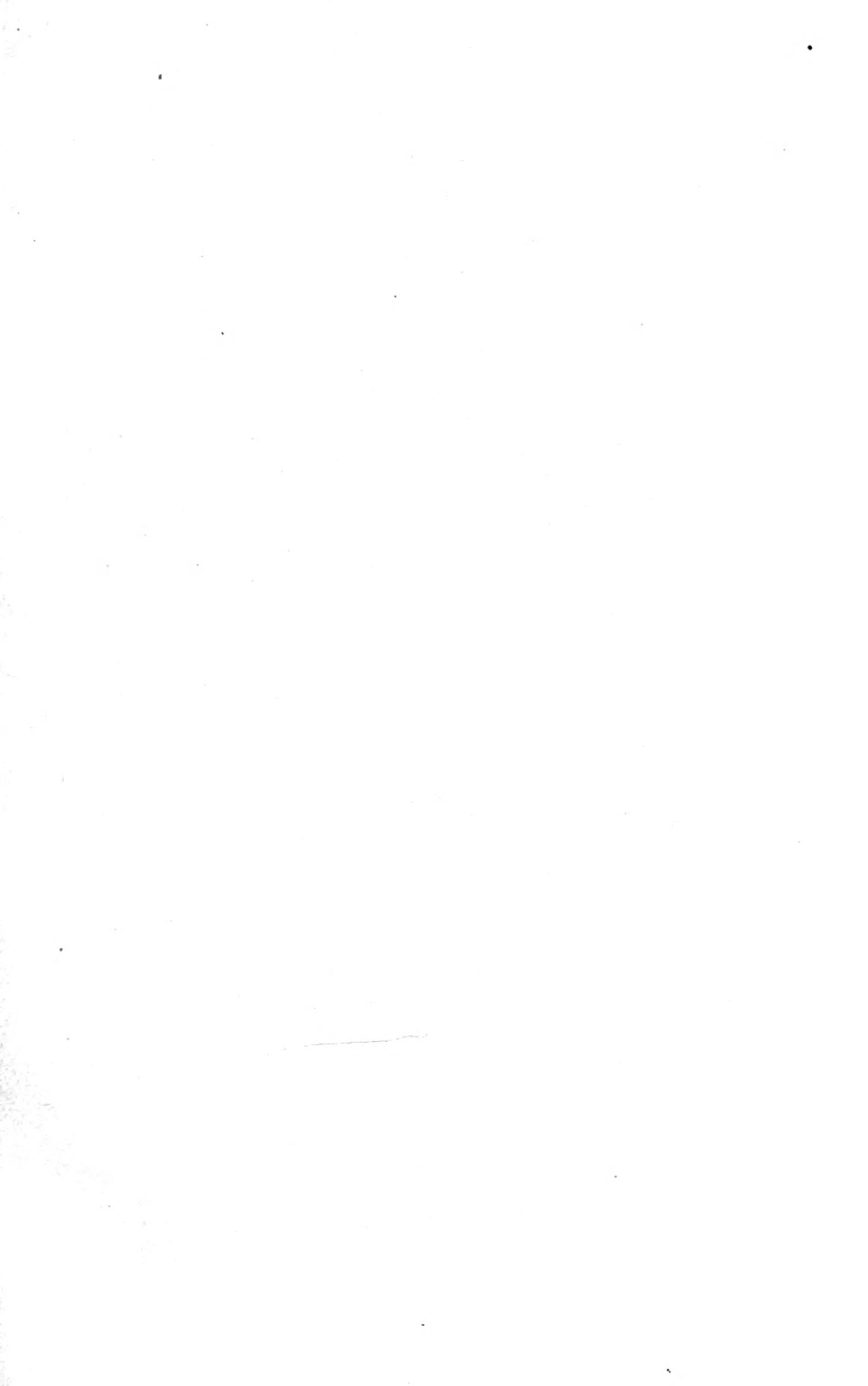


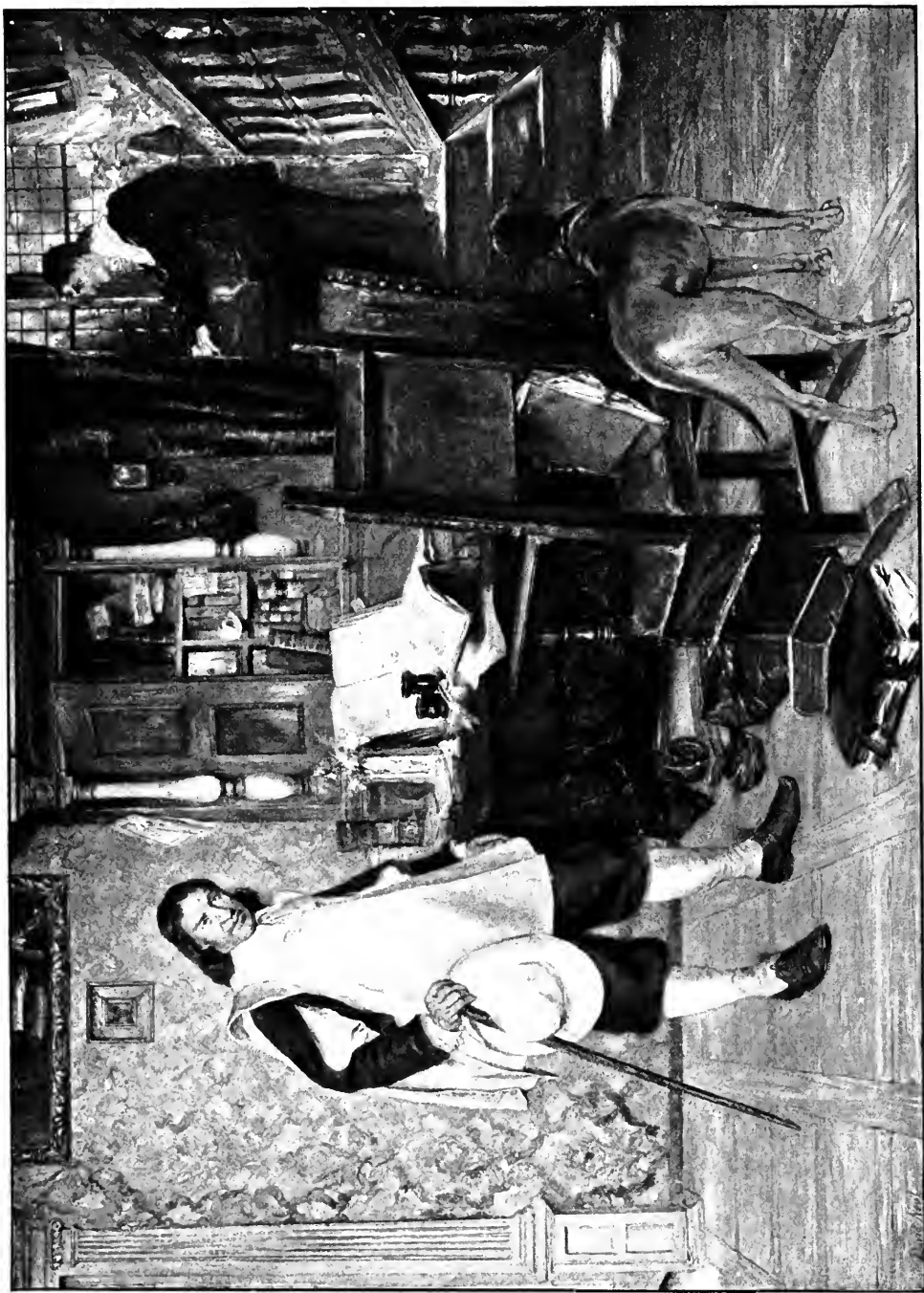


Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2007 with funding from
Microsoft Corporation

PCSE LIBRARY

X-16240





CROMWELL'S VISIT TO MILTON

From the Painting by David Neal

LIBRARY of UNIVERSAL HISTORY AND POPULAR SCIENCE

CONTAINING

A RECORD OF THE HUMAN RACE FROM THE
EARLIEST HISTORICAL PERIOD TO THE PRESENT TIME;
EMBRACING A GENERAL SURVEY OF THE PROGRESS OF MANKIND
IN NATIONAL AND SOCIAL LIFE, CIVIL GOVERNMENT,
RELIGION, LITERATURE, SCIENCE AND ART

Complete in Twenty-five Volumes

THE TEXT SUPPLEMENTED AND EMBELLISHED BY MORE THAN SEVEN HUNDRED
PORTRAITS AND OTHER ILLUSTRATIONS, MAPS AND CHARTS

INTRODUCTION BY
HUBERT HOWE BANCROFT
HISTORIAN

GEORGE EDWIN RINES
MANAGING EDITOR

*Reviewed and Endorsed by Fifteen Professors in History and Educators in
American Universities, among whom are the following:*

GEORGE EMORY FELLOWS, Ph.D.,
LL.D.

President, University of Maine

KEMP PLUMMER BATTLE, A.M.,
LL.D.

Professor of History, University of North Carolina

AMBROSE P. WINSTON, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor of Economics, Washington Uni-
versity

WILLIAM R. PERKINS
Professor of History, University of Iowa

REV. GEO. M. GRANT, D.D.
Late Principal of Queen's University, Kingston,
Ontario, Canada

MOSES COIT TYLER, A.M., Ph.D.
Late Professor of American History, Cornell Uni-
versity

ELISHA BENJAMIN ANDREWS, LL.D.,
D.D.

Chancellor, University of Nebraska

WILLIAM TORREY HARRIS, Ph.D.,
LL.D.

Formerly United States Commissioner of Education

JOHN HANSON THOMAS McPHER-
SON, Ph.D.

Professor of History, University of Georgia
RICHARD HEATH DABNEY, A.M.,
Ph.D.

Professor of History, University of Virginia

NEW YORK AND CHICAGO

THE BANCROFT SOCIETY

1910

COPYRIGHT, 1908, BY
GEORGE EDWIN RINES.

CONTENTS OF VOLUME IX.

MODERN HISTORY.—CONTINUED.

CHAPTER XXXIV.—REVOLUTIONS IN ENGLAND.

Section	I.—The First Two Stuarts and Parliament.....	2811
Section	II.—Civil War and Fall of Monarchy.....	2840
Section	III.—The Commonwealth and the Protectorate.....	2852
Section	IV.—Stuart Restoration and Revolution of 1688.....	2869
Section	V.—England's First Years of Government by the People....	2907
Section	VI.—England's North American Colonies.....	2931

CHAPTER XXXV.—FRANCE AND THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV.

Section	I.—First Two Bourbons and Cardinal Richelieu.....	2953
Section	II.—Anne of Austria and Cardinal Mazarin.....	2970
Section	III.—Louis XIV. and His War with Spain.....	2979
Section	IV.—War of Louis XIV. with Holland and Her Allies.....	2983
Section	V.—Louis XIV. and Persecution of the Huguenots.....	2990
Section	VI.—War of Louis XIV. with the Grand Alliance.....	2994
Section	VII.—War of the Spanish Succession.....	3001
Section	VIII.—French Colonies in North America.....	3017
Section	IX.—Spain and Portugal in the Seventeenth Century.....	3019
Section	X.—Seventeenth Century Civilization.....	3024

CHAPTER XXXVI.—STATES—SYSTEM IN NORTH AND EAST.

Section	I.—Wars of Denmark, Sweden and Brandenburg.....	3031
Section	II.—Poland's Dissensions and Decline.....	3038
Section	III.—First Czars and Earlier Romanoffs in Russia.....	3045
Section	IV.—Turkey's Wars with Germany and Her Allies.....	3056
Section	V.—The Great Northern War.....	3065



Longitude West from Greenwich 4

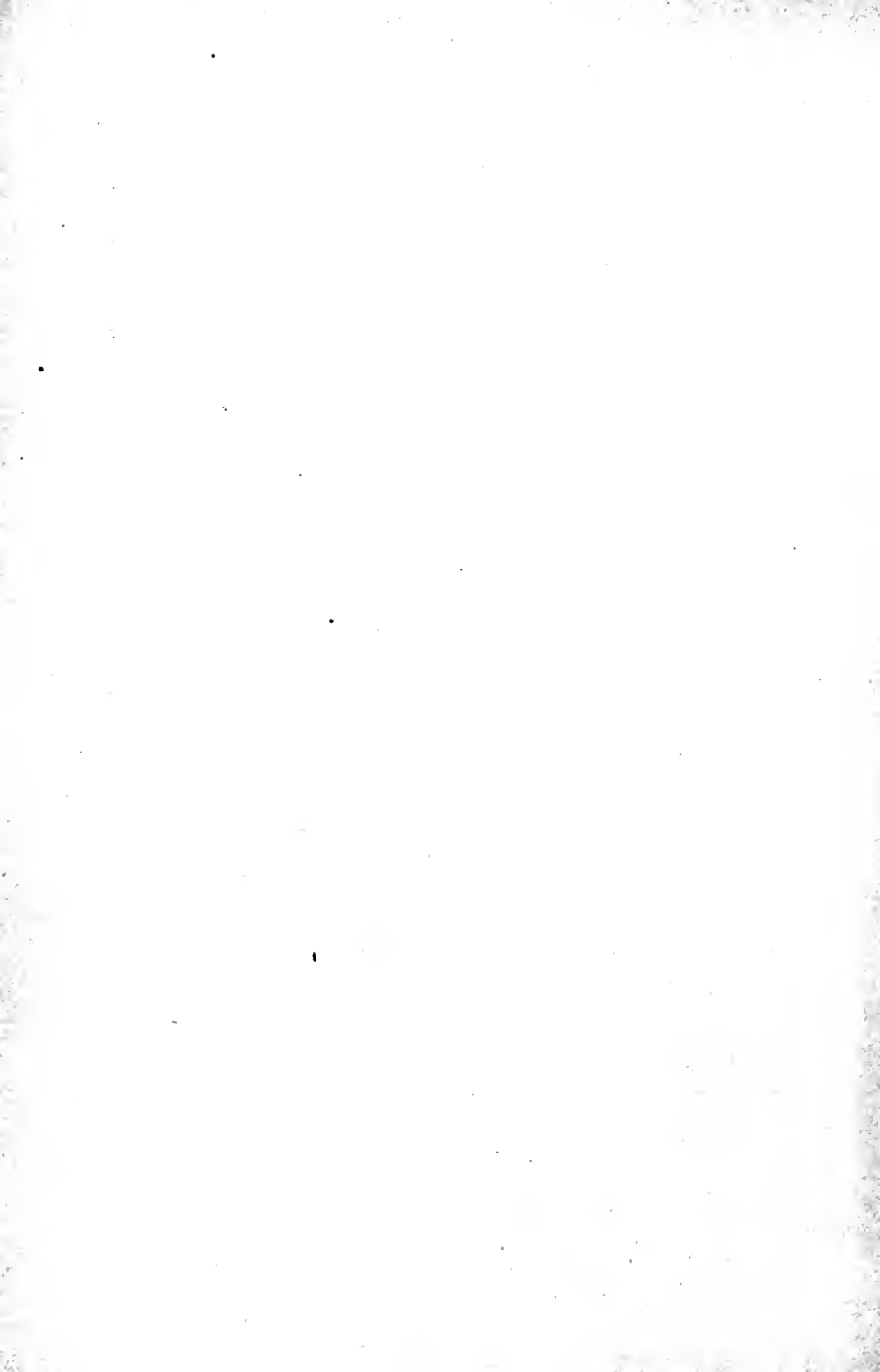




Longitude West from Greenwich

4

8



CHAPTER XXXIV.

REVOLUTIONS IN ENGLAND.

SECTION I.—THE FIRST TWO STUARTS AND PARLIAMENT (A. D. 1603–1642).

As we have seen, the Tudor dynasty, which had worn the crown of England for one hundred and eighteen years (A. D. 1485–1603), ended with the death of Queen Elizabeth, in 1603, when the Stuart family ascended the English throne in the person of King James VI. of Scotland, who now became JAMES I. of England. Thenceforth the crowns of England and Scotland were united, but each kingdom had its own Parliament until 1707, when a constitutional, or legislative union took place.

**Stuart
Dynasty.**

**James I.,
A. D.
1603–
1625.**

The union of England and Scotland under one sovereign put an end to the hostility that had existed between them for centuries. James I. warmly advocated the adoption of measures to strengthen this union. The two kingdoms were, however, still separate, each managing its internal affairs in its own way. The English Parliament refused to adopt the king's policy, ascribing it to his partiality for his Scottish subjects and his desire to benefit them, regardless of English interests.

**Union of
English
and
Scotch
Crowns.**

James I. was a vain, bigoted and pedantic prince. He was in the possession of much theological learning, and delighted to engage in controversies on religious subjects. He loved to make a display of his wisdom and knowledge in lengthy harangues. James was also ambitious of the reputation of being a great author, and he wrote many books. He was plain in person, awkward in manner and addicted to drunkenness. He was one of the most puerile and the most presumptuous of English sovereigns.

**Character
of
James I.**

His pedantic display of his learning caused Henry IV. of France to call him "the wisest fool in Christendom." His unpopularity was fully demonstrated by the fact that his peculiarities of person and character were publicly caricatured in the London theaters, to the indescribable enjoyment of the people. The public contempt for his

**His
Unpopu-
larity.**

meanness was surpassed only by the public resentment at his usurpations.

**His
Defects.**

James I. lacked the shrewdness and decision essential in a sovereign. He was so extreme a lover of peace as to sacrifice the honor and dignity of his kingdom, for the sake of living on friendly terms with foreign governments. One of the faults of James was his lavishness of favors to unworthy persons.

**"Divine
Right of
Kings."**

James I. was a firm believer in "the divine right of kings." He believed that his authority was derived directly from God and that his power was unlimited. As "the Lord's Anointed," he frankly declared in the Star Chamber: "As it is atheism and blasphemy to dispute what God can do, so it is high contempt in a subject to dispute what a king can do, or to say that the king can not do this or that."

**James I.
and the
Episcopal
Church.**

For this reason he hated the Presbyterian Church of Scotland, which made the king only a common member of the congregation; but he was zealously attached to the Episcopal Church of England, in which the monarch was considered the head and origin of all spiritual power; and the great object of James was the suppression of Puritanism in England and Presbyterianism in Scotland, and the full establishment of Episcopacy as the only form of religion throughout his dominions.

**Lady
Arabella
Stuart.**

The quiet of King James' reign was soon disturbed by a conspiracy to place Lady Arabella Stuart, his first cousin, on the throne of England; but the design of the conspirators was easily frustrated. Sir Walter Raleigh, who was accused of complicity in the plot in favor of Lady Arabella, and tried and convicted on slight evidence, was held in imprisonment for twelve years, during which he wrote his *History of the World*.

**James I.
and the
Catholics
and
Puritans.**

Before James I. had reached London he had been approached by Catholics and Puritans; the Catholics basing their hopes on his promise of toleration to obtain Catholic support, and the Puritans expecting much from his Puritan education; but both were doomed to disappointment. As an avowed Episcopalian, and as the Head of the State Church of England, he soon began to execute the laws against the Nonconformists more rigorously than Elizabeth had done.

**Catholic
Capita-
tion Tax.**

No sooner was James I. seated on the English throne than he forgot his promises of toleration to the English Roman Catholics, and followed the example of Queen Elizabeth in making them pay an oppressive capitation tax, that he might enrich his favorites and defray the expenses of his court festivals. This aroused the indignation of the Catholics, some of whom, at the instigation of Robert Catesby, resolved upon a conspiracy to blow up the Parliament House with gunpowder, at a time when the king, the Lords and the Commons would be assembled there, and thus destroy the government of England.

**Gun-
power
Plot.**

The conspirators hired the cellar under the House of Lords ostensibly for business purposes. Lord Mounteagle, a Catholic, received an anonymous letter November 4, 1605, warning him to stay away from Parliament. He showed the letter to Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, and the Parliament House was at once examined. Thirty-six barrels of gunpowder were found concealed under a pile of wood and fagots; and Guy Fawkes, the keeper of the cellar, was detected in preparing slow matches for the explosion on the morrow. Guy Fawkes was seized and executed, and his fellow-conspirators were ferreted out and put to death. This conspiracy is known as the *Gunpowder Plot*.

