him to the throne, reserved to themselves all the essential powers of government. Finding himself used as a mere puppet, Ferokhsir projected the overthrow of his masters, and slaughtered without compunction every person in his power from whom he could apprehend any possible danger. According to the genius of Oriental policy, Ferokhsir's plot for the destruction of the omrahs was secret and perfidious; but the omrahs detected the plot, counteracted it by their superior address, and caused Ferokhsir to be strangled after a reign of almost six years, A. D. 1718.

Ferokh-  
sir, A. D.  
1713-  
1718.

His Plot  
against  
the  
Omrahs.

Assassi-  
nation  
of  
Ferokh-  
sir.

After the Mogul Empire had been kept in an unsettled condition for several years by the intrigues of the omrahs, MOHAMMED SHAH was raised to the throne about A. D. 1720. By an expert use of his power, Mohammed Shah effected the destruction of the omrahs who had con-

Moham-  
med  
Shah,  
A. D.  
1720-  
1747.

**His  
Prodigality.**

tributed to his elevation; after which, considering himself perfectly secure from his enemies, he abandoned himself to a career of luxury and debauchery, and utterly neglected public affairs. The most destructive abuses and oppressions prevailed throughout the Mogul Empire.

**His  
Disgraceful  
Peace  
with the  
Mahrattas.**

Instead of offering a resolute opposition to the Mahrattas, who were then rapidly rising into power in Hindoostan, Mohammed Shah purchased peace of those marauders by paying them as a ransom a fourth part of his resources. With a weakness still more fatal, Mohammed Shah, finding it troublesome to collect this fourth part of his resources, permitted the ruthless Mahrattas to collect it in their own rough way, thus abandoning his subjects to the spoiler.

**Nadir  
Shah's  
Persian  
Invasion  
of the  
Mogul  
Empire.**

The misgovernment under Mohammed Shah brought the whole Mogul Empire into such a distracted condition that a treacherous omrah who hoped to aggrandize himself by the subjugation of his countrymen instigated Nadir Shah of Persia to invade Hindoostan in 1739. Marching into the country with a powerful army, Nadir Shah gained possession of Delhi through the treachery of Mohammed Shah's officers, who were rewarded by the following speech from Nadir Shah, exhibiting a strange medley of the monarch, the ruffian and the fanatic: "Are not you both most ungrateful villains to your king and country, who, after possessing such wealth and dignities, call me from my own dominion to ruin them and yourselves? But I will scourge you with all my wrath, which is the vengeance of God."

**Nadir  
Shah's  
Massacre  
of One  
Hundred  
Thousand  
People  
at Delhi.**

A Persian soldier seized a pigeon-seller's basket, and the pigeon-seller called out that Nadir Shah had ordered a general pillage; whereupon the streets of Delhi were soon filled with an excited populace, who attacked the Persians. A report was circulated that Nadir Shah was dead, and two thousand Persians were slaughtered before night. Nadir Shah himself was shot at. This incident aroused his tiger-like ferocity, and caused him to order a general massacre of the populace of Delhi. Before two o'clock one hundred thousand men, women and children of the great capital of the Mogul Empire in India lay dead in bloody heaps. During this atrocious deed the enraged Shah of Persia sat in the mosque at Delhi. None but his slaves dared approach him, as his countenance was dark and terrible. At length the Mogul Emperor, Mohammed Shah, attended by a number of his chief omrahs, ventured to come near him with downcast eyes. The omrahs who preceded Mohammed Shah bowed down their foreheads to the ground. Nadir Shah inquired sternly what they wanted. They exclaimed unanimously: "Spare the city!" Mohammed Shah did not utter a word, but the tears flowed fast from his eyes. The tyrant Shah of Persia was touched with pity for once; and, sheathing his sword, he said: "For the sake

of the prince Mohammed, I forgive." The effect of his orders for the cessation of the massacre was so instantaneous that everything was calm in the Mogul capital in the course of a few minutes.

But when the massacre ceased the pillage only commenced, and the amount of the plunder has been estimated at from one hundred and fifty million to three hundred and fifty million dollars in our money. During the sacking of Delhi the gates of the city were closed, and the populace began to suffer the horrors of famine. Tucki, an actor, was playing before Nadir Shah, who was so delighted with the performance that he promised the actor any reward that he should ask. The noble Tucki fell on his knees, and exclaimed: "O King, command the gates to be opened, that the poor may not perish." The Shah of Persia granted the actor's request, and Tucki was rewarded for his benevolence by the blessings of his fellow-creatures.