Its Discovery.

Seizure of Guy Fawkes.

In consequence of this dangerous conspiracy, the English Roman Catholics were heavily fined, and compelled to take an oath of allegiance to the king, renouncing the Pope's right to excommunicate sovereigns or to absolve subjects from their allegiance, as well as the doctrine that excommunicated sovereigns might be deposed or murdered by their subjects or others. Some of the Catholics took the oath. Others refused to do so, at the Pope's bidding. The 5th of November, or *Pope's Day*, has ever since been observed in England as a holiday, one of the performances being the burning of Guy Fawkes in effigy.

Oath Exacted from Catholics.

Pope's Day.

James I. was especially arbitrary in matters of religion. The great mass of the English nation had by this time become Puritan; and, while belonging to the Established Church, they disapproved of many ceremonies which had been retained in the Church service, and desired a return to the simple usages described in the New Testament, as well as a more stringent observance of the Sabbath and a more serious tone of manners. But the king rejected the petition of eight hundred clergymen to these ends; and insulted the Puritan divines whom he had invited to Hampton Court, by a frivolous display of his learning, and by brutal expressions of contempt for their grave remonstrances.

James's Attitude toward the Puritans.

The hope that the convention of Episcopal and Puritan divines, which James I. had called in 1604 to discuss the religious question, would harmonize the conflicting religious sects was not realized. The king, who had been the most prominent speaker in behalf of the State Church, was angry at the obstinacy of the Puritans, who failed to be convinced by his arguments. He endeavored to convert them by a threat when the convention closed, saying: "I will make them conform, or I will harry them out of the land." The persecutions which followed obliged multitudes of English subjects to seek an asylum in foreign lands.

His Failure to Convince Them.

The only important result of the convention of Episcopal and Puritan divines, summoned by the king in 1604, was the issue of a new English translation of the Bible in 1611, known as *King James's Version*.

King James's Version of the Bible.

sion, the one which is still used by most Protestants among English-speaking nations, and which was revised by a body of British and American divines in 1881. Fifty-four learned English divines were occupied three year in the preparation of King James's Bible.

Puritan
Colony of
Plymouth
in New
England.

The Separatists, or Independents, differed from the more moderate Puritans in withdrawing entirely from the Established Church. One congregation, under the Rev. John Robinson, expecting no indulgence at home, emigrated to Holland—that vigorous little republic which had just won its freedom from the iron hand of despotic Spain, and which now offered an asylum to the oppressed of all lands. But the Pilgrim Fathers, being English at heart, desired to live under English laws and to educate their children in the English language. They therefore returned to their native land and embarked in the *Mayflower* for the wilds of America. They finally landed at Plymouth Rock, December 21, 1620, and laid the foundations of a free state in New England. Puritan emigration flowed there for some years. The moral strength of these Puritan colonists entered largely into the character of New England.

English
Colony of
James-
town in
Virginia.

The Puritan colonists of New England differed entirely from the idle and dissolute adventurers and gold seekers who founded Jamestown in Virginia in 1607, and who, having come to the New World to repair their ruined fortunes, were saved from starvation only by the energy and good sense of Captain John Smith, who insisted that “nothing was to be expected but by labor.” This settlement began to flourish only when “men fell to building houses and planting corn.” These settlements were made in the respective territories of the Plymouth and London Companies, chartered by King James I. in 1606. A full account of these English colonies in North America will be given in a separate section.

Plots and
Flight
of Irish
Chiefs.

Confisca-
tions of
Ulster
Estates.

The reign of James I. was an era of colonization, not only in America, but also in the North of Ireland, which had been desolated by Tyrone's Rebellion. In the first few years of the reign of James I. the Earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, the most powerful chieftains in the North of Ireland, were accused of plotting to overthrow English authority in that kingdom. They saved themselves by flight, and were attainted of treason and outlawed. In 1608 O'Dogherty, an Irish chief of great influence, rebelled, and his estates were declared forfeited. As a result of these unsuccessful plots and rebellions, most of the province of Ulster was confiscated to the English crown.

Scotch
Presby-
terians in
Ulster.

Thereupon King James I. disposed of the lands of that part of Ireland to English and Scotch settlers, who so improved it that it soon became the most flourishing portion of the Emerald Isle. The Scotch settlers of Ulster were Presbyterians; and their descendants,

sometimes called *Scotch-Irish*, are the most prosperous and contented of the population of Erin. Leinster was also colonized by English and Scotch settlers with the same success.

But, notwithstanding the material improvement of Ireland, a deep injury was inflicted upon the country. The native Irish proprietors were driven from their homes and lands in numerous instances to make room for the English and Scotch settlers, thus implanting in the hearts of the Irish people a sense of injustice which Great Britain has not yet eradicated.

English
and
Scotch
Settlers
in
Ireland.

The English East-India Company, which was chartered by Queen Elizabeth, December 31, 1600—the last day of the sixteenth century—had its charter renewed, and erected its first factory at Surat, on the western coast of Hindoostan, in 1612.

English
East
India
Company.

King James's idea of the "divine right of kings" was the keynote to the royal policy in Church and State. When Parliament assembled in 1604 the House of Commons was largely Puritan, and its temper concerning the principles of absolutism which the king endeavored to enforce is clearly seen in its action. The Commons petitioned for a redress of grievances in matters of religion. The king's decided rejection of this petition encountered as decided a protest on the part of the Commons in these words: "Let Your Majesty be pleased to receive public information from your Commons in Parliament, as well of the abuses in the Church as in the civil State. Your Majesty would be misinformed if any man should deliver that the Kings of England have any absolute power in themselves, either to alter religion or to make any laws concerning the same, otherwise than as in temporal causes, by consent of Parliament."

James I.
and Par-
liament.

Petition
and
Protest
of the
Com-
mons.

King James I. claimed absolute control over the liberties of the English people. In 1604 a controversy arose between him and the House of Commons concerning the claim by that body of the sole right to judge of the elections of its members. The king insisted upon the right to command the Commons to accept his decision, but the House maintained its privileges. A compromise suggested by the king obviated a more serious misunderstanding.

Contro-
versy
between
King and
Com-
mons.

King James I. levied a tax on all exports and imports, and procured a judicial decision sustaining its legality. The House of Commons then petitioned for a redress of grievances in matters of state. The king's refusal to grant this petition called forth another protest from the Commons, and a prayer that a law be made to declare "that all impositions set upon your people, their goods or merchandise, save only by common consent in Parliament, are and shall be void." The king promptly dissolved Parliament, but his necessities obliged him to summon another.

Another
Petition
and
Protest
of the
Com-
mons.

A New House of Commons and Its Dissolution.

The questions which divided the king and Parliament became the issue before the English people in the election of a new House of Commons. The new Parliament was decidedly more antagonistic to the royal policy than its predecessor had been; as it refused to vote a grant of supplies except on condition that the king grant a redress of grievances, particularly that of illegal imposts. The angry king displayed his obstinacy and folly by again dissolving Parliament.

James I. and Lord Chief Justice Coke.

The English people resisted the king's illegal levy of customs, and public sentiment was sustained by the decisions of the courts. The indignant king sent for the judges and abused them into promising to submit to his will. But the Lord Chief Justice, Sir Edward Coke, a man of numerous faults, but who would not aid the king in trampling the laws of England under foot, declared that he would decide the cases which came before him as a just judge should. James I. at once dismissed Sir Edward Coke from the royal council; and, as the honest judge adhered to his determination, the king also removed him from the office of Lord Chief Justice in 1615. All classes of the English people regarded this act of the king with horror and resentment, as they considered it the announcement of his intention to tamper with the course of justice.

The King's Absolute Rule and Extortion.

The breach between the English people and their king was widened by seven years of absolute rule, seven years of extortion. The king continued the illegal imposts; revived the odious *benevolences*; practiced the equally odious system of *purveyance*, regardless of law; renewed the sale of monopolies, and the obsolete system of royal wardship giving to the king during the minority of the heir the incomes of the estates held under military tenure; and sold patents of nobility so freely that at the time of his death one-half of the Peers of England were those which he had created.

The Royal Right of Purveyance.

The royal right of purveyance was an old prerogative of the English crown by which the king had the preference over all others in the purchase of supplies. He could take the supplies at an appraised value, even without the owner's consent. The royal officers frequently practiced great injustice, as the right of purveyance became a system of royal robbery under some of the English kings. An effort to regulate it was made in Magna Charta, and also by repeated Parliamentary enactments during succeeding reigns. Charles II. finally relinquished the right for a compensation.

Revenue Wasted.

The money which King James I. wrung from his subjects by his illegal measures was wasted on his corrupt courtiers, thus exciting the indignation and disgust of the English people.

Royal Favorites.

The king exhibited his weakness in the choice of his personal favorites, who were generally unworthy persons, and who were entrusted

with the highest and most responsible stations in the government. Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, during his lifetime managed to retain his influence over King James I.; but after that nobleman's death the king surrendered himself entirely to his favorites.

Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury.

The first of these was Robert Carr, a handsome but ignorant Scottish youth, whom the king created Earl of Somerset, and to whom he gave lessons daily in Latin and in "kingcraft." The royal favorite desired to marry the Countess of Essex; but was advised by his friend, Sir Thomas Overbury, not to do so. The countess was so irritated at this that she persuaded the Earl of Somerset to have Sir Thomas Overbury imprisoned in the Tower, where he was poisoned soon afterward. The Earl of Somerset and the Countess of Essex, who had contrived the murder, were then married; but the crime threw the earl into such a state of remorse and melancholy as to spoil his graceful gayety and make him so dull a companion that the king became weary of him. The guilt of the earl and his wife was discovered afterward. They and all who had been accessory to the murder were tried and convicted. Their accomplices were executed, but the earl and his wife were only banished. They lived many years, dragging out a most miserable life; as their former love, which had led them to murder, was changed to the most deadly hatred.

Robert Carr, Earl of Somerset, and the Countess of Essex.

Their Crime and Its Result.

King James I. in the meantime had found a new favorite in George Villiers, whom the king raised by successive promotions to the exalted rank of Duke of Buckingham, also creating him Prime Minister. This haughty favorite, who had an unbounded influence over the king, displayed himself in Parliament, his velvet dress glittering with diamonds, openly parading the wealth which he had acquired by the acceptance of enormous bribes. The only way by which even men of the highest rank could secure the king's favor, obtain and retain public office, or even come into the king's presence, was to bribe this handsome but corrupt royal favorite and Prime Minister.

George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham.

The foreign policy of James I. was no more satisfactory to the English people than was his management of the domestic affairs of the kingdom. The great Thirty Years' War which broke out in Germany in 1618 eventually involved most of the great powers of Europe. It was supposed that James I. would at least give his moral support to the Protestant cause in Germany, especially as his daughter Elizabeth was the wife of the Elector-Palatine, Frederick V., whom the Protestant Bohemians had chosen for their king, in opposition to the Austrian Ferdinand II., who was also Emperor of Germany.

James I. and the Elector-Palatine, Frederick V.

The English Parliament would have willingly voted funds to support the Protestant interest in Germany, but King James I. had more regard for the "divine right" of the Austrian despot than for the

**James I.
and the
Bohemian
Protest-
ants.**

rights and liberties of the Bohemian Protestants. He consented to aid his son-in-law to maintain his hereditary dominions, the Palatinate, but not to secure possession of Bohemia. The sympathies of England's Protestant king were wholly with Catholic Austria and Catholic Spain against the German Protestants.

**James's
Friend-
ship for
Spain.**

The English people had a most implacable hatred for Spain; and after the death of Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, the king deliberately antagonized this sentiment of his subjects. He began to cultivate friendly relations with Spain, and commenced negotiations for the marriage of his son, Prince Charles, with a Spanish princess. The war party in England loudly demanded that war be declared against Spain, in the interest of the German Protestants; but James I. treated this demand with contempt, and became more intimate with Spain, England's most inveterate enemy.

**Raleigh's
Expedi-
tion to
Spanish
America.**

For the purpose of inducing Spain to declare war against England, the English war party had caused an expedition to be prepared against the Spanish colony of Guiana, in South America, and induced the king to release Sir Walter Raleigh in 1616, that he might lead this expedition for the purpose of finding a gold mine of which he knew and which might enrich the king and his courtiers. The king, however, only released Raleigh without pardoning him of the crime of complicity in the plot to place Lady Arabella Stuart on the English throne.

**His
Defeat
and
Loss.**

King James I. allowed the expedition to sail for Guiana, but treacherously informed the Spaniards of it. Raleigh was defeated with the loss of his eldest son and his entire fortune. On his return voyage Raleigh attempted to seize the Spanish treasure galleons, for the purpose of forcing Spain to declare war against England. To appease the clamors of the Spanish government, King James I. consented to sacrifice Raleigh; and that distinguished personage was beheaded October 29, 1618, on the sentence for high treason which the king had kept hanging over his head for fourteen years.

**His Exe-
cution.**

**His For-
titude.**

Raleigh met death with manliness and dignity. He desired to see the ax, and felt the edge of it, remarking to the sheriff: "This is a sharp medicine, but a sure remedy for all evils." This cruel act is an indelible stain upon the character of James I., and at the time aroused great popular indignation. Sir Walter Raleigh had introduced potatoes into England from South America, and tobacco from the West Indies.

**Popular
Indigna-
tion.**

**James I.
and His
Con-
tinued
Partiality
for Spain.**

The English people and even the courtiers of James I. vainly appealed to the king to strike a blow in behalf of German Protestantism. Although the interests of his religion and the welfare of his son-in-law demanded his intervention, he steadfastly refused to prevent Spain from engaging in the struggle in Germany. He believed that

the Spanish king's friendship for himself would induce him at his request to relinquish his designs upon the Palatinate; but he was freed from this delusion when the Spanish army invaded and subdued his son-in-law's hereditary dominions, after that prince's expulsion from Bohemia.

James I. was frightened by the burst of fury which broke forth from the English nation, and he was also angry for the moment at being duped so easily by Spain, so that he permitted a national subscription to provide funds to enable the Elector-Palatine to raise an army for his defense, and summoned a Parliament, which he opened with a speech which led his subjects to hope that he would at least act as a Protestant king should.

**His
Partial
Submis-
sion to
Public
Senti-
ment.**

James I. did obtain a cessation of hostilities for a single summer by threatening to make war on Spain if she continued her attack upon the Palatinate; but, when the Catholic League of Germany had effected the conquest of the Upper Palatinate, he entered into the same friendly relations with Philip IV. of Spain that he had cultivated with Philip III., leaving his son-in-law to his fate. During the remaining few years of his reign he abstained from intervention in favor of the Protestants of Continental Europe, giving the benefit of his friendship to Spain, being influenced thereto by his eagerness to secure a Spanish bride for his son.

**His
Renewed
Friend-
ship for
Spain.**

In the meantime the general demand of the English people for another Parliament forced the king to issue writs for a new election; and the Parliament of 1621 was the most famous of his reign, in consequence of the boldness with which it resisted the king's unlawful assumptions and attacked abuses and corruption.

**Boldness
of the
New Par-
liament.**

This Parliament reasserted a privilege which had long fallen into disuse, by impeaching the Lord Chancellor, Lord Bacon, the greatest philosopher of England and one of the greatest of all time, on the charge of having accepted bribes and for other corrupt practices—an intolerable stain on the honor of his exalted station and of the English nation. He was dismissed from his high office with ignominy, and also condemned to pay a fine of forty thousand pounds, to imprisonment in the Tower and to perpetual exclusion from office. The king soon remitted his fine and imprisonment, but the stigma could never be removed from a name which otherwise would have shone as one of the brightest in English history. James I. would have stopped Bacon's impeachment as an attack upon the crown itself had not the Lord Chancellor incurred the hostility of the Duke of Buckingham, who induced the king to leave Bacon to his fate.

**Impeach-
ment,
Dis-
missal,
Fine and
Imprison-
ment
of Lord
Bacon.**

This Parliament then appealed to King James I. to aid the German Protestants, to make war on Spain instead of a treaty of alliance

Parliament Demands War with Spain.

with that power, and to secure a Protestant instead of a Catholic bride for the Prince of Wales. As the committee which the House of Commons sent to communicate their demands to the king was announced to His Majesty, he uttered the following ironical order: "Bring stools for the ambassadors."

James's Insolent Commands.

The boldness of the Commons offended the king, who forbade any further discussion of the affairs of state. He sharply told them that all their rights and powers were derived from himself and from the gracious permission of his ancestors, and that he would maintain their lawful liberties so long only as they kept within the bounds of their duty.

Manly Protest of the Commons.

When the king's commands were repeated by the committee on its return to the House, a member of the Commons said: "Let us pray, and then consider of this great business." The representatives of the English people replied to the king's insolent commands and assumptions in the following resolution: "The liberties, franchises, privileges and jurisdictions of Parliament are the ancient and undoubted birthright and inheritance of the subjects of England."

Record Torn out and Parliament Dissolved.

The king sent for the journals of the House of Commons, and with his own hand tore out the leaves containing the manly protest, after which he dissolved Parliament in great wrath; but within two years his necessities forced him to call for the election of a new Parliament. Although James I. might destroy the records of Parliament, he could not extinguish the spirit of liberty enkindled afresh in the hearts of the patriot Commons and of the English people whom they represented. It was a very fortunate circumstance for the cause of English constitutional freedom that the extravagant government of James I. squandered more money even in peace than that of Elizabeth had ever expended in war; as his necessities threw him into growing dependence upon Parliament.

Royal Extravagance and Necessities.

Death of Prince Henry.

Prince Henry, the king's eldest son, died in 1612, to the great grief of the English nation, which thus experienced a great loss, as the dignity and orderly virtue of the prince's little court was a silent rebuke to the corrupt and extravagant royal household. "Baby Charles," the king's remaining son, then became the heir to the crowns of England and Scotland.

Proposed Marriage of Prince Charles with the Spanish Infanta.

Notwithstanding the deep public feeling and the long cherished policy of England, James I. resolved to secure the marriage of his son to a Spanish Infanta, thus disregarding the remonstrances of Parliament and of all his nobles and counselors except the Duke of Buckingham. To please Spain, he refused to aid the German Protestants, thus allowing the struggle for Bohemia to grow into the great Thirty Years' War, while he suspended all the laws against the Roman

Catholics at home. King Philip IV. of Spain was in favor of the marriage, but resolved to profit by the eagerness of James I. and make him pay dearly for the match.

In 1623 Prince Charles and the Duke of Buckingham undertook a romantic journey into Spain to see the Infanta and complete the marriage contract. When they arrived at Madrid they were treated with great respect by King Philip IV.; but the insolent manners of the Duke of Buckingham offended the haughty Spaniards; and, as he perceived that he would not find any favor from a Spanish queen when Prince Charles became King of England, he used his great influence against the match, thus breaking off the negotiations with the Spanish court. This result was celebrated in England with bonfires and unbounded rejoicings. Prince Charles was affianced to Henrietta Maria, sister of King Louis XIII. of France; but before the marriage was consummated King James I. died of the ague, March 27, 1625. It was during the reign of James I. that Shakespeare died, A. D. 1616.

CHARLES I., the son and successor of James I., was in his twenty-fifth year when he became King of England and Scotland. He had been very popular with all classes before his accession, and the English people had hoped for much by the change of sovereigns. Charles I. was a remarkably handsome man, with a body of middle stature, of great natural vigor and finely proportioned. He was gracious and dignified in his bearing, and "of a sweet but melancholy aspect." He excelled in horsemanship and manly sports, and was endowed with many of the qualities of an excellent sovereign.

Charles I. was unsurpassed in domestic virtue by any sovereign that has reigned over England. He showed a good example to his courtiers and subjects in the morality and regularity of his conduct. He was moderate in all his habits and expenses, refined in his manners, humane and gentle in his disposition, kind and affectionate by nature, and a most tender husband and father. He was hasty in temper, but generous and forgiving. He had great taste for art and literature, and his mind was highly cultivated. He had extraordinary talents for reasoning and argument; but, on account of his indecision of character, he seldom acted as wisely as he could talk, and was frequently swayed by the counsels of men of inferior capacity.

But unfortunately for King Charles I., he had imbibed his father's ideas of absolute power; and he ascended the thrones of England and Scotland with the resolute determination to make himself the absolute master of his subjects. He considered himself superior to the laws of the realm, and looked upon every effort to restrict his power within the limits of the English Constitution as downright treason to the crown. Ascending the English throne with such ideas of the "divine

**Fruitless
Nuptial
Journey
of Prince
Charles
to Spain.**

**Death of
James I.**

**Charles
I., A. D.
1625-
1649.**

**His
Physical
Traits.**

**His
Char-
acter.**

**His
Doctrine
of the
"Divine
Right of
Kings."**

right of kings," at the most critical period of England's history, he was not likely to reform the evils from which England had suffered so long.

**His
Falsity
and In-
sincerity.**

Charles's fatal defect as a king was his falsity of character, which canceled the most solemn engagements and deprived him of all claims to confidence. It may have been his misfortune, rather than his crime, that he was unable to believe in the wisdom or even in the honesty of any theory of government but his own, or to perceive that his throne could never be firm and stable until it was "broad-based upon the people's will."

**His
Marriage
with the
Princess
Henrietta
Maria of
France.**

A few weeks after his accession, Charles I. married the Princess Henrietta Maria, daughter of the murdered Henry IV. of France, to whom he had been betrothed during the latter part of his father's reign, as we have already noticed. This royal marriage was not pleasing to the English people, as the new queen was a Roman Catholic. A retinue of priests of her own religious faith accompanied her to England, and these priests undertook to interfere in the affairs of the English court to such an extent that numberless quarrels resulted therefrom.

**The New
Queen's
Unpopu-
lar Act.**

These priests induced the queen to make a pilgrimage to Tyburn, the place for the hanging of the lowest malefactors, and where some Roman Catholics had been executed during the reign of Henry VIII. This proceeding excited such intense popular indignation in England that the queen's French attendants were sent back to their own country. The French court submitted an apology for their conduct, and the queen was permitted to have a Roman Catholic bishop and twelve Roman Catholics priests attached to her household.

**Constitu-
tional
Liberty
Dormant.**

Little had been heard of constitutional liberty in England during the entire period that the Tudor dynasty occupied the English throne—a result consequent upon the destruction of the mediæval baronage of England in the Wars of the Roses. As we have now come to the threshold of a renewal of the struggle for English constitutional liberty, a brief retrospect will render the course of events upon which we are now about to enter more intelligible.

**Absolute
Royal
Power.**

Mediæval civilization in Europe was based on the Feudal System; and in England both went down in the Wars of the Roses, along with the proud baronage founded by the Norman Conqueror. The Wars of the Roses reduced England to the verge of anarchy; and a stable throne was the only power that saved the country, or that was able to save it, from total anarchy. All parties and classes of Englishmen therefore turned to the throne with the instinct of self-preservation.

**The
Classes.**

The new English nobility, the landowners and the moneyed classes, remembering the communistic and leveling doctrines of John Ball and

the leaders of Wat Tyler's Rebellion, looked to the throne for protection from another peasant revolt.

The Roman Catholic Church, conscious of the silent but vigorous growth of the ideas implanted by Wycliffe, turned to the throne to save it from another reformation.

Catholic
Church.

The English masses, having suffered from the evils of a disputed succession, were ready to welcome any dynasty with sufficient strength to save them from the horrors of another civil war.

The
Masses.

The House of Commons—that great hope of the English nation during the reigns of the Plantagenets—had degenerated into a mere appendage of the crown, in consequence of a sweeping restriction of the elective franchise and a wholesale corruption in the election of its members; and under some of the Tudor sovereigns it had become the great instrument of royal oppression.

Degen-
eracy
of the
House of
Com-
mons.

During the Tudor period the English sovereigns gradually came into possession of all the powers of Church and State, thus making themselves absolute monarchs. It was natural that the sovereign should become arbitrary. It was not strange or unnatural that he should grow despotic.

Absolute
Rule
of the
Tudors.

But, even in the very midst of this absolute rule, silent forces were sapping the foundations of this absolutism; and these forces were destined to effect the overthrow of this absolute royal power in the course of human events. The invention of the art of printing tended to a general diffusion of knowledge and a consequent elevation of the masses. An enlightened public sentiment concerning the relation of sovereign and subject, that was far in advance of the theory and practice of the government, was silently growing up in England. As convictions of the sacredness of human rights grew strong, faith in the doctrine of the "divine right of kings" grew weak. The advocates of that doctrine claimed the Christian Scriptures as their authority, basing their claims upon St. Paul's injunction: "Resist not the powers that be, for they are ordained of God." As the kings were "the powers that be," they claimed that resistance to them was opposition and disobedience to God.

Under-
mining
Forces
at Work.

As we have seen, James I. was a firm believer in the "divine right of kings," and was extremely jealous of any encroachment on the royal prerogative. He was resolved to preserve and extend the absolute power which the Tudors had wielded; and, as we have seen, he was consequently involved in a continual contest with the English Parliament, which was determined to assert its own rights and to uphold the liberties of the English people. Though he repeatedly dissolved Parliaments, the next were always sure to be more obstinate than their predecessors.

James I.
and Par-
liament.

**Charles I.
and Par-
liament.**

It was therefore evident that a collision between king and people was at hand in England during the reign of James I. At his death there was a brief lull in the civil storm that was soon to break over the head of his son and successor. It will always be wondered how Charles I. could be so thoroughly blind to the signs of the times and the spirit of the age that he should not profit by his father's political errors, but that he should obstinately pursue his father's foolish policy.

**Issue
Clearly
Defined.**

The struggle which was soon to hurry England into the throes of revolution was defined very clearly. It was constitutional liberty versus royal prerogative—an oppressed people against a tyrannical king. The English people, whom the crown alone was able to rescue from the robber barons during the reign of Henry II., and whom the patriot barons alone could protect against royal tyranny during the reign of Henry III.—this great English people had finally outgrown dependence on king and baron, and eventually proved stronger than both. This great people thus became the pioneers of modern constitutional freedom against the “divine right of kings.”

**Anti-
Catholic
Feeling.**

At the time of the accession of Charles I. public feeling in England ran high against Roman Catholicism. The Thirty Years' War in Germany, which had commenced in a contest between the Elector-Palatine Frederick V. and Ferdinand II. of Austria for the crown of Bohemia, had, as we have seen, widened into a life-and-death struggle between Roman Catholics and Protestants.

**English
Sym-
pathy
for the
Elector-
Palatine.**

In addition to the sympathy which English Protestants felt for their brethren in Germany, they were naturally interested in behalf of the Elector-Palatine because he was the son-in-law of King James I. Spain having openly taken sides with the Emperor Ferdinand II. and the Catholic cause, England had entered the lists against Spain, in addition to sending a small army to the aid of the Elector-Palatine.

**Charles I.
and the
House of
Commons.**

The war with Spain lagged through the indifference of the Duke of Buckingham, whom Charles I. retained as Prime Minister, and to whose pernicious influence the young king completely surrendered himself. As Charles I. began his reign with an empty exchequer he called upon Parliament for a subsidy; but the House of Commons was now composed of able and patriotic men, who loved their country and who were keenly aware of the perils which menaced her. Said one of these sturdy Commons: “England is the last monarchy who yet retains her liberties. Let them not perish now!”

**The
King's
Arbitrary
Taxation
and Dis-
solution
of Par-
liament.**

Suspicious of the king's intentions and watchful of the liberties of England, the Commons House of Parliament granted the customs called *tonnage* and *poundage* for but one year, instead of for the king's lifetime. Charles I. resented this limitation and refused to accept the vote, and then proceeded to levy the customs on his own authority.

Parliament proceeded to discuss the public grievances, whereupon it was dissolved by the angry king, who had fully resolved to enforce the doctrine of the "divine right of kings." The king's resort to a forced loan afforded but a temporary relief, and aroused the most intense popular indignation. The English people were fully as resolved to assert their rights and liberties as the king was to carry into practice his notions of the royal prerogative.

**Popular
Indigna-
tion.**

An English expedition under the Duke of Buckingham against Cadiz ended in failure, leaving King Charles I. deeply involved in debt. In his necessities the king was obliged to summon a new Parliament. This Parliament convened in 1626; but, instead of voting a grant of supplies to the king, the House of Commons, under the guidance of that fearless patriot, Sir John Eliot, proceeded to impeach the Ministers of the Crown. Charges of corruption against the Duke of Buckingham were carried in the House; and Eliot, in a speech of fiery eloquence, arraigned the royal favorite at the bar of the House of Lords. The angry king sent the sturdy patriot to imprisonment in the Tower. The refusal of the Commons to act on public affairs forced the baffled king to release the patriotic Eliot, but their request for the dismissal of the Duke of Buckingham caused the exasperated king to dissolve this Parliament also.

**The New
Parlia-
ment's
Impeach-
ment of
the Duke
of Buck-
ingham.**

**Sir John
Eliot.**

The illegal taxation, in the form of *benevolences* and forced loans, which the king now resorted to, threw the whole kingdom into a ferment and aroused the English people to resistance. Although many of the clergy preached the doctrine of *absolute passive obedience*, men in every part of England refused to give or lend to the king, and the royal commissioners were driven from the towns with cries of "A Parliament! a Parliament! else no subsidies!" Poor men were punished for their refusal by being drafted into the army or navy. Two hundred gentlemen of fortune were imprisoned and finally brought before the Council. Among these was the resolute John Hampden, that sturdy patriot and lover of liberty whose name has ever since been cherished by Englishmen. He declared that he "could be content to lend," but he feared to bring upon himself the curse in Magna Charta against all who violated that solemn compact between king and people. He was accordingly punished by a still more severe imprisonment.

**Popular
Resist-
ance to
Arbitrary
Taxation.**

**John
Hampden.**

Though Spain and Catholic Germany were now in open hostility to England, and though the war with Spain had resulted in miserable failure, Charles I. had the rashness to rush into a war with France also, at a time when he was utterly penniless and at variance with his subjects. As he had broken the stipulation which had been made between England and France when he became betrothed to the Princess Henrietta Maria, which provided for toleration to the Roman Catholics

**The War
with
Spain
and
France.**

Disas-
trous
English
Naval
Expedi-
tion to
France.

in England, Richelieu and Olivarez, the able Prime Ministers of France and Spain respectively, planned a joint invasion of England. The Duke of Buckingham sought to checkmate this Franco-Spanish scheme of invasion by an attack on France. He sailed from England with a large fleet to the relief of La Rochelle, the Huguenot stronghold, which was then besieged by the French Catholics; but his mismanagement cost him two-thirds of his expedition and accomplished nothing. This second naval disaster of the Duke of Buckingham, more humiliating than that against Cadiz, left King Charles I. still more deeply in debt, thus forcing him to summon another Parliament.

The New
Parlia-
ment.

The English people, now thoroughly aroused to a sense of the danger with which their liberties were threatened, returned a House of Commons more resolute in its hostility to the king than its predecessors. This Parliament of 1628 also demanded a redress of popular grievances as the condition on which it would vote a grant of money. It arrayed its grievances and formulated its demands in a famous document called the *Petition of Right*, A. D. 1628, which has justly been styled "The Second Great Charter of English Liberties." After enumerating the laws of Edward I. and Edward III. which guaranteed the rights of the subject, and complaining that, in addition to arbitrary taxes, imprisonments and executions, large bodies of soldiers and sailors had recently been quartered in private houses, to the great grievance and vexation of the people, the petition closed by "humbly praying His Most Excellent Majesty" for relief from all these grievances, "according to the laws and statutes of this realm."

Petition
of Right.

Parlia-
ment's
Remon-
strance.

The king's refusal to sign this great document was answered by Parliament in another state paper called a "Remonstrance on the State of the Kingdom." The remonstrance was aimed at the Duke of Buckingham; and when that official's name was mentioned the Speaker of the House of Commons forbade any further discussion, saying that he held a royal order against permitting any member to speak against the Ministers of the Crown.

Uproar
in the
House of
Commons.

This direct royal interference with the right of free speech, one of the most unquestioned privileges of the English Parliament, produced a scene in the House of Commons that words fail to describe. The eloquent Sir John Eliot, who was addressing the House, sank into his seat, stunned with amazement. After a few moments of death-like silence, followed by sounds of suppressed excitement, the House was in an uproar. Exclamations of amazement, grief and indignation broke forth from the astounded Commons. Some wept and others prayed. Members took the floor to address the House, and then sank into their seats, overcome with emotion. The venerable Sir Edward Coke finally arose, and in bitter invective denounced the Duke of

Buckingham as the author of all the perils that threatened the liberties of England.

Alarmed by the dangers that menaced his favorite Minister, King Charles I. sought to allay the storm by signing the Petition of Right. But it was too late. The House of Commons had resolved upon the destruction of the Duke of Buckingham, and pressed the "Remonstrance on the State of the Kingdom;" whereupon the king hastily prorogued the House. The public joy at the king's action in signing the Petition of Right was signalized by ringing bells and blazing bonfires, as the English people then thought that royal oppression would be ended.

Royal
Signature
of the
Petition
of Right.

The Duke of Buckingham soon ceased to be an object of anxiety to either the king or the Commons. While preparing to take charge of another expedition to relieve La Rochelle, he was assassinated at Portsmouth, August 23, 1628, by a melancholy and enthusiastic Puritan Irishman named Felton, who had been discharged from the public service. The assassin had followed the obnoxious Prime Minister for several days like a shadow, without being able to effect his purpose. Finally, as the Duke of Buckingham was passing through a doorway, he turned to speak to Sir Thomas Fryer, who was following him, when Felton suddenly reached over Sir Thomas's shoulder and stabbed the duke in the breast with a knife. The duke exclaimed: "The villain has killed me!" He then pulled the knife from his wound and fell dead.

Assassin-
ation
of the
Duke of
Bucking-
ham.

No one had seen the blow or the person who inflicted it; but a hat being picked up, on the inside of which was sewed a paper containing four or five lines of the "Remonstrance on the State of the Kingdom," it was conjectured that the hat belonged to the assassin; and, while those present were conjecturing whose hat it might be, a man without a hat was seen walking very composedly before the door. One of the bystanders cried out: "Here he is!" Others ran up, inquiring: "Which is he?" The man replied very sedately: "I am he!" He disdained denying the murder, but gloried in the act, saying that he had considered the Duke of Buckingham an enemy of his country, and therefore deserving of death. When asked at whose instigation he had murdered the duke he replied that they need not trouble themselves as to that matter, that his conscience alone prompted him to do the deed, and that no man on earth could induce him to act contrary to its dictates. He was tried, condemned and executed, dying with the same degree of constancy. There were many who admired not only his fortitude, but also the deed for which he met death on the scaffold, so fully was the murdered royal favorite detested.

Arrest,
Trial,
Convic-
tion and
Execution
of the
Assassin.

"The King Can Do No Wrong."

An explanation is necessary concerning the persistency with which the House of Commons pursued the Duke of Buckingham even after King Charles I. had assumed the responsibility of all the offenses charged against him. It was then, as it is now, a settled principle of the English monarchy that "the king can do no wrong." In case of wrong doing by the government, the king's Ministers are held responsible; and the only way to coerce or punish the king himself, without the extreme resort of revolution, is the removal or punishment of the Ministers.

Another Uproar in the House of Commons.

The House of Commons, at its next session, in 1629, summoned the collectors of the illegal taxes to its bar. They appeared, but refused to answer, pleading the king's orders. The Speaker, Sir John Finch, was about to adjourn the House, in obedience to a royal order. The House was instantly in an uproar. The Speaker was held down in his chair by some of the members, while others kept the doors locked against the king's messenger until some resolutions offered by Sir John Eliot were passed by acclamation rather than by vote. These resolutions denounced "as a capital enemy of the kingdom any Minister who shall seek to change the established religion or advise the levying of taxes without consent of Parliament." The House then unlocked its doors and allowed itself to be dissolved.

The King's Personal Government.

Upon the occasion of this dissolution, Charles I. announced that he would rule thenceforth without a Parliament. The earnestness of the king's threat was proven by eleven years of personal government, during which Parliament was not once assembled, and which constitute one of the gloomiest periods in English history. Nine of the leaders of the popular party were imprisoned in the Tower, among whom was the illustrious patriot, Sir John Eliot, who died within the walls of that historic state prison.

English Fleet at La Rochelle.

The English fleet arrived before La Rochelle too late to relieve the beleaguered Huguenots, who were forced to surrender that stronghold under the very eyes of their English allies. Poverty soon compelled King Charles I. to make peace with his foreign foes.

New Royal Policy.

After the assassination of the Duke of Buckingham, Charles I. inaugurated a new policy, amounting almost to a change in the Constitution of England. Hitherto the king had chosen his personal favorites, or men whom he considered able statesmen, for his Ministers, regardless of the opinions or wishes of the people.

The King's New Ministers.

Charles I. now selected his chief Ministers from the leaders of the popular party which had opposed the new royal assumptions, thus making it their interest to maintain the power which had made them its representatives. But the king did not derive all the advantages from this policy that he expected; as his views were opposed so directly

to the opinions of the Puritans that the leaders whom he had gained lost all influence with their party from that moment, and were even pursued as traitors with implacable resentment.

The chief of these popular leaders who accepted office under the king was Sir Thomas Wentworth, whom the king raised by successive promotions to the rank of Earl of Strafford, and whom he made his Prime Minister. Wentworth had spoken in favor of popular rights only because of his hatred and jealousy of the Duke of Buckingham; but no sooner had the assassination of that royal favorite made way for his rise into power than he threw off the mask and used his great abilities in building up the power of the crown. The king also raised his new Prime Minister to the dignity of Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. After subduing that restless country, the new Lord Lieutenant raised a fleet and army therefrom to enforce the royal will in England and Scotland. The arbitrary court of the *Star Chamber* had jurisdiction over offenses against the king.

Sir
Thomas
Went-
worth,
Earl of
Strafford.

Charles I. also attempted to establish the Episcopal Church on a firmer basis, and to suppress Puritanism in England and Presbyterianism in Scotland, with the view of checking the rapid growth of republican principles among the English people. For the purpose of accomplishing this end, the king appointed the zealous William Laud, Bishop of London, to the dignity of Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud caused the Cathedral of St. Paul's, in London, to be consecrated anew, and the churches to be supplied with numerous images and ornaments, and imposed upon the Puritans ceremonies and observances hitherto unpracticed by the Church of England.

William
Laud,
Arch-
bishop of
Canter-
bury.

Archbishop Laud, who thus became the chief agent in a religious tyranny which almost drove both England and Scotland to revolt, improved every opportunity to preach submission to the "Lord's Anointed" in the payment of taxes; and he demanded from English Puritans and Scotch Presbyterians a strict conformity to his own rules for public worship.

His
Religious
Tyranny.

Charles I. had inherited his father's hatred of the Scotch Presbyterians; and, by a most illegal assumption of power, he sought to impose upon Scotland the liturgy and usages of the Church of England. He also renewed his father's law encouraging public sports and recreations on Sunday afternoons, and commanded all clergymen to read his proclamation to that effect after morning service in the churches. For refusing compliance with this order, multitudes of the Puritan clergy were ejected from their livings by order of Archbishop Laud. The new Primate invested the arbitrary court of *High Commission* with jurisdiction over offenses against the Church, and that infamous tribunal pronounced severe punishments upon all who manifested any

Charles I.
and
Scotland.

Court
of High
Commis-
sion.

**Prynne's
Punish-
ment.**

opposition to his ecclesiastical tyranny. Thus Prynne, a Puritan, was sentenced to be exposed in the pillory, to lose both his ears and to be imprisoned for life, for writing a volume against dancing, masks and theatrical amusements—affairs in which the king and his courtiers delighted.