After extorting from the wretched Hindoos all the money and treasures which they could furnish, Nadir Shah reinstated Mohammed Shah in his authority with pomp and solemnity, but took from him Afghanistan and Beloochistan, and gave him some good advice. The Shah of Persia then retired from Delhi, and returned in triumph to his own kingdom; but he was attacked on his way by the Afghans, who plundered his camp of much of his treasure, among which was the valuable diamond called *Koh-e-noor*, "the Mountain of Light."

No sooner were the Persian armies withdrawn from India than a general defection of the Hindoo dependents of the Mogul Emperor occurred. None were willing to yield obedience to a sovereign who was no longer able to enforce his authority. All the tribes of enterprising warriors that had sought refuge in the mountains during the period of Mogul splendor now descended into the plains, and seized the finest provinces of the Empire. Even private adventurers assumed the rank of sovereigns.

Nadir Shah of Persia was assassinated by his own officers in 1747, in the midst of the confusion prevailing in India in consequence of the dissolution of the Mogul Empire; and this event occasioned a fresh invasion of India by the Afghan chieftain Achmet Abdallah, who had been enabled to raise an army of fifty thousand men by seizing three hundred camels loaded with treasure. He marched against Delhi, and his destroying hosts ravaged India in the whole course of their advance.

Mohammed Shah died in the midst of this Afghan invasion, A. D. 1748, and was succeeded on the Mogul throne by his eldest son, AHMED SHAH, who was unable to restore the declining fortunes of the Mogul Empire against the attacks of the Mahrattas and the Rohillas, who were troublesome in India itself; while the Afghans had established a powerful monarchy west of the Indus, and wrested the provinces of

**Pillage of Three Hundred and Fifty Million Dollars' Worth.**

**Nadir Shah's Retirement.**

**Attacked by the Afghans.**

**Dissolution of the Mogul Empire.**

**Afghan Invasion of India.**

**Ahmed Shah, A. D. 1748-1754.**

**Invasions by Mahrattas, Rohillas and Afghans.** Moulton and Lahore, in the North-west of Hindoostan, from the Mogul Emperor. The Mahrattas were a powerful tribe from the Vindhya mountains and the head of the Western Ghauts. They had already overrun the northern portion of the Deccan, and now penetrated into the imperial provinces of Agra and Delhi.

**Allumghire, A. D. 1754-1759.** After Ahmed Shah had reigned nearly seven years he was blinded and deposed by Gazi, an omrah of great influence, who enthroned AL-LUMGHIRE, a descendant of Aurungzebe, A. D. 1754, and who had been for some time confined as a prisoner of state. The Mogul dominions were now subjected to the ravages of the Afghans, who marched an army to the very gates of Delhi, so that the Mogul capital was again at the mercy of an enemy. The Mogul Emperor had sunk so low that he begged the Afghan chief, Abdallah, not to leave him to the mercy of his own Vizier, the rebel Gazi, who had put out the eyes of Ahmed Shah. The Afghan chief gladly complied with the Mogul Emperor's request; and, after plundering the country of everything of value, he occupied Delhi, leaving Allumghire to regret his folly and to lament over his exhausted treasury. At length Gazi caused Allumghire to be assassinated, A. D. 1759.

**Afghan Invasion of India and Occupation and Plunder of Delhi.**

**Massacre and Burning of Delhi by the Afghans.**

The Afghans laid Delhi under such oppressive contributions that the inhabitants took up arms in despair. The Afghan chief was so enraged at this that he ordered a general massacre, which lasted a full week without cessation. At the same time many of the edifices were set on fire and consumed; and thus the great city of Delhi, one of the two capitals of the Mogul Empire—which, in the days of its glory, was said to have been thirty-four miles long, and to have contained two millions of people—was reduced almost to a heap of ruins.

**Continued Dissolution of the Mogul Empire.**

These repeated ravages of foreign invaders utterly broke the power of the Mogul Emperor. The native Hindoo chiefs usurped the governments of the various provinces of the Empire; and some of the provinces were seized by the English and the French, who now began their struggle with each other for supremacy in India.