**Council
of the
North.**

Besides the Courts of High Commission and the Star Chamber, there was a *Council of the North*, which was vested with almost absolute authority in the northern counties of England. The proceedings of these arbitrary tribunals endangered civil and religious liberty in England, and threw the whole kingdom into a ferment. The Puritan preachers who had lost their offices traveled through the country, denouncing the arbitrary measures of Laud as preliminary steps to the reestablishment of popery in England; and, by their passionate appeals, they excited the people against the king, the Primate and the clergy.

**Puritan
Preach-
ers.**

**Puritan
Emigra-
tion to
New
England.**

Archbishop Laud's ecclesiastical tyranny led to a large Puritan emigration to New England. Patents were secured and companies organized for that purpose. The Puritans proceeded reluctantly to the place of embarkation, with their eyes looking longingly toward the distant refuge of the Pilgrim Fathers across the billowy deep, yet moist with tears as they turned their backs upon their native land and upon scenes that were dear to them; their hearts swelling with grief as the shores of "Dear Old Mother England" faded from their sight, yet rising to lofty purpose and sublime resignation as they abandoned home and country to enjoy the blessings of religious freedom in a strange land. They fully counted the cost of their forced migration—the peril, poverty and hardships of their new homes in the American wilderness.

**Massa-
chusetts,
Connect-
icut and
Maryland
Colonies.**

The Puritan exodus continued until the New England coast was dotted with settlements. John Endicott founded Salem in 1628. John Winthrop and eight hundred followers founded Boston in 1630. Lord Say-and-Seal and Lord Brooke obtained a charter for the settlement of the region now comprising the State of Connecticut; and under this charter the Rev. Thomas Hooker founded Hartford, while the Rev. John Davenport founded New Haven. Lord Baltimore obtained a grant of the territory now embraced in the State of Maryland, as an asylum for persecuted English Roman Catholics; and the colony under this charter made its first settlement at St. Mary's in 1634.

**At-
tempted
Emigra-
tion of
Hampden
and
Crom-
well.**

During the interval between the dissolution of the Parliament of 1629 and the assembling of the Long Parliament in 1640 twenty thousand Puritans had migrated from Old England to New England. It is said that even John Hampden and Oliver Cromwell once embarked for America, but the sailing of their ship was stopped by a Royal

Order in Council. Even Charles I. never committed a greater blunder, as these two sturdy patriots became the leaders of the mighty revolution which cost the king his throne and his life. Hampden had purchased a tract of land on Narraganset Bay.

It was by the advice of the Earl of Strafford that Charles I. resolved to govern without a Parliament. The lawless exactions of tonnage and poundage were still continued. While the Court of High Commission was doing its tyrannical work in the name of religion, the Star Chamber was crushing out every vestige of civil liberty. The officers of this infamous tribunal surpassed even the lawyers of Henry VII. in the ingenuity with which they entrapped and robbed the people. Obsolete laws and customs—such as had passed away with the feudal times in which they had originated, but which had never been formally repealed—were revived, and all who offended against them were fined. Knighthood was forced on the gentry unless commuted with money. The forest laws were executed with rigor, and poachers were punished with heavy fines.

The Star Chamber.

James I. had endeavored to check the growth of London by a royal order defining its corporate limits. Charles I. ordered every house since erected to be torn down unless its owner paid into the royal treasury a sum equal to three years' rent. The execution of this relentless order rendered hundreds of the poor houseless. Monopolies prevailed in England to a greater extent under Charles I. than under Elizabeth or James I., raising the price of the necessities of life to an exorbitant figure.

The King's Efforts to Restrict London.

The climax of national forbearance was reached when King Charles I. revived an old tax of the times of Alfred the Great and Ethelred II., called *ship money*, because it was used for the support of the navy. From the times of those Saxon kings this duty had been imposed as a war tax upon the maritime counties for the defense of the English coast, and those monarchs had presumed only to call for this tax with the advice and consent of the Witenagemote; while Charles I. ordered the levy of ship money upon all the English people, inland as well as maritime, for general purposes and in time of peace, demanding it by his own arbitrary will.

Ship Money.

Sir John Eliot, the early champion of English constitutional liberty under Charles I., was in his grave; but he had a worthy successor in the person of John Hampden, of whom we have already spoken, and who was a Buckinghamshire farmer of moderate means. This illustrious patriot resolutely refused to pay any ship money, in order to bring the matter to a legal test in the courts. Hampden was consequently tried in the Exchequer Chamber in 1637, and the eyes of all England were upon the proceedings. Even the Earl of Clarendon,

Trial of John Hampden

in his *History of the Rebellion*, says that Hampden “grew the argument of all tongues, every man inquiring who and what he was, that durst at his own charge support the liberty and prosperity of the kingdom.”

Hampden's
Moral
Victory.

After a long delay, the Court of Exchequer gave its decision. Four of the twelve judges, though holding their places only during the king's pleasure, had the moral courage to give a sentence in favor of the resolute patriot. Seven decided against him, and one gave an evasive answer. The moral victory remained with Hampden; for, though he was defeated through royal influence, and though the court's sentence placed all the property in England at the king's disposal, the king's injustice was made apparent to all England, and the public mind was educated to resistance.

Scottish
Rebellion
against
Charles I.

While the royal assumptions were thus violently opposed in England, the attempts of King Charles I. to enforce the Episcopal form of worship in Scotland produced a formidable rebellion in that country in 1637, which lasted several years. Charles I. had visited Scotland in 1633, and was then crowned king of that country in the Abbey Church of Holyrood with imposing ceremonies. On that occasion the clergy gave great offense to the Scots by wearing the vestments of the Church of England.

His At-
tempts
to Force
Episco-
pacy on
the Scots.

Charles I. increased the ill feeling of the Scots by issuing an order to the Scottish clergy to wear surplices, and commanding the Scottish bishops to wear rochets and sleeves instead of the Geneva cloak as formerly. A change was also made in the manner of choosing the *Lords of the Articles*, the committee which directed the legislation of the Scottish Parliament, thus placing the choice entirely in the hands of the bishops. This was done by the king's direct order, and the members of the Scottish Parliament opposed to the measure addressed a remonstrance to the king. He treated this remonstrance as a political offense, and imprisoned Lord Balmerinoch, who presented it. He afterward liberated the captive Scottish lord; but the Scots generally considered this action as the result of fear, and not as a mark of the king's good will toward them.

His Book
of Canons
and
Liturgy.

In 1637 Charles I caused a book of canons to be prepared for the government of the Scottish Church; and on his own authority, without the ratification of it by the Scottish Parliament, commanded the Scots to use it instead of their Book of Discipline. Archbishop Laud soon afterward prepared a liturgy, and King Charles I. commanded the Scottish clergy to use it in their churches instead of the Book of Common Order, which was then in general use by them.

The attempt of the Dean of Edinburgh to use the Episcopal liturgy in St. Giles's Church, July 16, 1637, produced a violent tumult. The

Dean and the Bishop of Edinburgh were driven from the church by an enraged mob, amid cries of "Pope!" "Antichrist!" "Stone him!" Other riots ensued.

Outbreak
in Edin-
burgh.

The king issued a proclamation calling upon the malcontents to disperse to their homes, and refused to listen to the petitions which were addressed to him from every portion of Scotland. His obstinacy inflamed the popular discontent in Scotland, and the Episcopal bishops and other members of the Privy Council were mobbed in Edinburgh.

Royal
Procla-
mation.

At length a committee, composed of four members from each class of Scotland—nobles, gentry, clergy and burgesses—and known as the *Tables*, was formed to represent the Scottish people in their contest with the government. This committee was more troublesome than the mob; as it forced its way into the council chamber, where it insisted on discussing the public grievances, and demanded the removal of the Episcopal bishops.

Com-
mittee
of the
Tables.

The king replied by a threatening proclamation; whereupon the Scots renewed the Covenant, which this time contained a provision for the overthrow of the Episcopal bishops. The previous Covenants had been signed by the notables of Scotland only; but this *National Covenant*, which was industriously circulated, was signed by nine-tenth of the Scottish people of all classes, rich and poor, noble and peasant, A. D. 1638. For this reason the national party of Scotland were called *Covenanters*.

Scottish
National
Covenant.

The closing paragraph of the National Covenant, showing both the tenor of the Covenant and the temper of the Scottish people, was as follows: "We promise and swear, by the name of the Lord our God, to continue in the profession and obedience of the said religion, and that we shall defend the same, and resist all the contrary errors and corruptions, according to our vocation and the utmost of that power which God has put into our hands, all the days of our life."

Its Last
Para-
graph.

Later in the year 1638 King Charles I. sent the Marquis of Hamilton to Scotland as Lord High Commissioner, fully empowered to adjust all difficulties. The Covenanters demanded the abolition of the Court of High Commission, the Episcopal canons and liturgy, and the summoning of a free assembly of the Scottish Church and a free Scottish Parliament. In accordance with his instructions, the Lord High Commissioner evaded a reply to the Scottish demands, for the purpose of giving the king time to assemble his troops to force the Scots to obedience.

Demands
of the
Cove-
nanters.

Charles I. suddenly promised to grant the Scottish demands; and an assembly of the Scottish Church was summoned, which convened at Glasgow, November 21, 1638, under the presidency of the Marquis of Hamilton as Lord High Commissioner. Several days afterward an

Scottish
Church
As-
sembly.

**Its
Action.**

effort was made to bring the Episcopal bishops to trial. The Marquis of Hamilton then withdrew, and ordered the assembly to disperse. The assembly refused to obey, and proceeded with the trial of the bishops, deposing all of them and excommunicating eight of them. The assembly also abolished the Episcopal canons and liturgy, and repealed all the acts of assemblies since 1606.

**Reduction
of the
Highlanders
by the Cove-
nanters.**

The Earl of Huntley ruled the Highlanders of Scotland as the king's lieutenant. The Highlanders had rejected the Covenant, and the Covenanters resolved to force them to accept it. A strong army, consisting largely of veterans who had served as auxiliaries in the cause of the German Protestants in the Thirty Years' War, was raised and placed under the command of the Earl of Montrose, who subdued the Highlanders after a brief campaign, and compelled them to acknowledge the authority of the Covenanters.

**The
Scottish
and
Royal
Armies.**

Another army of Scottish Covenanters under General Leslie, who had served under the valiant King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden in the Thirty Years' War, was sent to oppose the royal army which King Charles I. was leading northward to reduce the Covenanters to submission. General Leslie took an admirable position commanding the king's line of march; and Charles I., perceiving that he would certainly be defeated in case he attacked the Scottish general, consented to treat with General Leslie for peace. By the treaty known as the *Pacification of Berwick*, June 9, 1639, it was agreed that the questions at issue between the king and his Scottish subjects should be referred to a free assembly for adjustment, and that in the meantime both armies should be disbanded and the Scottish fortresses surrendered to the king.

**Pacifica-
tion of
Berwick.****Charles I.
and the
Scottish
Parlia-
ment.**

An assembly was summoned and convened at Edinburgh, and this assembly ratified all that the Glasgow assembly had done. The Scottish Parliament assembled June 2, 1640, confirmed the acts of the Edinburgh and Glasgow assemblies, and ordered every Scot to sign the Covenant on penalty of severe punishment. King Charles I. adjourned the Scottish Parliament; but it assembled again in spite of him, and appealed to France for assistance. Upon hearing of this action of the Scottish Parliament, the king sent Lord Loudon, one of the Scottish commissioners, to imprisonment in the Tower, and made preparations to invade Scotland.

**English
Sym-
pathy
for the
Revolted
Scots.**

The king's arbitrary treatment of the Scots had aroused a strong sympathy in England for them, as the English saw that the Covenanters were fighting in the cause of religious freedom against arbitrary royal power. Charles I. therefore had much trouble in raising an army in England to subdue the Scots, and the one which he collected was mutinous and discontented. But the Scots raised a strong force,

which crossed the border into England, August 20, 1640, and took possession of Durham, Tynemouth and Shields without striking a blow; while the Scottish army at home seized the Castles of Edinburgh and Dumbarton. King Charles I. was again obliged to treat with the Scots; and by the Treaty of Ripon he granted all the demands of the Covenanters, while both armies were disbanded. The king visited Edinburgh and summoned the Scottish Parliament, but he made no effort to interfere with its action, and confirmed its right to meet once in three years, A. D. 1641.

**Treaty of
Ripon.**

In the meantime the constitutional struggle in England was renewed with increased vigor, and matters were speedily brought to a crisis. When the zealous Scots, who went forth to battle with prayer, and who had imbibed the spirit as well as the faith of John Knox, had marched into England and threatened York, King Charles I. found himself obliged to summon another Parliament, after an interval of eleven years, to solicit aid against the Scotch rebels.

**A Crisis
and a
New Par-
liament.**

The Parliament just summoned, instead of voting supplies against the rebellious Scots, which they consented to do only upon condition of a redress of grievances, began to attack the king's unlawful assumptions and to discuss the grievances of the English people. In a fit of exasperation Charles I. dissolved this Parliament after a stormy session of three weeks. Said St. John, one of its members: "Things must go worse before they go better." They quickly went worse.

**Dissolu-
tion of
the New
Parlia-
ment.**

A Great Council of Peers met at York as a last expedient, but accomplished nothing except delay. The advancing Scots had reached Newcastle and were on the march for York. Archbishop Laud was mobbed in London, and the Court of High Commission was broken up at St. Paul's Cathedral. All England was on the verge of revolt against the king, whose necessities forced him to summon another Parliament.

**Advanc-
ing Scots
and Riot
in
London.**

This Parliament, which assembled November 3, 1640, is known in history as the *Long Parliament*, on account of the extraordinary length of its existence, which lasted thirteen years. Its leading members were Sir Arthur Haslerig, John Hampden, John Pym and Oliver Cromwell, who were opposed to absolute monarchical power and Episcopal church government, and who were staunch advocates of republican, or popular institutions.

**The Long
Parlia-
ment.**

Instead of affording the king any assistance against the Scottish insurgents, the Long Parliament entered into a secret league with them. Parliament next impeached the Earl of Strafford for high treason, in endeavoring to overthrow the constitutional liberties of England; but the letter of the law provided no penalty for this worst of political crimes, restricting its punishments to offenses against the king's person.

**Impeach-
ment,
Trial and
Execution
of the
Earl of
Strafford.**

Both Houses of Parliament therefore passed a *Bill of Attainder*. The king vainly endeavored to save his favorite Minister. The Commons were resolved upon his destruction. After a trial of seventy days and a dignified and eloquent defense, the Earl of Strafford was declared guilty and condemned to death. After much hesitation and in a moment of weakness, the king signed the death-warrant; and the unfortunate Earl of Strafford was beheaded on Tower Hill, May 12, 1641. He died with firmness and resolution. The popular joy and relief manifested itself in shouts of triumph, and bonfires blazed in every city of England.

John
Pym's
Threat.

Thus was literally executed the threat of John Pym, one of the most active of the Puritan members of the House of Commons, who, when the Earl of Strafford had left the popular party to serve the king, had said to him: "You have left us; but we will not leave you while your head is on your shoulders."

The
King's
Vain
Efforts.

The king's signature to the death-warrant had been extorted from him, but no suffering of his own caused Charles I. so severe a pang as the execution of his faithful friend and servant. Even after signing the warrant the king had sent a letter to the House of Lords, entreating them to confer with the House of Commons, and to obtain the consent of that body to a mitigation of the sentence or a delay in its execution; but the Commons were inexorable.

Fate of
Arch-
bishop
Laud.

Archbishop Laud was also impeached by the Commons, and was imprisoned in the Tower, while all his property was confiscated. Three years afterward he was tried at the bar of the House of Lords, for high treason in endeavoring to destroy the religious liberties of the people of England. He was declared guilty, and was beheaded January 10, 1645.

Import-
tant Bill.

On the very day of the sentence of the Earl of Strafford to death, King Charles I. also signed a bill of vast importance, providing that Parliament should not be dissolved, prorogued or adjourned without its own consent, and that a Parliament should be held at least once in three years.

Reform
Measures
of the
Long Par-
liament.

The Long Parliament went about the work of reform in earnest. The Courts of the Star Chamber and High Commission were abolished; patriots were released from prison; the judgment against John Hampden was annulled; ship money and arbitrary taxation were again forbidden; and the king's instruments for oppression were brought to trial, from the judges who had decided against Hampden to the sheriffs and custom-house officials who had collected the illegal taxes. The Scots, whose military operations had made these proceedings of the English Parliament possible, were declared to have been "ever good subjects"; and a gift of sixty thousand pounds, in addition to their

pay, was voted to them for their brotherly aid to the friends of liberty in England. Perceiving the storm that was arising against them, the Episcopal bishops voluntarily relinquished their seats in the House of Lords, to avoid the expulsion which the popular party resolutely and inexorably demanded.

In the meantime, during this memorable year 1641, a dangerous rebellion broke out in Ireland, as a result of the tyranny inaugurated by the Earl of Strafford as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland in 1633. This tyranny had lasted seven years, and the Irish took advantage of that statesman's execution in 1641 to assert their freedom by a rising to overthrow English authority in the Emerald Isle. Religious zeal added bitterness to political animosity.

**Serious
Rebellion
in
Ireland.**

The plan for a general Irish revolt was inaugurated by Roger O'Moore, who had served in the Spanish army, and who was full of zeal for the Roman Catholic Church. He imagined that, by a sudden rising of the Catholic Irish, all the English and Scotch Protestant settlers in Ireland might be massacred or driven from Irish soil, and the independence of Erin restored. As a part of his plan was the entire restoration of the Catholic religion in Ireland, he counted upon the aid of the Catholic lords of the English Pale, most of whom joined in the plot and concerted measures with O'Moore and Phelim O'Neill, the most powerful native Irish chief.

**Roger
O'Moore
and His
Plans.**

The insurrection was to break out in all parts of Ireland on the same day, when the forts were to be seized by the Irish rebels upon a given signal. The secret had been well kept until the night before the execution of the conspiracy, when it was betrayed by an Irishman named Conolly, who informed the English authorities of the intended attack upon Dublin Castle, in which a large quantity of arms and ammunition were stored. Several of the conspirators were instantly arrested, but it was too late to check the progress of the revolt, which burst forth with tremendous fury, October 23, 1641.

**First Out-
breaks.**

The English and Scotch colonists of Ulster, who were totally unaware of the existence of such a dreadful conspiracy, suddenly found themselves surrounded by mobs of infuriated Irishmen armed with staves, pitchforks and other rude weapons, which they brandished aloft with the most frightful yells. One of the most barbarous and brutal massacres recorded in all history ensued, sparing no age, sex or condition.

**Massacre
in Ulster.**

Without provocation and without resistance, the defenseless English and Scotch settlers, being Protestants, were murdered in cold blood by their nearest Irish neighbors, with whom they had long maintained a continued intercourse of kindness and good offices. The houses of these settlers were set on fire or leveled with the ground. Where the

**The
Victims.**

unfortunate owners endeavored to defend themselves, their wives and their children they all perished together in the flames.

Bigotry of the Assassins. In the midst of these atrocities, the sacred name of religion resounded on every side, not to stay the hands of the assassins, but to enforce their blows and to harden their hearts against every movement of human sympathy. The English and Scotch settlers, as heretics, abhorred of God and detested by all good Catholics, were marked by the Irish priests for slaughter.

Spread of the Rebellion. The flames of rebellion spread from Ulster to every part of Ireland. In the provinces of Leinster, Munster and Connaught the English and Scotch who were not massacred were driven from their homes, robbed of all their clothes, and left exposed naked and defenseless to perish by the winter frosts and storms.

Refugees in Dublin. Only Dublin remained to the English, and the failure of the plot there preserved in Ireland the remains of the English name. The roads were crowded with multitudes of wretched refugees hastening to that city; and when the gates were opened these fugitives presented to the view of the astonished inhabitants a scene of misery which words fail to describe.

Desolation of Ireland. The number of English and Scotch Protestants who thus fell victims to Irish Catholic bigotry has been estimated at from forty thousand to two hundred thousand. The war which followed this rebellion continued ten years, and reduced Ireland to extreme poverty and misery. Portions of the unhappy country that escaped the ravages of fire and sword were desolated by famine and pestilence. The plague ravaged Ireland more or less during the whole of this unhappy period, and was supposed to have been caused by the unwholesome food which the people were obliged to eat.

Parliament's Accusation. Parliament accused the court, and particularly the queen, of instigating the Irish rebellion and the massacre, and declared that the Catholic and Episcopal bishops and the court had entered into a plot for the destruction of religious liberty in England. So thoroughly did Parliament distrust the king that it took upon its own hands the task of dealing with the Irish rebellion.

The King's Decision. King Charles I., exasperated at the increasing demands of the Commons, perpetrated one rash act which hastened civil war. He had for some time looked on bitterly but helplessly while the absolutism in which he had sought to intrench himself was rudely swept away. Conscious that his throne was tottering to its fall, he endeavored by one bold stroke to crush all opposition to his will and to reestablish his lost authority.

The king's blow was aimed directly at the House of Commons. The Commons had refused to surrender five of their boldest leaders—

Haslerig, Hollis, Hampden, Pym and Strode—at the king's demand; and the next day Charles I., with three hundred soldiers, went in person to the hall of the House of Commons to arrest these five leaders, January 5, 1642. Leaving the soldiers outside the chamber, the king entered the hall alone, all the members of the House rising to receive him. The Speaker vacated the chair, and the king occupied it. After seating himself he told the Commons that he was sorry for the occasion that had forced him thither; that he had come in person to sieze the five members whom he had accused of high treason, seeing that they would not deliver them to his sergeant-at-arms. He then looked over the hall to see if the accused were present; but they had escaped a few minutes before he had entered, and the king remarked: "I see my birds have flown." With the expectation that the Commons would send the accused members to him, and a threat to secure them for himself it they would not, the baffled king abruptly left the chamber.

**His Rash
Blow
at the
House of
Commons**

Thus disappointed, perplexed, and not knowing on whom to rely, the king next proceeded to the Common Council of the city of London, and made his complaints to that body. On his way thither he was greeted with cries of "Privilege! privilege!" from the angry populace. The Common Council answered his complaints only with a contemptuous silence; and, on his return, one of the populace, more insolent than the others, cried out: "To your tents, O Israel!" This was a watchword among the ancient Jews when they intended to abandon their kings.

**Charles I.
and the
Common
Council of
London.**

By his rash act Charles I. offered a flagrant insult to the House of Commons and violated a fundamental law of the realm. The crisis had now arrived. The occasion being too solemn for business, the House of Commons adjourned. The next day the king issued a proclamation branding the five accused members as traitors and ordering their arrest. London was in a tumult, and the city rose as one man for the defence of the accused. The citizens sheltered the accused members, and their train-bands held the city and guarded the House of Commons. These train-bands escorted the historical five back to their seats amid the cheers of the excited populace, the river and the streets by which they passed being guarded by cannon and men-at-arms.

**The
Accused
Members
and the
Citizens
of
London.**

After returning to Windsor, King Charles I. began to reflect on the rashness of his recent proceedings, and when too late he resolved to make some atonement. He accordingly apologized to Parliament in a humiliating message, in which he informed the Commons that he desisted from his recent violent proceedings against the accused members, and assured them that upon all occasions he would be as careful of their privileges as of his crown or his life. Thus, while the king's

**The
King's
Humili-
ating
Apology.**

former violence had rendered him hateful to the Commons, his present submission rendered him contemptible.

Encroach-
ments
of the
Com-
mons.

From this time Parliament encroached more and more on the royal prerogative, until scarcely a vestige of monarchical power remained. The Commons now demanded that the appointment of Ministers of State and of military and naval commanders should depend upon their approval. The Commons also required that the Tower of London, several of the sea-ports and the management of the navy should also be given into their possession. When Parliament demanded that the king should relinquish the command of the army for a certain period His Majesty angrily replied: "No, not for one hour!" This refusal dispelled all hopes for a peaceful settlement of difficulties, and both parties resolved upon an appeal to arms.

SECTION II.—CIVIL WAR AND FALL OF MONARCHY (A. D. 1642–1649).

Begin-
ning
of the
Civil
War.

THE breach between King Charles I. and Parliament continually widened; and in the summer of 1642 the king withdrew from London, retiring to York, where he declared war against Parliament. On the 25th of August, 1642, Charles erected the royal standard at Nottingham, but it was soon blown down by the violence of the wind. For the next six years English soil was reddened with English blood shed in civil war. Englishmen fought against Englishmen to decide the momentous issue of constitutional liberty against royal prerogative—the question of the inalienable rights of the English people against the "divine right of kings," thus forced upon them by the arbitrary action of the royal House of Stuart.

Cavaliers
and
Round-
heads.

On the side of the king were the nobility and the gentry, the Roman Catholic and Episcopal clergy, and all the advocates of the Established Church and of absolute monarchy. The whole of the king's party were called *Cavaliers*. On the side of Parliament were the Puritans, all who advocated a reform in Church and State, and all believers in republican principles. All the adherents of Parliament received from their enemies the nickname of *Roundheads*, because their hair was cropped close to their heads. London and the other great cities of England were on the side of Parliament, excepting Oxford, which remained loyal to the king.

Independ-
ents and
Presby-
terians.

The opponents of the king were divided into several factions. The Independents, who were Puritans in religious belief and republicans in political faith, aimed at the overthrow of the monarchy; while the Presbyterians, or moderate party, merely wished to put an end to the abuses of the royal power, but not to deprive the king of his crown.

The two great parties which were now arrayed against each other in civil war—the one democratic, and the other aristocratic; the one striving for progress and reform, and the other adhering to the traditions of the past—have continued to struggle for supremacy to the present day, under the names of Whig and Tory, Liberal and Conservative.

The Two Great Parties.

The royal and Parliamentary parties differed from each other almost as much in dress as in principles. The Cavalier costume consisted of a tunic of silk or satin with slashed sleeves; an elegant lace collar adorning the neck, and a short cloak hanging gracefully over one shoulder. Short full trowsers reached almost to the top of the wide boots, which extended half-way up the calf of the leg. The head was covered with a broad-brimmed beaver hat, adorned with an elegant band and a plume of feathers. The hair hung in curls over the shoulders, and the beard was trimmed to a point; while the *love-locks*, the tress on the left side, were tied up by a pretty colored ribbon. The love-locks were so obnoxious to the Puritans that John Pym wrote a quarto volume against them. The Puritan Roundheads wore a cloak of sad-colored brown or black, a plain linen collar laid carelessly down on the plaited cloth, and a hat with a high, steeple-shaped crown over their closely-clipped or thin, straight hair.

Costumes of the Rival Parties.

The Cavaliers were as gay in their manners as in their dress, thus presenting a marked contrast to the gloomy fanaticism of the Roundheads. The rigid severity of the Puritans tolerated no recreations, except such as were afforded by the singing of hymns and Psalms. They looked upon theaters, dances and all other amusements as sinful frivolities. They regarded horse-racing and bear-baiting—popular diversions of that period—as wicked enormities.

Their Manners.

The commanders of the king's armies were his nephew, Prince Rupert of the Palatinate, and the Marquis of Newcastle. Prince Rupert was the son of the king's sister Elizabeth and her husband, the unfortunate Elector-Palatine Frederick V., who had tried to become King of Bohemia, and whose action brought on the great Thirty Years' War in Germany. Prince Rupert was a brave soldier, but was too rash and impetuous to be a good general.

The Royal Commanders.

The popular leaders on the Parliamentary side were John Hampden, John Pym and Sir Henry Vane, the last of whom had several years before been Governor of the Puritan colony of Massachusetts Bay in New England. The chief commanders of the armies of Parliament were Sir Thomas Fairfax and the Earl of Essex, the latter of whom was the son of Queen Elizabeth's wayward favorite. As the struggle advanced, Oliver Cromwell became the rising star on the Parliamentary side, as we shall presently see.

Prince Rupert.

The Parliamentary Leaders.

**The
Parliamentary
Armies.**

At the beginning of the civil war Parliament appointed lieutenants for all the counties of England, and levied troops in the king's name for the defense of the kingdom against the king himself. The armies which Parliament had raised to crush the Catholic rebellion in Ireland were retained in England and placed under the command of the Earl of Essex. Citizens brought their plate, and women their ornaments, even their thimbles and wedding-rings, to be melted up in the service of the "good cause" against the "Malignants," as the Cavaliers were called by their Puritan foes. On the royal side the queen sailed for Holland to pawn the crown jewels for arms and ammunition.

**First
Two
Years
of the
War.**

While the king raised the royal standard at Nottingham, August 25, 1642, the Earl of Essex mustered the Parliamentary forces at Northampton. During the first two years of the war the king's forces were victorious in almost every encounter with the undisciplined troops in the service of Parliament; but as the latter gained skill and experience they became superior to any troops that the king could bring into the field.

**Battle of
Edge
Hill.**

The first great battle of the civil war was fought at Edge Hill, in Warwickshire, October 23, 1642, between the royal army under Prince Rupert and the Parliamentary forces under the Earl of Essex; about five thousand men being left dead on the field, and the battle being indecisive.

**Campaign of
1643.**

The campaign of 1643 was generally favorable to the royal cause. Early in the spring the Parliamentary forces under the Earl of Essex captured Reading, the capital of Berkshire; but about the same time the royal generals conquered Cornwall in the West and the four northern counties—Durham, Northumberland, Cumberland and Westmoreland.

**Death of
John
Hampden.**

On June 18, 1643, the Parliamentary party experienced a severe loss in the death of the brave, upright and illustrious John Hampden, who was killed in a skirmish with Prince Rupert at Chalgrove Field, in Oxfordshire.

**Royalist
Victories
in 1643.**

The king's forces were victorious at Stratton Hill, in Cornwall; at Atherton, in Yorkshire; at Lansdowne Hill, near Bath; and at Roundway Down, near Devizes, in Wiltshire. By the capture of the important city of Bristol, Prince Rupert became master of the West of England. The king besieged Gloucester, which was relieved by the Earl of Essex, September 5, 1643.

**First
Battle of
Newbury
and
Death
of Lord
Falkland.**

In the first battle of Newbury, in Berkshire, September 20, 1643, the royal army was repulsed, and the good Lucius Cary, Lord Falkland, was slain. He was a true patriot, and had opposed the tyrannical assumptions of King Charles I.; but when Parliament attempted to deprive the king of every vestige of power, and to overthrow the Established Church, he took sides with the king, hoping that Charles I. would

eventually concede the just demands of the English people. He therefore fought on the side of the king. On the morning of the fatal day he was heard to remark: "I am weary of the times, and foresee much misery to my country, but believe that I shall be out of it ere night."

In 1644 the king secured the aid of some Irish Roman Catholics, but his plan to bring an Irish army into England to slaughter his English foes on their own soil was resented by his own English supporters, and large numbers of his officers of all grades resigned their commissions in the royal army and deserted to the Parliamentary side. In the same year Parliament secured the alliance of the Scots by entering into the *Solemn League and Covenant* with them, by which both parties bound themselves to strive for the extirpation of "popery and prelacy, superstition, heresy, schism and profaneness," and to uphold the rights of Parliament in proper regard to the royal authority.

Irish
Royalists
and
Scotch
Cove-
nanters.

In the meantime the king called a Parliament of his own at Oxford, to oppose the designs of the Parliament at Westminster; but after this shadow of a Parliament had voted a grant of money to the king it was prorogued, and was never again convened.

The
King's
Parlia-
ment.

Victory crowned the arms of Parliament after the sturdy Huntingdonshire Puritan, Oliver Cromwell, took the field in the cause of God and liberty, at the head of his invincible *Ironsides*—a body of pious cavalrymen, who spent their leisure in prayer, Psalm-singing and Bible-reading.

Oliver
Cromwell
and His
Ironsides.

An army of Scotch Covenanters marched into England to assist the forces of Parliament, while King Charles I. called over his troops from Ireland. A large force of these royal troops were defeated and captured at Nantwich by Sir Thomas Fairfax, who afterward united with the Scots in laying siege to York. Prince Rupert advanced with the royal army to raise the siege; but he was overwhelmingly defeated at Marston Moor, about five miles from York, July 2, 1644, with the loss of all his artillery, Cromwell's Ironsides being chiefly instrumental in achieving the Parliamentary victory. This great defeat of the royal army was partly due to the impetuosity of Prince Rupert. The battle of Marston Moor gave the Parliamentary forces possession of the whole North of England.

Battle of
Marston
Moor.

Royalist
Refeat.

The royalists defeated the Parliamentarians under Sir William Waller at Cropredy Bridge, in Oxfordshire; and in the second battle of Newbury, October 27, 1644, the king broke through the Parliamentary army under the Earl of Manchester and reached Oxford.

Second
Battle of
Newbury.

The Puritans now banished the Book of Common Prayer from religious worship, and substituted the Calvinistic form of worship and church government for the Episcopal. They also caused images and ornaments to be taken from the churches and forbade festivities. But

Presby-
terians
and Inde-
pendents.

the Puritans were divided into two great parties—the Presbyterians and the Independents—between whom the greatest animosity already prevailed. The Presbyterians, or moderate Puritans, inclined toward the support of monarchical and aristocratic institutions, and longed for the establishment of their Church, to the exclusion of all others, and opposed toleration. The Independents, or radical Puritans, held democratic, or republican views in regard to civil government, and desired toleration for all Christian faiths.

The Self-Denying Ordinance.

Oliver Cromwell belonged to the Independents; while the Earl of Essex, who held the chief command of the Parliamentary forces, belonged to the Presbyterians. The Independents caused the enactment, by Parliament, of the *Self-denying Ordinance*, which allowed no member of Parliament to hold a command in the army. The Earl of Essex was therefore compelled to resign; and Sir Thomas Fairfax, an able general, was appointed to the chief command of the army of Parliament. Cromwell, who had been one of the most enthusiastic supporters of the Self-denying Ordinance, hastened to resign his command; but through the influence of Fairfax, who felt that Cromwell's services in the army were necessary to insure the overthrow of the royal party, the Parliament dispensed with the Self-denying Ordinance in Cromwell's case, and he was permitted to retain his position.

The New Model.

With the consent of Fairfax, the commander-in-chief of the Parliamentary forces, Cromwell now introduced the *New Model* of discipline into the Parliamentary army. His first aim was to collect a force of honest, self-respecting, God-fearing men; and another such an army probably never was seen. The soldiers spent their leisure hours in studying the Scriptures and in mutual exhortations to a godly life. Wherever they moved they respected very man's house and field, and honestly paid for all provisions.

Royalist Ravages.

The king's army, on the contrary, though superior at first in military discipline, was worse than swarms of grasshoppers to the districts which it visited. The wild young Cavaliers under the command of Prince Rupert had learned their occupation among the direful scenes of the Thirty Years' War in Germany, where the burning of villages and the devastation of harvest-fields were matters of daily occurrence. The citizen-soldiery of Parliament, called from their looms and desks, ere long acquired the necessary discipline; while the gallantry of the Cavaliers scarcely compensated the royal cause for their disgraceful misbehavior.

Battle of Naseby.

Some efforts at peace having failed, the civil war again burst forth with all its fury. The army of King Charles I. was completely overthrown and his cause was utterly ruined in the desperate battle of Naseby, in Northamptonshire, June 14, 1645. The Parliamentary

forces were commanded by Fairfax, Skippon, Cromwell and Ireton; and the royalists by the king, Prince Rupert, Lord Astley and Sir Marmaduke Langdale. The defeat of the royal army was caused, in a great measure, by the rashness and impatience of Prince Rupert, who overruled the more prudent judgment of the king. Rupert, with the right wing of the royal cavalry, dashed with the most fiery impetuosity upon the Parliamentary left wing, commanded by General Ireton, Cromwell's son-in-law. At the same time Cromwell, with the Parliamentary right wing, assailed the royal left wing; while the centers of the two armies, led respectively by Fairfax and the king, were struggling desperately. The Parliamentary left was thoroughly annihilated, and Ireton was made a prisoner; but Rupert lost precious time in an unnecessary pursuit of Ireton's broken forces, when he should have gone to the aid of the king. In the meantime Cromwell with his Ironsides defeated the royal cavalry, after which he flew to the aid of the Parliamentary center, which was beginning to give way before the royalists. Cromwell and his Ironsides, who insured victory wherever they appeared, soon put the king's infantry to a total rout; and Charles I., seeing that the day was lost to his cause, retired with his shattered forces, leaving the field, all his baggage and cannon and five thousand prisoners in the hands of the victorious Parliamentarians.

**Ruin
of the
Royal
Cause.**

Among the king's captured baggage were found papers revealing his plot with the Irish Catholic rebels, conceding all their wild demands on condition of their aid to the royal cause against the forces of the English Parliament.

**Papers
Captured.**

By their victory at Naseby the Parliamentarians obtained possession of all the strong cities in the kingdom, such as Bristol, Bridgewater, Bath and Chester. Exeter was besieged and taken by Fairfax, whereupon the king and his broken hosts retreated to Oxford, which Fairfax and Cromwell were preparing to besiege. Rather than be taken prisoner by his enemies, and hoping to find respect and kind treatment among his Scotch subjects, Charles I. went into the camp of the Scots at Newark, May 5, 1646; but, instead of treating him as their king, the Scots placed a guard around him and kept him as a prisoner. The fanatical Scotch preachers, unable to restrain their zeal, insulted him to his face, and, in sermons preached in his presence, bitterly reproached him as a wicked tyrant.

**King
Charles I
a Prisoner
to the
Scots.**

One of these fanatical Scotch preachers ordered the fifty-second Psalm to be sung:

**The King
and the
Scotch
Preach-
ers.**

"Why dost thou, tyrant, boast thyself.
Thy wicked deeds to praise?"

Whereupon the king stood up, and, with a dignity and meekness that

affected even the rigid enthusiasts, called for the fifty-sixth Psalm, which was sung accordingly :

“Have mercy, Lord, on me, I pray,
For men would me devour!”

**The War
in
Scotland.**

In Scotland in the meantime the Marquis of Montrose had deserted the Covenanters and raised an army of Irish and Highlanders, with which he defeated the Covenanters at Tibbermuir, near Perth, in 1644; at Alford, in Aberdeenshire, in 1645; and at Kilsyth, in Stirlingshire, in 1645. But he was utterly defeated at Philiphaugh, near Selkirk, by the Covenanters under General Leslie, September 15, 1645.

**The
Marquis
of Wor-
cester.**

The captive king was now obliged to issue orders for all his troops to submit to the triumphant Parliament. The venerable Marquis of Worcester, then over eighty-four years of age, held out in Rayland Castle until reduced to the greatest extremity, and was the last man in England to lay down his arms. Colonel Sir Henry Washington, an ancestor of General George Washington, fought on the king's side, leading a storming party at Bristol, and defending Worcester against the Parliamentary forces in 1646.

**Colonel
Sir Henry
Washing-
ton.**

**Presby-
terians
and Inde-
pendents.**

Although the Great Civil War was now vitually over, religious dissensions raged with the greatest fury. As we have already seen, the king's enemies were divided into the Presbyterian and Independent parties. The most inveterate animosity now existed between these two factions. The Presbyterians had a majority in Parliament, while the Independents had a majority in the army. The Presbyterian majority in Parliament proceeded to reorganize the Church of England on the Presbyterian plan, while the Independents contended for religious freedom and a separation of Church and State.

**Presby-
terian
Intoler-
ance.**

The perils that had menaced civil liberty in England had passed away when the king surrendered to Lord Leven, the Scottish commander at Newark; but the religious intolerance to which the Presbyterian majority in Parliament still clung became well-nigh as dangerous to the state as the absolutism which had gone down in blood on the field of Naseby. The Presbyterians had abolished the civil despotism, only to impose a religious tyranny upon the English nation.

**Negotia-
tions
with the
King.**

The Presbyterian and Independent parties each sought reconciliation and alliance with King Charles I., with the view of advancing its own success; the Independents on the basis of religious toleration, and the Presbyterians on the adoption of the Scotch Covenant. The royal captive rejected the offers of both parties, because he hoped to induce one or the other to accept his own terms. He wrote: “I am not without hope that I shall be able to draw either the Presbyterians or the Independents to side with me for extirpating one another, so that I

shall be really king again." A Presbyterian asked: "What will become of us, now that the king has rejected our proposals?" An Independent replied: "What would have become of us had he accepted them?"