**The Great Mogul's Empty Title.**

But though the Great Mogul became a mere name it was a name that was highly venerated by the great mass of the Hindoos, who felt the advantage of having a sovereign who could protect them from the tyranny of the local governors and give them redress when needed. The Mogul Emperor's dominions gradually melted away until only the city of Delhi and its vicinity remained within the Great Mogul's jurisdiction, but while his title remained there were many popular reasons for respecting it.

**His Nominal Sovereignty.**

Accordingly grants of land were sanctioned by his name, even in localities where he possessed no administrative authority. The Hindoo nabobs had their *firman*s, or commissions of appointment, under his

nominal sanction, even though they tolerated no interference on his part in their respective governments; and the coin continued to be struck in his name long after he was reduced to the condition of a mere pensioner of the English East India Company.

The Mahrattas now made an effort to seize the Mogul Empire by one bold stroke; but Abdallah, the Afghan chief, was still in India, and he took the field against the Mahrattas. On January 7, 1761, was fought the great battle of Panniput, near Delhi, in which each army numbered about two hundred thousand men, and in which the Mahratta army was almost totally destroyed by the victorious Afghans, who then returned home.

The power of the Mogul Emperor was now at an end. Abdallah, the Afghan chief, conferred the Mogul sovereignty on SHAH ALLUM II., who was never really master of his own dominions, and who experienced a variety of the most cruel disasters. Finally the Mogul Emperor became involved in a quarrel with the English East India Company, whose troops defeated his army at Buxar in 1764, in consequence of which he fell completely under the influence of that powerful British mercantile corporation, thus putting an end to the influence of his name in Hindoostan, and rendering the English East India Company the predominant power in India. In the next half century India presents a perplexed chronicle of violent revolutions, occasioned by the various Hindoo chiefs who successively rose to more or less power, and their contests with the English East India Company.

The account of the last revolution that occurred in the Mogul dominions previous to the time that the Mogul sovereigns became pensioners of the English East India Company is interesting as a picture of Orientalism, and instructive as an example of the instability of human grandeur and the precarious condition of despotic governments. This revolution was inaugurated by Gholam Khadur, who had been disinherited by his father and driven from his presence for vice and crime. Shah Allum II., the Mogul Emperor, took him under his protection, treated him as his own son, and conferred upon him the second title in the Mogul dominions—the title of *Emir of Emirs*. Being invested with this honor, Gholam Khadur lived with Shah Allum II. at Delhi, and raised a force of about eight thousand troops of his own countrymen, the Moguls, assuming the command of this force himself. Gholam Khadur was of a passionate temper, haughty, cruel, ungrateful and debauched.

Late in 1788 Shah Allum II. had become suspicious that some of the neighboring rajahs would make efforts to conquer what remained of his dominions—a suspicion which was confirmed by the approach of a large army toward his capital commanded by a chief named Ismail, and aided

**Mahrattas and Afghans.**

**Battle of Panniput.**

**Shah Allum II., A. D. 1761—**

**His Subjection to the English East India Company.**

**Shah Allum II. and Gholam Khadur.**

Scindia's  
Mahratta  
Invasion  
and  
Gholam  
Khadur's  
Advice  
to Shah  
Allum II.

by Scindia, the warlike Mahratta sovereign. Gholam Khadur reassured Shah Allum II., who was discouraged at the array of his formidable foes. Gholam urged the Mogul Emperor to march out, give his troops a supply of money, and he would lay his head on the enemy's being repulsed. When the Emperor replied that he had no money Gholam offered to advance an adequate sum himself, saying: "Only head the army. The presence of the monarch is half the battle." Shah Allum II. appeared to consent to do so, and requested Gholam to assemble the army, to pay the arrears of the troops and to inform them of the Emperor's purpose to lead them in person.

Treachery  
of Shah  
Allum II.  
to Gholam  
Khadur.