The king believed that he had freed himself from the hostility of the Scots by conceding all their demands, and that he might count more on the affection and good will of the subjects among whom he had been born than of the new people among whom his father had come as a foreigner; but he still refused to sign the Covenant or to accept the terms which the English Parliament offered him. The Scots, the royalist officers and even the queen urged him with tears to provide for his safety in this way.

**The King
and the
Scots.**

When the English Parliament was informed that the king was in the hands of the Scots it began to negotiate with them for the possession of his person. As he obstinately refused to sign the Covenant, the Scots finally surrendered him into the hands of commissioners appointed by the English Parliament, upon receiving four hundred thousand pounds sterling, the amount due them as pay, February, 1647. The captive king selected two of the commissioners, Mr. Herbert and Mr. Harrington, to attend him, in place of his own servants, who had been dismissed. The Scots were ever afterward ashamed of the reproach of having sold their sovereign to his inveterate foes.

**The King
in the
Power
of the
Parlia-
ment.**

The Presbyterians, thinking that their victory was now assured, assumed a more decided stand by establishing presbyteries throughout England, and voting to disband the old Parliamentary army, which was Independent, and to organize a new one with Presbyterians at its head; but the officers and troops of the old army, instigated by Oliver Cromwell, the leader of the Independents, refused to disband without an assurance of religious toleration, or until its work was completed and English freedom established on a secure basis.

**Parlia-
ment
and the
Army.**

Parliament was then more dangerous than the king, as it enacted a law in its sectarian zeal more ferocious than even the persecuting statutes of Henry VIII. or "Bloody Mary." By this terrible statute the death penalty was fixed upon all who should deny the doctrine of the Trinity, or Christ's divinity, or the inspiration of the Scriptures, or the resurrection of the body; while persons who believed that "man by nature hath free will to turn to God," or who denied the lawfulness of "Church government by Presbytery," were to be punished with imprisonment. Though this terrible statute was never enforced, its enactment showed the danger and justified extraordinary means of resistance.

**Parlia-
ment's
Bloody
Statute.**

The triumph of Parliament under its Presbyterian majority was of short duration; as a body of troopers under an officer named Joyce,

The King in the Power of the Army. secretly sent for that purpose by Cromwell, surrounded Holmby House, in which the king was detained under the charge of the commissioners of Parliament, and placed him in the custody of the army, June, 1647. Parliament openly charged Cromwell with inciting the act, and Cromwell did not deny the charge, but marched to London and subjected the city and Parliament to his authority.

Cromwell and the King. Cromwell now reinstated the captive king at Hampton Court, where he lived with dignity and with every appearance of personal freedom, though under guard. Cromwell and his son-in-law, General Ireton, desired to spare the king's life, and entered into negotiations with the royal captive; but they discovered, as Parliament had before discovered, that the king's word and promises meant nothing. With his characteristic insincerity, Charles I. intended to violate his plighted word and to deceive the victorious party in whose mercy he was. Had he possessed the least sincerity he might have saved his life and his throne, but his treachery to both Presbyterians and Independents sealed his fate.

The Queen's Letter to the King. The queen wrote a letter to her royal husband, reproaching him for having made too great concessions to "those villains." These concessions were mainly that Cromwell should be Lord Lieutenant of Ireland for life; that an army should be kept in that island under the command of Cromwell himself, and that Cromwell should be honored with a garter. The queen's letter was intercepted, and was then forwarded to the captive king.

The King's Reply and Its Contents. Cromwell and Irton, disguised as troopers, found the king's letter in answer to the queen's in the possession of the messenger at the Blue Boar Inn in Holborn. In his letter the king told his wife that she should leave him to manage matters, as he was better informed of all the circumstances than she could possibly be; but that she might be entirely easy in regard to all the concessions that he should make to "those villains"; as he should know in due time how to deal with "the rogue," who, instead of a garter, should be fitted with a hempen cord. This letter sealed the king's fate. Cromwell thus discovered that he was dealing with one who would violate every pledge that he had made as soon as he was reinstated on his throne, and would make a jest of putting a halter around his neck as the practical fulfillment of his promise of the garter.

His Escape to the Isle of Wight. In November, 1647, the captive king, eluding his guards, escaped to the Isle of Wight, whose governor, Colonel Hammand, conducted him to Carisbrook Castle, where he was detained as a prisoner, though treated with every mark of respect, as before; but when the royal captive attempted to escape from Carisbrook Castle he was deprived of communication with his friends, and even of the attendance of his servants.

The captive Charles I. was still stirring up war between his English and Scotch kingdoms by secret agents, while royalist outbreaks convulsed every portion of England. The Scottish Covenanters, ashamed of the reproach of having sold their sovereign, sent an army under the Duke of Hamilton into England, in 1648. But Cromwell routed the invading army of Scots at Preston, in Lancashire, with terrific slaughter, August 18, 1648; after which he pushed across the border into Scotland, and reinstated the Marquis of Argyle in power at Edinburgh. In the meantime General Sir Thomas Fairfax had quelled the royalist risings in Kent and Essex.

Revolt of
Scotch
Cove-
nanters
Subdued
by
Crom-
well.

In September, 1648, Parliament entered into negotiations with the captive king, and the commissioners of Parliament were moved to tears at sight of the change that had taken place in the king's aspect and at beholding his "gray and discrowned head." Cromwell, after subduing the Scots, returned to England and hastened to London; and a body of troopers secretly sent by him again seized the king and confined him in Hurst Castle, on the coast of Hampshire, opposite the Isle of Wight, to the utmost consternation of the Presbyterian majority in Parliament, December 5, 1648.

Crom-
well's
Seizure
of the
King.

The following day Parliament accepted the king's concessions as a "sufficient foundation for a treaty of peace." The next day Cromwell, anticipating the design of Parliament to destroy him, and resolving to annihilate their power by a decisive blow, a *coup d'état*, caused Colonel Pride with two regiments to surround the Parliament House and to exclude all the Presbyterian members from their seats, thus leaving sixty Independents as the only members of Parliament, which was thereafter known as the "Rump Parliament." By this arbitrary proceeding—known as *Colonel Pride's Purge*—Cromwell and the army, at the head of the Independent party, triumphed over the Presbyterian majority in the Long Parliament, December 7, 1648.

Colonel
Pride's
Purge.

The "Rump Parliament" passed an act declaring it high treason for a king to levy war against the people's representatives; and declared also that "the people are, under God, the origin of all just power," and that "the Commons of England in Parliament assembled, being chosen by and representing the people, are the supreme authority of the nation." The "Rump Parliament" also, by a unanimous vote, impeached "Charles Stuart" in the name of the people of England, and resolved to bring him to trial for "the treason, blood and mischief he was guilty of."

The
"Rump
Parlia-
ment"
and
"Charles
Stuart."

Colonel Harrison, the son of a butcher, was sent to bring the king from Hurst Castle to Windsor, and thence to London, where he was confined in St. James's Palace. The people were greatly affected at the sight of the change in his appearance, and he stood a lonely figure of

The King
Brought
to
London.

Disre-
spect
Shown
Him.

majesty in distress, which even his adversaries could not behold without reverence and compassion. He had long been attended only by an old, decrepid servant, Sir Philip Warwick, who could only deplore his master's fate, without being able to avenge him. Charles I. was now treated with more severity. His guards and attendants were ordered to treat him no longer as if he were a sovereign, and to call him simply "Charles Stuart." His own servants were not permitted to wait on him at table; and common soldiers, attired in armor, were appointed to bring his meals to him. The fallen king was shocked much by this disrespect, but soon recovered his composure, and said: "Nothing is so contemptible as a despised king."

The King
and the
Duke of
Hamilton.

The Duke of Hamilton, the leader of the Scotch Covenanters, was reserved for the same punishment as King Charles I., and upon leaving Windsor threw himself at the king's feet, exclaiming: "My dear master!" The unhappy king raised him up, embraced him tenderly and replied, while tears ran down his cheeks: "I have indeed been a dear master to you." These were severe distresses, but Charles I. never could persuade himself that his subjects would accuse him and try him as a criminal—an indignity to which royalty had not until then been subjected; but expected every moment to fall a victim to private assassination.

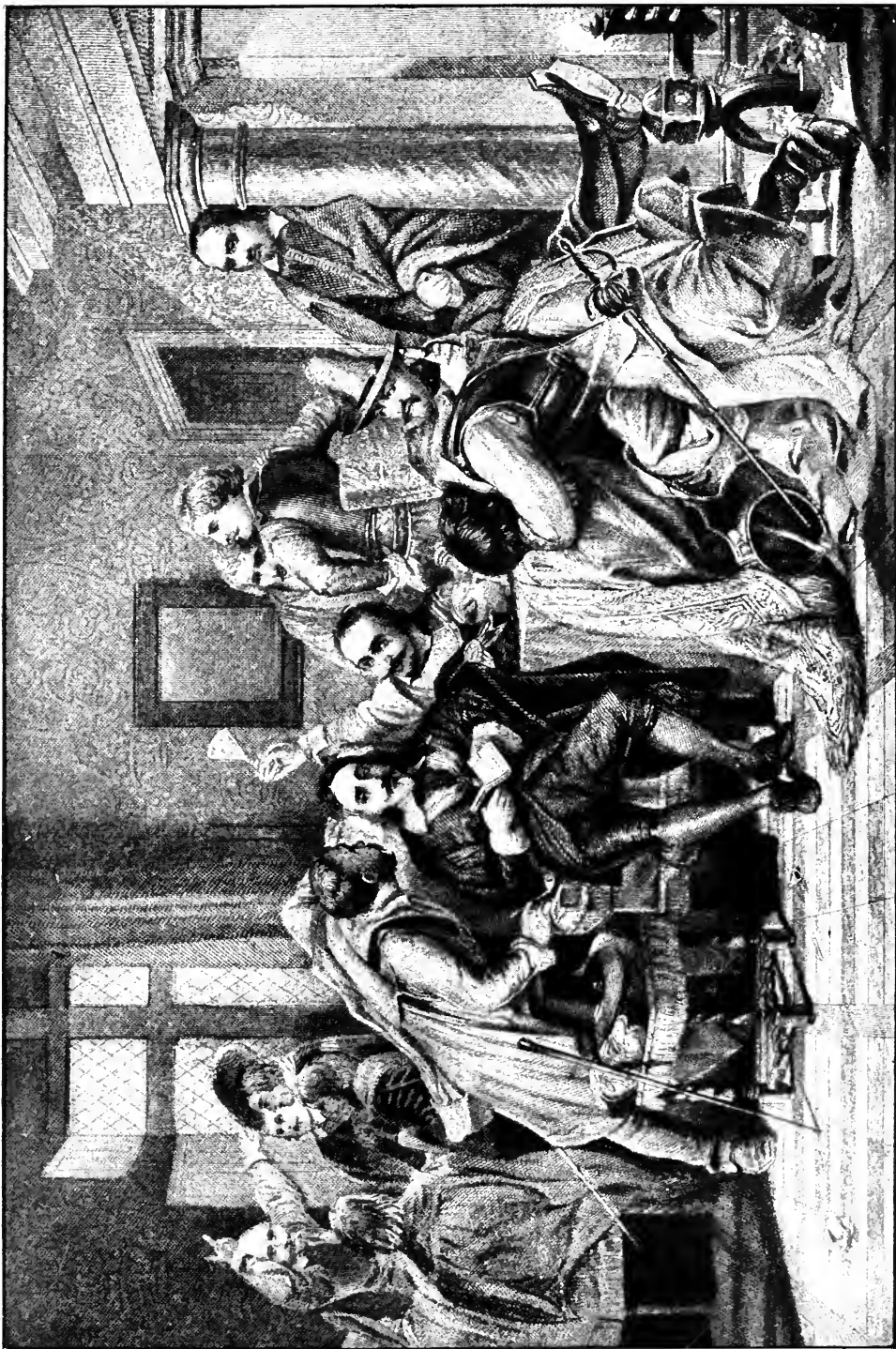
High
Court of
Justice.

On January 20, 1649, a *High Court of Justice*—consisting of one hundred and thirty-three members, and presided over by John Bradshaw, an eminent lawyer—assembled in Westminster Hall to try the king. Never was there a more august assemblage in that historic old edifice. The counsel for the Commons opened the case by stating that "Charles Stuart, being admitted King of England and intrusted with a limited power, yet, from a wicked design to erect an unlimited and tyrannical government, has traitorously and maliciously levied war against the present Parliament and the people whom they represent, and is therefore impeached as a tyrant, traitor, murderer and a public and implacable enemy to the Commonwealth."

Impeach-
ment of
Charles I.

Conduct
of Lady
Fairfax.

When, during the calling of the roll of the members of the court, the name of General Sir Thomas Fairfax was mentioned, a voice cried out from among the spectators: "He has more wit than to be here!" When the article of impeachment was read, declaring that the king was accused in the name of the people of England, the same voice replied: "Not a tenth part of them!" The soldiers were ordered to fire at the spot whence the voice had proceeded; but when it was discovered that the voice was that of Lady Fairfax, they, in consideration of her sex and rank, did not fire. Lady Fairfax had been an ardent politician, and had urged her husband to oppose the king on the battlefield; but now, perceiving that the struggle was likely to end in the sacrifice of the



CHARLES I INSULTED BY THE SOLDIERS OF CROMWELL

From the Painting by Paul Delaroche

king and in the exaltation of Oliver Cromwell, both she and her husband heartily repented of the part they had taken against their sovereign.

Charles I. appeared more majestic in this hour of peril than he had ever appeared in the days of his power and prosperity. He replied with dignity, but with mildness. As the "Lord's Anointed," he persistently denied the jurisdiction of the court, claimed himself to be beyond the power of all courts and all Parliaments, and obstinately reasserted that his kingly rights were derived from the "Supreme Majesty of Heaven." There is no doubt that Charles I. firmly and sincerely believed what he asserted, and that he thought he was only guarding a sacred trust which God had conferred upon him, contrary as this theory was to the entire spirit of the English Constitution, as well as destructive to the safety and just rights of the English people. Thirty-two witnesses were examined; and, on January 27, 1649, after a trial of seven days, the royal prisoner was declared guilty and was condemned to death as "a tyrant, traitor, murderer and public enemy." The death-warrant was signed two days later, and the king was ordered to prepare for death the next day.

**Trial and
Conviction
of
Charles I.**

The Scots protested against this trial of their hereditary sovereign; the French and Dutch ambassadors at London interceded in the king's behalf; and the Prince of Wales sent a blank sheet of paper, with his name and seal affixed, upon which Parliament might write any terms it chose as the price of sparing his father's life. But all was in vain, as the Commons were inexorable.

**Fruitless
Efforts
to Save
Him.**

On his way through the hall, upon entering and leaving the courtroom, during the sessions of the trial, the fallen king was insulted by the soldiery and the mob, who cried out: "Justice! justice! execution! execution!" Upon one of these occasions, one more rude than his companions even went so far as to spit in the king's face. The king bore all their insolence with patience, saying: "Poor souls, they would treat their generals the same way for a sixpence." Some of the populace expressed their sorrow in sighs and tears. One soldier, more compassionate than his fellows, uttered a blessing in the king's behalf; whereupon an officer struck the soldier to the ground. The king, observing this affair, said: "The punishment, methinks, exceeds the offense."

**He Is
Insulted
by the
Soldiers.**

On the day preceding the execution, Charles I. was permitted to see his son Henry and his daughter Elizabeth. His other two sons, Charles and James, were in Holland; and his other daughter, Henrietta, was in France. Henry was only seven years old. His father said to this little boy as he sat upon his knee: "Mark, my child, what I say. They will cut off my head, and will want, perhaps, to make thee king;

**His Sad
Farewell
to His
Family.**

but thou must not be king so long as thy brothers Charles and James are alive. Therefore, I charge thee, do not be made a king by them." The child, in his innocence, looked earnestly into his father's face, and exclaimed: "I will be torn in pieces first!" This answer made the king shed tears.

Execu-
tion of
Charles I.

King Charles I. was taken to the place of execution, in front of the palace of Whitehall, January 30, 1649. He ascended the scaffold with a firm step; and in his last moments he reasserted his "divine rights," and declared that "the people have no right to any part in the government, that being a thing nothing pertaining to them." Addressing those around him, he declared himself innocent toward his people and forgave his enemies. Turning to Bishop Juxon, he said: "I go from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can take place." The bishop replied: "You exchange a temporal for an eternal crown; a good exchange." The king then laid his head upon the block, saying to Bishop Juxon: "Remember." One of the executioners then cut off the king's "gray and discrowned head"; and the other, holding it aloft, exclaimed: "This is the head of a traitor!" Many of the spectators wept at the horrid spectacle, and a groan of pity and horror proceeded from the vast multitude.

"Day of
King
Charles
the
Martyr."

The execution of Charles I. aroused horror and indignation throughout Europe, and the English ambassadors in the different European capitals were driven away or murdered. From 1660 to 1859 the 30th of January was commemorated annually as the "Day of King Charles the Martyr," by special services in the Church of England, and by solemn mourning on the part of the English royal family.

Remark
on the
Execu-
tion.

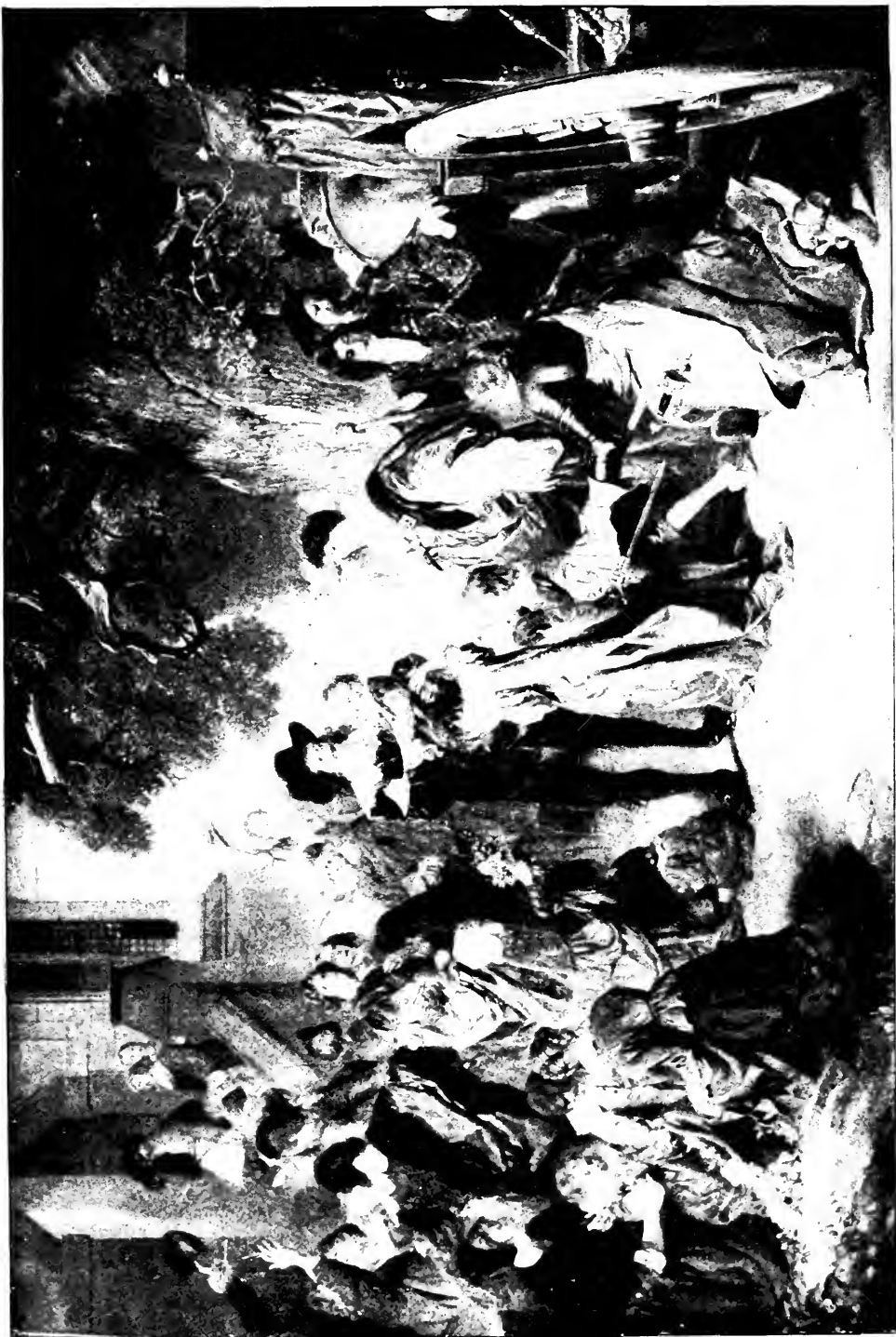
Charles I. was the only King of England who was condemned to death and executed under the sentence of the law. This was not a time for calm measures, when England was in the throes of a great political revolution. The proper course would have been to depose the king, as he had violated his coronation oath. Charles I. fell a victim to the spirit of the age, which he persisted obstinately in refusing to understand.

SECTION III.—THE COMMONWEALTH AND THE PROTECTORATE (A. D. 1649–1660).

Abolition
of Mon-
archy.

A FEW days after the execution of Charles I., the monarchy and the House of Lords were abolished by the Commons; and the "Rump Parliament," upheld by Oliver Cromwell and the army, governed the country. The new republic was styled *The Commonwealth of England*. The Commons declared it high treason to acknowledge the Prince of

Common-
wealth of
England



CHARLES I WITH HIS CHILDREN AT MAIDENHEAD

From the Painting by M. Adams

Wales King of England, and ordered a new Great Seal to be engraved with the legend: "The first year of freedom by God's blessing restored, 1648." In the year 1633 an equestrian statue of brass had been erected in honor of Charles I. Parliament now ordered this, the first equestrian statue in England, to be broken in pieces and sold for old brass.

**King's
Statue
De-
stroyed.**

The execution of Charles I. involved Parliament in a new and greater difficulty, and perils gathered thick and fast around the new Republic of England. The Dutch Republic hastened to recognize Prince Charles, who was then living in exile at The Hague, as King of England. At home the royalists, who had been beaten into silence, looked with deadly hatred and indescribable disgust upon the Puritan Republic, and only waited for a favorable opportunity to make an effort to restore the fallen monarchy. But the first attempts at a royalist rising were sternly crushed by Cromwell's iron hand. A most menacing spirit had begun to infect the army, which would have caused the wildest excesses if not checked. An extreme faction of the army, called *Levelers*, because they held the socialistic doctrine that all men should be "leveled" to an equality in rank and property, broke out into open mutiny; but this outbreak was sternly quelled by Cromwell's vigorous hand.

**The
Puritan
Republic
of
England
and Its
Diffi-
culties.**

**Royalist
Hostility.**

**The
Levelers.**

The royalists in England, Scotland and Ireland considered Prince Charles his father's legitimate successor. Though no formidable royalist rising was undertaken in England for the time, the royalists in Ireland raised the standard of the Stuarts; while the Covenanters of Scotland, who had bound themselves to the support of monarchy, also proclaimed Prince Charles in their country. These Irish and Scotch rebellions against the English Commonwealth demanded very prompt action on the part of the republican Parliament and its great general. The strength of the Puritan Independents was in their army of fifty thousand men, and in the iron will of Oliver Cromwell, who was now appointed Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

**Prince
Charles
and the
Irish
Royalists
and the
Scotch
Cove-
nanters.**

The royalist rebels in Ireland, under the direction of the Marquis of Ormond, speedily took every town except Dublin. Cromwell crossed over into that island with twelve thousand troops, fully resolved to stamp out every vestige of rebellion and to establish fully the authority of the English Commonwealth. His campaign was short but terrible, and it resulted in the first thorough English conquest of the Emerald Isle. He began his Irish campaign by taking Drogheda by storm, and massacred its garrison of three thousand men, in stern retaliation for the massacre of the English and Scotch Protestant settlers in Ireland in 1641. Wexford was also taken by storm and its garrison put to the sword. Terrified by this severity, town after town opened its gates to Crom-

**Crom-
well's
Conquest
of
Ireland.**

**Reduction
and Mas-
sacres of
Drogheda
and
Wexford.**

well, or fell before his assaults if it offered any resistance. The memory of Ulster nerved every arm and hardened every heart in Cromwell's army for the dreadful work of vengeance, and every Irish royalist taken with arms in his hand was put to death.

**Irish
Migra-
tions.**

At the end of a campaign of nine months, in 1649 and 1650, Cromwell had so completely subdued Ireland that he was able to return to England to take the field against the Scotch Covenanters, leaving his son-in-law, General Ireton, in command in Ireland. Under the sway of the English Commonwealth, all the discontented and conquered Irish chiefs that desired to do so were allowed to leave their country and to enter the service of foreign monarchs. Accordingly the Marquis of Ormond and more than forty thousand Irish royalists enlisted in the armies of France, Spain and Austria. Large numbers of the vanquished Irish were shipped to the Barbadoes; and many of the Irish landholders who had borne arms against the English Parliament were removed to lands assigned to them in the province of Connaught and in County Clare; while Parliamentary soldiers and many other English colonists were settled in the provinces of Ulster, Munster and Leinster. As the most troublesome elements of the native population were thus drawn off, Ireland enjoyed such tranquillity as she had not experienced for centuries, but the country became a land of beggars.

**English
Colonists
in
Ireland.**

**Over-
throw
and
Execution
of the
Marquis
of
Montrose.**

In Scotland, in the meantime, the brave and loyal Lord Marquis of Montrose had roused the Highlanders in favor of Prince Charles; but he was defeated and betrayed into the power of the Covenanters, who took him to Edinburgh and hanged him without a trial. Prince Charles disavowed the enterprise of the Marquis of Montrose after being informed of its failure, though it had been undertaken with his approval and also with his promise of support.

**Prince
Charles in
Scotland.**

The Scots allowed Prince Charles to land in their country and agreed to acknowledge him as King Charles II. only on condition that he should sign the Covenant, enter the Presbyterian Church and accept a limited royal prerogative. After some hesitation, the prince agreed to these terms, left Holland and made his appearance in Scotland. The daily and hourly sermons and exhortations to which he was subjected by the zealous Scots appeared to the gay young prince to be a dear price to pay for his comfortless crown. He was obliged to issue a proclamation declaring himself humbled in spirit and afflicted for his father's tyranny and for his mother's idolatry. But with all this, none trusted him, so that he was only a nominal king, while the Scottish Parliament continued to exercise all the real power in that country.

**Cromwell
Sent
against
the Scots.**

Cromwell, who had received the thanks of Parliament after reducing Ireland to submission, and who had been created Captain-General of all the troops in England, was sent to subdue the Scots also; and he at

once invaded Scotland with a large army. At the head of sixteen thousand troops, Cromwell marched against the Scotch Covenanters, but many of his troops died from hunger and sickness on the way. At Dunbar, Cromwell, with only twelve thousand men, was opposed by twenty-seven thousand Scotch Covenanters, who considered victory certain. The Scotch preachers endeavored to prove from the Old Testament that the Covenanters would conquer, and urged an attack upon Cromwell's army. When Cromwell saw the Scots advancing, he exclaimed: "The Lord has delivered them into our hand!" A furious battle ensued on September 3, 1650, and Cromwell gained a glorious victory. The Scotch troops threw down their arms and fled in every direction, after losing four thousand killed and wounded and ten thousand prisoners.

**Battle of
Dunbar.**

While Cromwell was still in Scotland, Prince Charles, with a body of Scotch troops, marched into England, and was joined by a considerable number of English royalists. Cromwell at length advanced against the prince; and on September 3, 1651, exactly one year after the battle of Dunbar, was fought the battle of Worcester, in which Cromwell gained another brilliant victory. The royal army was hopelessly annihilated. Prince Charles fled from the field and became a fugitive.

**Prince
Charles in
England.**

**Battle of
Worcester.**

Thus left alone in the very heart of England, with Cromwell's troops occupying every road and scouring the country in search of the fugitive prince, Charles was in a most perilous situation. For six weeks he wandered in various disguises and through innumerable dangers, hiding by day and journeying by night. At one time, while concealed in the thick branches of an oak, he saw and heard his pursuers pass beneath him. A large reward was offered to any one who would betray the prince, and those who concealed him were threatened with death; but forty men and women, chiefly poor laborers, at different times concealed him. Finally he reached Shoreham, on the southern coast of England, where he embarked for France, in which country he arrived safely and became a pensioner of his young cousin, King Louis XIV.

**Adventures and
Escape of
Prince
Charles.**

General Monk, whom Cromwell had left in command in Scotland, subdued that kingdom in a campaign as terribly severe as that of Cromwell in Ireland. The inhabitants of Dundee were massacred; and Aberdeen and many other towns and fortresses of Scotland surrendered to the forces of the English Commonwealth.

**Conquest
of
Scotland
by
General
Monk.**

General Ireton, Cromwell's son-in-law, completed the conquest of Ireland, but died at Limerick, and was succeeded in his command by General Ludlow. The Puritan colonies in New England rejoiced in the triumph of their party in the Mother Country, and the other English colonies in North America were forced to acknowledge the Commonwealth.

**The
English
Colonies
in North
America.**

**Power
of the
English
Common-
wealth.**

After a half century of humiliation under the first two Stuarts, England now had a government that could command order at home and respect abroad, as in the "golden days of Good Queen Bess." For the first time in English history the war-making power was in the same hands as the purse-strings; and the abolition of rank and titles opened a freer career to all talents and energies, so that men who in previous times might have lived and died in obscurity now rose to high commands. Among these was Admiral Blake, whose brilliant achievements gave the English navy a renown which it had never before possessed.

**Admiral
Blake's
Cruises.**

Prince Rupert was at this time cruising in the Atlantic. Admiral Blake forced him to seek shelter in the Tagus; and when King John IV. of Portugal refused to admit Blake's pursuing fleet Blake took revenge by seizing twenty richly-laden vessels belonging to the Portuguese king, who was allowed to renew his alliance with England only by making the most humble apology and submission.

**Navigation
Act.**

The neighboring Republic of Holland was the next to feel the power of the English Commonwealth. The passage of the celebrated *Navigation Act* by the English Parliament, October 9, 1651, prohibiting foreigners from bringing into England in their own ships anything but their own productions, operated injuriously to the Dutch, whose country was small, but whose merchant fleet was the largest in the world, and who subsisted largely by the carrying trade between foreign ports. The final result of this arbitrary measure was a fierce and bloody naval war between the Republics of England and Holland.

**England's
First
Naval
War
with the
Dutch
Republic.**

The English required the ships of other nations to lower their flags in British waters. The English fleet under Admiral Blake met the Dutch fleet under Van Tromp in the Downs. Blake fired three guns as a signal for the Dutch admiral to salute the English fleet by lowering his flag; but, instead of giving this customary salute, Van Tromp answered Blake's signal with a broadside. The fight that ensued between the two fleets led to a declaration of war against the Dutch Republic by the English Commonwealth in May, 1652.

**Blake's
Defeat
by Van
Tromp.**

In this naval war between the two republics twelve great battles and many smaller encounters ensued between their respective fleets. In an obstinate battle off the Goodwin Sands, near Dover, November 29, 1652, Blake was defeated and wounded with the loss of five ships taken or destroyed, and was obliged to seek shelter in the Thames. After gaining this victory, the Dutch admiral Van Tromp sailed up and down the English Channel with a broom at his masthead, to signify his intention of sweeping the English from the seas.

A desperate battle of three days occurred in the English Channel, off Portland, in February, 1653, between the English fleet of eighty vessels under Admiral Blake and General Monk and the Dutch fleet of seventy-

six vessels under the great admirals Van Tromp and De Ruyter; ending in an English victory, the Dutch being crippled so thoroughly that the English were for several months undisputed masters of the seas. In June of the same year (1653) the Dutch fleet under Van Tromp was defeated off the North Foreland by the English fleet under Admiral Blake; and in July following (1653) Van Tromp was defeated and killed in a battle off the Texel with the English fleet under General Monk, who proved to be as good a commander on sea as on land. These three great English naval victories impoverished the Dutch Republic and made the English Commonwealth mistress of the Channel and the neighboring seas.

**Blake's
Three
Great
Victories
over Van
Tromp
and De
Ruyter.**

In the meantime, while the war with Holland was raging, a quarrel had risen between Oliver Cromwell and the Long Parliament. This Parliament had now lasted thirteen years, during the last four of which it was but the fragment of a Parliament under the designation of the "Rump Parliament." This Parliament had ceased to represent the wishes of the English people, and all parties considered its longer continuance to be impolitic, but there was no power with the legal right to dissolve it.

**Crom-
well's
Rupture
with the
"Rump
Parlia-
ment."**

The odium attached to the "Rump Parliament" was increased by charges of corruption against its members in the appropriation of the public spoils. It had been hated by all denominations but its own from the very outset, and was fast becoming detested by its own sect and party. Cromwell became impatient at the selfishness and uncertainty that characterized the action of the "Rump Parliament," and urged a prompt "settlement of the nation" and an early dissolution. Parliament retaliated by a resolution to disband the army, but failed in the accomplishment of that purpose.

**Progress
of the
Quarrel.**

Finally there was an understanding that Parliament should soon dissolve and that the army should be disbanded, but Parliament soon manifested an inclination not to dissolve at all. In April, 1653, a proposition was made to call a new Parliament, in which all the members of the "Rump Parliament" should continue to hold seats, and also act as judges of the election of the new members. As a member of Parliament, Cromwell opposed this scheme.

**Final
Under-
standing
and Par-
liament's
Inclina-
tion.**

A mutual council held at the palace of Whitehall adjourned for one day with the understanding that no action be taken in the meantime. At the time appointed for the second meeting of the council almost all of the friends of the measure and all of its leaders were absent. A messenger soon made his appearance at Whitehall, bringing the announcement that the measure was under discussion in Parliament, and that Sir Henry Vane was fast pressing the bill to a final passage. Cromwell angrily exclaimed: "It is contrary to common honesty!"

**Parlia-
ment's
Action
and
Crom-
well's
Decision.**

He no longer hesitated; but, as he was secure in the attachment of the army, he resolved upon a decisive blow, a *coup d'état*.

Cromwell
in the
Parliament
House.

Cromwell accordingly left the council of officers at Whitehall, and hastened to the Parliament House with three hundred soldiers, April 20, 1653. Posting the soldiers in the lobby of the chamber, he entered and took his accustomed seat while Sir Henry Vane was still speaking in behalf of the bill under consideration. He said to St. John, one of the members: "I am come to do what grieves me to the heart." He, however, still sat quiet, until Sir Henry Vane pressed the House to waive its usual forms and pass the bill at once. Thereupon he said to Colonel Harrison: "The time has come." Harrison replied: "Think well, it is a dangerous work!" Cromwell listened quietly for a quarter of an hour longer, until the moment for decisive action on his part should arrive.

Cromwell
Scolds
the
Members.

At the question "that this bill do pass," Cromwell suddenly started up, exclaiming: "This is the time—I must do it!" Then addressing the members, he said: "Your hour is come! The Lord hath done with you! He hath chosen other instruments to do his work!" A crowd of members started to their feet in angry protest. Cromwell replied: "Come, come, we have had enough of this!" He then strode into the midst of the chamber, clapped his hat on his head, and exclaimed: "I will put an end to your prating!" The House was at once in an uproar. In the din and confusion, Cromwell was heard to exclaim: "It is not fit that you should sit here any longer! For shame, get you gone! You should give place to honest men—to men who will more faithfully discharge their duties! You are no longer a Parliament! I tell you, you are no longer a Parliament!"

His
Signal.

At this point Cromwell stamped his foot upon the floor as a signal, whereupon thirty musketeers entered the chamber. The fifty members present crowded to the door. As Wentworth passed him, Cromwell exclaimed: "Drunkard!" Martyn was taunted with a still coarser name. Sir Henry Vane was fearless to the last, and boldly told Cromwell that his act was "against all right and all honor." Cromwell exclaimed: "Ah, Sir Henry Vane, Sir Henry Vane! You might have prevented all this, but you are a juggler, and have no common honesty! The Lord deliver me from Sir Henry Vane!"

Cromwell
and Sir
Henry
Vane.

Dissolution
of
the Long
Parliament.

The Speaker refused to leave the chair until Colonel Harrison offered to lend him a hand to come down. Cromwell lifted the mace from the table, saying: "What shall we do with this bauble? Take it away!" As the members rushed out at the door, Cromwell exclaimed: "It is you that have forced me to do this. I have sought the Lord night and day that he would rather slay me than put me upon the doing of this work." After the hall had been cleared, Cromwell ordered the door to

be locked; and, putting the key into his pocket, he returned to Whitehall, undisputed master of England.

Thus ended the famous Long Parliament, April 20, 1653, after an existence of thirteen years. A few hours later its executive committee, the Council of State, was dissolved. When Cromwell summoned this committee to withdraw, John Bradshaw, one of its members, replied: "We have heard what you have done this morning at the House, and in some hours all England will hear it. But you mistake, sir, if you think the Parliament dissolved. No power on earth can dissolve the Parliament but itself, be sure of that!"

**Cromwell
and
Bradshaw.**

The "Rump Parliament" had become so unpopular that few appeared to have found fault with Cromwell's violent action. He was deluged with addresses of congratulation from the army, the navy and many of the counties. In alluding to this dissolution several years afterward, Cromwell remarked: "We did not hear a dog bark at their going."

**Cromwell
Congratulated.**

Oliver Cromwell was now virtually sole ruler of England, with more real power than any of her most absolute kings. To keep up the appearance of a Commonwealth, he summoned another Parliament, composed of Independents selected by a new Council of State from lists furnished by the Independent, or Congregational churches. This Parliament met July 4, 1653, and was called the *Little Parliament*, or the *Barebone Parliament*; one of its leading members being the leather-seller, "Praise God" Barebone, who was noted for his religious zeal and fanaticism.

**Barebone's
Parliament.**

The radical reforms of the Barebone Parliament in Church and State—such as a new code of laws, the establishment of civil marriage, the proposals to substitute the free contributions of congregations for the payment of tithes, and the scheme for the abolition of lay patronage—aroused the hostility of the lawyers, the clergy and the landed proprietors; all of whom accused Parliament of a design to ruin property, the Church and the law, and of being an enemy to knowledge and infected with a blind and ignorant fanaticism. Cromwell himself, who hated "that leveling principle" which tended to reduce all to one equality, also shared the general dissatisfaction with the proceedings of this Parliament. Said he: "Nothing is in the hearts of these men but 'overturn, overturn.'"

**Its
Radical
Reforms.**

Hume tells us that this Parliament, in its religious fanaticism, had adopted new names for its members, consisting of several words and sometimes of whole sentences, as "More-fruit" Fowler, "Good-reward" Smart, "Stand-fast-on-high" Stringer, "Fight-the-good-fight-of-faith" White; Barebone himself being named "Praise-God," while his brother received as his name, "If-Christ-had-not-died-for-you-you-

**Hume's
Account
of Its
Members'
Names.**

had-been-damned " Barebone, and as this was too long to say every time his name was mentioned he was generally called " Damned " Barebone.

Its
Resigna-
tion and
Dissolu-
tion.

The whole conduct of the Barebone Parliament was unsatisfactory; and, after appointing another Council of State consisting of eight members with Cromwell at its head, the members, agreeing that they had sat long enough, went, with Rouse, their Speaker, at their head, to Cromwell, and voluntarily resigned their power into his hands, December, 1653. Cromwell gladly accepted their resignations; and, being told that some of the members had determined to remain, he sent Colonel White with a body of troops to drive them from the house. The colonel, entering the hall, asked the refractory members what they were doing there. One Moyer, whom they had placed in the chair, replied: " We are seeking the Lord." White replied: " Then you may go elsewhere; for, to my certain knowledge, the Lord has not been here these many years." The members then withdrew from the hall, and Cromwell's authority was undisputed.