Gholam Kadur was therefore greatly astonished when on the following day he intercepted a letter from Shah Allum II. to Scindia, the hostile Mahratta chief, desiring him to make all possible haste and destroy Gholam, saying in the letter: "For he urges me to act against my wishes and oppose you." When Gholam thus discovered his sovereign's treachery he marched out with his troops, crossed the Jumna, and encamped on the other side of the river, opposite the fort of Delhi, the Emperor's residence. He then returned to the Emperor his intercepted letter, asking him if such conduct did not merit the loss of his throne. After a siege of several days, Gholam took the fort by storm, entered the palace in arms, appeared in the Emperor's chamber, insulted the old monarch in the most barbarous manner, knocked him down, knelt on his breast, dug out one of his eyes with his knife, and ordered one of the Emperor's servants to thrust out his master's other eye.

Gholam's  
Khadur's  
Revolt  
and  
Blinding  
of Shah,  
Allum II.

Gholam Khadur then pillaged the palace, proceeded to the Zezana, the residence of the Emperor's women, insulted the ladies, and tore the jewels from their noses, ears and limbs. Having lived with the Emperor, he was well acquainted with the different places where his treasures were concealed. He dug up the floor of the Emperor's own bedroom, where he discovered two chests containing one hundred and twenty thousand gold mohurs in specie—a sum equal to almost a million dollars in our money—which he took with vast sums besides.

Gholam  
Khadur's  
Pillage  
of the  
Palace  
at Delhi.

His  
Treach-  
erous  
Seizure  
of the  
Royal  
Women's  
Dresses  
and  
Jewels.

Gholam Khadur perpetrated a nefarious trick of the meanest kind to get at the concealed jewels of the Emperor's women. He invited the Emperor's ladies and daughters to come and pay their respects to him, promising to free such as could best please him by their dress and appearance. The innocent, unthinking women brought out their jewels and adorned themselves in their most elegant attire to please Gholam. He ordered them to be conveyed into a hall, where he had prepared ordinary dresses for them. He compelled them to put on these dresses, by the aid of eunuchs; after which he took possession of their elegant dresses and jewels, and sent the women home to lament their own credulous vanity and to curse his treachery. Gholam insulted the Emperor's



daughters by making them dance and sing, and brought the most beautiful of these princesses, Mobaruck ul Mulk, into his presence; but she stabbed herself rather than submit her person to him.

Soon afterward Scindia, the Mahratta chief, came to the aid of Shah Allum II., ostensibly; but his real design was to make himself master of the remnant of the once-mighty Mogul dominion. Gholam Khadur fled, and took refuge in the fort of Agra, the other Mogul capital, a distance of one hundred and fifty miles south from Delhi. He was besieged there by Scindia's troops. Conscious that he would be taken prisoner if he remained there, he took advantage of a dark night by stuffing his saddle with a large stock of precious stones and fleeing with a few followers toward Persia. Unfortunately for him he fell from his horse the second night of his flight, and was taken prisoner by a party of cavalry which had been sent in pursuit of him. He was brought into the presence of Scindia, who exposed him for some time in irons and then in a cage, after which he ordered his captive's ears, nose, hands and feet to be cut off, and his eyes to be taken out, allowing him to die in that condition.

Scindia's Aid to Shah Allum II.

Gholam Khadur's Flight and His Torturous Murder by Scindia.

The victorious Scindia seized on the remnant of the Mogul Empire which he had professedly come to protect, and left to Shah Allum II., the nominal Mogul Emperor, only the city of Delhi and its immediate vicinity, where, in his blindness, he remained an empty shadow of royalty.

Partition of the Mogul Dominions.

In 1803 the English under Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterward Duke of Wellington, after defeating the Mahrattas in the battle of Assayé, placed the immediate sovereignty of Delhi and Agra under the English East India Company, which pensioned off the last descendant of the mighty royal race of Baber. Thus ended the Great Mogul Empire in India; though the title of *King of Delhi* continued for about half a century to be given to the lineal descendant of the Grand Mogul dynasty, who still resided at Delhi as a pensioner of the English East India Company.

End of the Mogul Empire by British Conquest.

MOGUL EMPERORS OF INDIA.

A. D. 1525	Baber.	A. D. 1712	Jehander Shah.
1530	Humayan.	1713	Farokhsir.
1556	Akbar.	1720	Mohammed Shah.
1605	Jehanghire.	1748	Ahmed Shah.
1627	Shah Jehan I.	1754	Allumghire.
1659	Aurungzebe.	1759	Shah Allum II.
1707	Bahadur Shah, or Shah Allum I.	1803	Empire ended by British conquest.













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a tree at  
C  
Pines, Aug 1938  
to study