A New
Parlia-
ment.

The new Council of State summoned a Parliament to represent England, Scotland and Ireland; the right to vote for members of this Parliament being granted to all possessing property valued at two hundred pounds, excepting Roman Catholics and those who had borne arms in the royal cause during the Great Civil War between Charles I. and the Long Parliament.

Instru-
ment of
Govern-
ment.

Meanwhile, December 16, 1653, a new constitution, called the *Instrument of Government*, projected by General Lambert, was adopted by the Council of State, intrusting Oliver Cromwell with the supreme power, with the title of *Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland and Ireland*. But a strictly constitutional government was organized. The Lord Protector, whose power was conferred upon him for life, was to summon a Parliament once in three years, and to allow it to sit at least five months without prorogation. Parliament was empowered to levy taxes and to make the laws, subject for twenty days to the Lord Protector's veto. The Lord Protector was to consult the Council of State in the management of foreign affairs, in questions of peace and war and in the appointment of officers.

Oliver
Cromwell
as Lord
Pro-
tector.

Peace of
West-
minster.

One of Cromwell's first acts as Lord Protector was to bring the ruinous and destructive naval war between England and Holland to a close; and by the Peace of Westminster, in April, 1654, signed by Cromwell as Lord Protector of the English Commonwealth, the Dutch were required to lower their flag in salute to the English whenever vessels of the two nations met at sea.

In the writs for the election of the new Parliament it had been expressly stated that Parliament should not have power to change the government as conferred upon one person and a Parliament. When the

new Parliament assembled at Westminster in September, 1654, its first act was to take into consideration the organization of the government. After the question of the Lord Protector's vote power had been debated three days, Cromwell barred the way to the Parliament chamber by a file of soldiers, and turned back all who refused to sign an agreement not to change the form of government. Three hundred members signed this agreement, and were permitted to enter the chamber; but one hundred refused to sign, and were turned back. The signers observed their agreement, but refused to vote money for the army without a redress of grievances. Thereupon Cromwell, in a fit of anger, dissolved Parliament; and the Lord Protector became as absolute a ruler as Charles I. had been before the Great Civil War, levying taxes and making laws on his sole authority.

Cromwell's Quarrel with the New Parliament and Its Dissolution.

This state of things produced a powerful reaction in the public mind in England in favor of the restoration of monarchy. Faith in the fundamental principles of the English Commonwealth vanished, as the outward fabric of the Commonwealth crumbled under Cromwell's usurpations. Formidable royalist outbreaks occurred in various parts of England, but the Lord Protector's vigorous hand easily crushed these risings. This royalist revolt was punished by what was called the *decimation* of that party—a tax of the tenth penny on all their revenues. For the collection of this tax, England was divided into ten military districts, and each was placed under martial law, each of the ten major-generals who were placed over these districts respectively being authorized to imprison all whom they suspected. Scotland and Ireland were reduced to order, but the severities which the English soldiers practiced in Ireland have left their bitter fruit of undying hatred of English rule to the present day.

Royalist Reaction and Outbreaks.

As Lord Protector, Cromwell governed vigorously and successfully, and made himself feared and respected at home and abroad. England was never more prosperous than under his firm rule. Cromwell reformed the law and established uniformity in the administration of justice. He declared that "to hang a man for sixpence and pardon murder" did not accord with his idea of justice.

Irish Animosity.

Cromwell's Vigorous Rule.

He never deviated from the great principle of religious toleration, on which he took an early stand. He quietly permitted the Jews, who had remained banished from England ever since the reign of Edward I., to return, and exerted himself to his utmost to protect them from persecution. He also protected the new Puritan sect of the *Friends*, or *Quakers*, founded by George Fox, a Leicestershire shepherd, during the period of the civil wars.

His Protection of the Jews and Quakers.

Cromwell's crude but effective statesmanship displayed itself to its best advantage in his management of foreign affairs. He boasted that

Foreign
Respect
for
England
under
Crom-
well.

he would make the name of *Englishmen* as much feared and respected as had been that of *Roman*, and the uniform success of his military and naval enterprises went far to realize this saying. European monarchs, in whose capitals at the beginning of the Commonwealth the lives of English ambassadors were in peril, now earnestly sought the Lord Protector's alliance. He made his power felt and feared by the pirates of the Barbary coast who had terrorized the Mediterranean for more than a century, and by the Spaniards in Europe and America.

The
Piratical
Barbary
Powers
Humbled
by
Admiral
Blake.

Admiral Blake sailed into the Mediterranean with his fleet, and conquered all that ventured to oppose him. Casting anchor before Leghorn, he demanded and received satisfaction for some injuries which the Duke of Tuscany had inflicted upon English commerce. He next sailed to Algiers and forced the Dey to a treaty of peace and to restrain his piratical subjects from injuring the English any further. In 1655 Blake proceeded to Tunis, where he made the same demands. The Dey of Tunis desired the English admiral to look at the two castles, Porto Farino and Goletta, and to do his utmost. Blake showed him that he was ready to accept the challenge, entered the harbor of Tunis, burned the Dey's ships, and then sailed out of the harbor in triumph to pursue his voyage. Thus Admiral Blake cleared the sea of the pirates who had so long infested it, and secured the liberation of the captive Christians he'd in slavery in the Barbary states.

War with
Spain.

In 1655 the shrewd Cardinal Mazarin, the Prime Minister and virtual ruler of France during the minority of King Louis XIV., by flattering Cromwell, induced England to become the ally of France in a war against Spain. In 1655 Admiral Penn and General Venables conquered the island of Jamaica, in the West Indies, from the Spaniards; and that island ever since has belonged to England. Admiral Sir William Penn was the father of the founder of Pennsylvania.

Blake's
Victories
over the
Spanish
Fleets.

Admiral Blake captured two Spanish treasure galleons of immense value at Cadiz. In 1657 he defeated a fleet of Spanish merchant vessels and treasure galleons off the harbor of Santa Cruz, in the island of Teneriffe, under the cannon of their castle and seven forts; but this was the last conflict in which the great admiral engaged, as he died within sight of the English coast on his homeward voyage. Blake was an ardent republican, and he therefore opposed Cromwell's usurpation; but said he to his seamen: "It is still our duty to fight for our country, into whatever hands the government may fall."

English
Acquisi-
tion of
Dunkirk.

In 1658 an English force of six thousand men under General Reynolds joined the French in the Spanish Netherlands; and the important harbor and fortress of Dunkirk, which the allies took from the Spaniards, was ceded to England by France as a reward for the English aid in the war.

Under Cromwell, England again occupied the position which she had held under Elizabeth as the protectress of the Protestant interests in Europe. The Waldenses, or Vaudois, in the valleys of Piedmont and among the Alps, had suffered cruel persecutions from their ruler, the Duke of Savoy, many of them being cruelly massacred. Cromwell sent an envoy to the duke's court with haughty demands for redress, and was threatening earthly vengeance; while the Puritan poet, John Milton, called upon God to avenge his "slaughtered saints whose bones lie scattered on the Alpine mountains cold." A refusal of the Lord Protector's demands would have been followed by instant war, and so the Duke of Savoy desisted from his persecutions, being largely influenced thereto by Cardinal Mazarin, the French Prime Minister. This intervention, which saved the Vaudois from further massacre and persecution, pleased the English and commanded the respect of all Europe. Cromwell was resolved upon the protection of the Protestants of the Continent of Europe from persecution, and was ready to make the thunder of his cannon heard at the Castle of St. Angelo and the Vatican, if necessary to secure such protection.

Cromwell's Intervention in Favor of the Persecuted Vaudois.

In 1656 Cromwell summoned another Parliament. This Parliament voted supplies, but protested against the military despotism which prevailed in England. Cromwell at once withdrew the troops quartered in the ten military divisions. This Parliament offered to Cromwell its "Humble Petition and Advice" that he would assume the crown and the kingly title. This offer of the royal dignity was not intended so much as an additional honor to Cromwell as for the security and tranquillity of the nation.

Parliament Offers Cromwell a Crown.

An existing law provided that no subject should be accused of treason because of his allegiance to the king for the time being, however the crown might be disposed of afterward. No such security existed, in case of a Stuart restoration, for the supporters of the Lord Protector. But an acceptance of the crown by Cromwell, while it would have satisfied his moderate and timid partisans, would have offended the army and all staunch republicans; and for that reason Cromwell refused the title and emblems of royalty. He was, however, reinvested with the Lord Protectorship, with well-nigh royal ceremony—with the purple robe, the scepter and the sword—and was empowered to name his successor.

His Rejection of the Offer.

The Lord Protector was already worn out by the cares of state. Even his enemies conceded that his administration had been marked with almost unparalleled energy and success. His firm, wise and tolerant policy had put an end to the religious dissensions which had agitated England for more than a century. But in managing the prejudices of the nation, Cromwell had been more arbitrary and tyrannical in his

Cromwell's Arbitrary and Tyrannical Rule.

treatment of Parliament than even King Charles I. had ever been. The Lord Protector had also levied taxes without the consent of Parliament; and when one who had thus suffered appealed to the courts for legal redress, as John Hampden had done in 1637, his lawyers were arrested and imprisoned in the Tower. Although the Protectorate ably promoted the private interests of the English people, it was a despotism in form, and Cromwell was painfully aware of the fact.

Conspir-
acies
against
Crom-
well.

Cromwell's situation was not an enviable one. He was now equally hated by the royalists and the republicans, and many plots were formed against his power and his life. The emissaries of Prince Charles Stuart at Brussels or Cologne were active. Every hour added to Cromwell's disquietude. Lord Fairfax, Sir William Waller and many other Presbyterian leaders had secretly conspired to destroy him. His expensive and extravagant administration had exhausted his revenue and burdened him with debt. Cromwell's eldest daughter, Mrs. Fleetwood, the wife of General Fleetwood, whom she had married after the death of her first husband, General Ireton, was so violent a republican that she dreaded to see her father invested with supreme power. His favorite daughter, Mrs. Claypole, was a staunch royalist; and on her deathbed she reproached her father for overturning the monarchy. His other daughters, Lady Franconberg and Lady Rich, were also zealous royalists.

His
Daugh-
ters.

His Fear
of Assas-
sination.

Conspiracy after conspiracy embittered the last days of Cromwell's life. And finally, to render the Lord Protector's last days more miserable, Colonel Titus published a book entitled *Killing no Murder*, in which the assassination of Cromwell was held up as desirable and even meritorious. Said this writer: "Shall we, who would not suffer the lion to invade us, tamely stand to be devoured by the wolf?" Cromwell read this spirited pamphlet, and was never seen to smile again. Thereafter the Lord Protector was in constant fear of assassination. He wore armor under his clothes, and always carried pistols in his pockets. His countenance was gloomy, and he trusted no one. When he traveled out he was attended by a numerous guard. He never returned by the same road which he went, and he did not sleep more than three nights in the same room.

His
Death.

Cromwell was delivered from his miserable existence by an attack of ague, of which he died September 3, 1658—the anniversary of his great victories at Dunbar and Worcester, and a day which he had always regarded as the most fortunate of his life. Thus died the greatest man that England ever produced—a great general, statesman and ruler.

His
Great-
ness and
Motives.

There is a wide difference of opinion concerning Cromwell's character and motives. Personally he was a great man, having risen from the common walks of life until he acquired a renown truly royal, but he

still retained his Puritan simplicity and piety. Of course he was somewhat actuated by the promptings of ambition; but it is possible that he possessed a great, earnest soul, chiefly animated by a patriotic desire to promote the welfare of his country.

Had Cromwell been of royal blood, and had the English throne been his birthright, his administration would have been the pride and boast of Englishmen of all subsequent ages. But he has been obliged to bear the odium of all the extreme measures that followed the Great Civil War. His moderate counsels, however, availed to frustrate the wild schemes that always spring up in times of revolution and civil commotion, both when he was Captain-General of the Puritan army and when he was Lord Protector of the Commonwealth. He sometimes endangered his influence with his own soldiers and his prestige with his partisan followers by his conservatism.

**His
Modera-
tion and
Conserv-
atism.**

Seldom are armies composed of such positive minds as the Puritan soldiers of England in the days of the Commonwealth. Almost any one of them was able to preach to his fellows what they called a sermon, and each one also had his own ideas of government as well as of religion. Even such an iron will as that of Cromwell was not always able to direct and control such stiff-necked material. It has been said with great truth concerning his policy with his army, that "to ordinarily govern, Cromwell was sometimes compelled to submit."

**Character
of the
Puritan
Soldiers.**

Cromwell was far ahead of his time in some respects. In her treatment of the religious question, England is at the present time slowly moving along in the path which the great Lord Protector marked out for her more than two centuries ago. He had an intuitive sense of the English nation's ills and of the proper remedies to be applied. The wonderful success of his policy is the best evidence of the general correctness of his intuitions.

**Crom-
well's
Intui-
tions.**

The personal and constitutional elements were strangely mingled in Cromwell's government. Though ordinarily ruling in accordance with the laws, he did not hesitate to override or change them when they stood in his way. When Parliament failed to meet his expectations, he dissolved it, like Charles I.; and, like that king, he then ruled alone. But the parallel ends there. Charles I. ruled to uphold the royal prerogative. Cromwell ruled to promote the tranquillity and prosperity of England. But, while Cromwell lived, there was a universal feeling that the laws and the Constitution of England were always at the mercy of an individual will. However favorable to public order and national progress under a wise administration, such a system as Cromwell's was incompatible with a free constitution. Under a weak head anarchy would be the inevitable result, and under an ambitious one the natural consequence would be a despotism.

**Views
of His
Arbitrary
Rule.**

Royalist
Views.

Cromwell's enemies were unrelenting. In the view of priest and Churchman he was the very ideal of a fanatic, although he was the most tolerant man in England. In the opinion of Cavalier and nobleman he was simply an upstart and an interloper, though his administration was able and just, commanding the respect of all Christendom. The royalist considered him only a low-born usurper and a proper victim for every assassin's dagger, though he made England so great and powerful that the very name of *Englishman* became a shield to the humblest individual bearing it in any part of the civilized world.

His
Usurpa-
tion
and Its
Result.

Nevertheless, with all his patriotism, Cromwell was a usurper. Any ruler who can, even once, set aside an established constitution, or trample the recognized law under foot, is a usurper; and Cromwell did this at will. The English people had just overthrown a royal tyranny to preserve their constitutional liberties; but, when the violent despotism of the Stuart dynasty merely made room for Cromwell's milder despotism, English freedom was won only to be lost again. The legitimate result of Cromwell's usurpation in 1653 was the restoration of the Stuart monarchy in 1660, along with the disappearance of religious toleration and constitutional liberty for well-nigh a generation.

Richard
Cromwell
as Lord
Protector.

Richard Cromwell, Oliver's son, was proclaimed Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of Eng'land, upon his father's death; but Richard, who had no executive abilities or firmness whatever, and who was of a quiet and unambitious nature, found himself unable to hold in check the contending factions in Parliament and in the army, or to govern a people almost on the verge of rebellion. The tide of reaction was felt even in his Council of State, which at once cast aside one of the greatest of his illustrious father's reforms, and summoned a new Parliament on the old system of election. In the new House of Commons the republicans under Sir Henry Vane, adroitly backed by the royalists, violently assailed Cromwell's system. The fiercest attack of all was made by Sir Ashley Cooper, a Dorsetshire gentleman, who had changed sides during the Great Civil War, having first fought for King Charles I. and then for the Long Parliament, and who had been a member of Cromwell's Council of State and had recently ceased to be a member of that Council.

Sir
Henry
Vane
and Sir
Ashley
Cooper.

Cooper's
Violent
Attacks.

Sir Ashley Cooper denounced Oliver Cromwell as "His Highness of deplorable memory, who with fraud and force deprived you of your liberty when living and entailed slavery on you at his death." Cooper also made a virulent attack on the army in these words: "They have not only subdued their enemies, but the masters who raised and maintained them! They have not only conquered Scotland and Ireland, but rebellious England too; and there suppressed a Malignant party of magistrates and laws."

The army under Generals Lambert and Fleetwood—the latter of whom was Richard Cromwell's eldest sister's husband—then conspired against the new Lord Protector. The Commons at once ordered the dismissal of all officers who refused to engage “not to disturb or interrupt the free meetings of Parliament.” Richard Cromwell thereupon ordered the council of military officers to dissolve. They forced the new Lord Protector to dissolve Parliament. The army was resolved upon the overthrow of Richard Cromwell; and, rather than confront the crisis, Richard quietly resigned the Lord Protectorship, after holding it a few months, and retired to private life, early in 1659.

**Menacing
Attitude
of the
Army.**

**Richard
Crom-
well's
Resigna-
tion.**

After the resignation of Richard Cromwell, England was virtually without any government, and each party endeavored to obtain the supremacy. The “Rump Parliament,” which Oliver Cromwell had so violently dissolved in April, 1653, reassembled, and assumed the direction of national affairs. But this Parliament did not possess the confidence of any party. A royalist rising occurred in Cheshire under Sir George Booth. The nation was tired of military rule; and Sir Arthur Haslerig, encouraged by the temper of the troops in Scotland and Ire'and, made a demand in Parliament for the dismissal of Generals Fleetwood and Lambert from their commands. Thereupon the army under General Lambert dissolved Parliament by driving the members from Westminster. This was the end of the reconvened Long Parliament, and General Lambert then undertook the control of public affairs, A. D. 1659.

**Struggle
between
the
“Rump
Parlia-
ment”
and the
Army.**

It was now the settled conviction of many that nothing but the restoration of monarchy would free England from a state of anarchy. General Monk, who commanded the army in Scotland and who had long hated General Lambert, secretly formed the design of restoring the monarchy in the person of Prince Charles, the eldest son of the late unfortunate monarch; and at once entered into a correspondence with the prince, who was then living in Holland.

**General
Monk's
Secret
Design.**

As Governor of Scotland, General Monk assembled a convention at Edinburgh, and strengthened himself with money and recruits. He then advanced to Coldstream, whereupon the cry of “a free Parliament” spread over all England like wildfire. The cry was taken up by General Fairfax, who rose in arms in Yorkshire, and also by the fleet in the Thames and the mob of London. The army endeavored to check the tide of popular feeling by recalling the Commons; but it was too late, as the restoration of monarchy under the Stuart dynasty was fast becoming inevitable.

**His
March
from
Scotland.**

**Royalist
Reaction.**

So well did General Monk conceal his design that no one knew with which party he was acting, and he was enabled to march unopposed from Scotland to London, which city he entered February 3, 1660.

**General
Monk's
Secret
Action.**

General Lambert in the meantime had been imprisoned in the Tower by his own troops, who now joined Monk, having been deceived by that general's declaration of loyalty to the "good old cause." Monk had also protested his loyalty to the old "Rump Parliament," while he accepted petitions for a "free Parliament."

Conven-
tion-Par-
liament
of 1660.

At Ashley Cooper's instigation, the Presbyterian members of the Long Parliament, who had been excluded from the House of Commons by Colonel Pride's Purge, again forced their way into Parliament, and at once resolved upon a dissolution and the election of a new House of Commons. The new Convention-Parliament met April 25, 1660, and showed its Presbyterian temper by adopting the Solemn League and Covenant, and by drawing up terms upon which a restoration of monarchy under the Stuart dynasty might be assented to; but, in the midst of their deliberations, they found that they had been deceived and betrayed by General Monk, who had secretly negotiated with the exiled Prince Charles Stuart, who was then at Breda, in Holland; thus rendering all exaction of terms impossible.

General
Monk and
Prince
Charles
Stuart.

Monk's
Proposal
and Its
Popular
Recep-
tion.

On May 1, 1660, Monk threw off the mask by proposing to the Convention-Parliament, which had just been assembled, the restoration of the monarchy. This proposal was hailed with joy by the English people, who were tired of the condition of anarchy which had prevailed since the death of Oliver Cromwell. The House of Lords hastened to reinstate itself in its former dignity. In the "Declaration of Breda," the exiled Prince Charles Stuart promised a general amnesty, religious toleration, and satisfaction to the army—promises which were received with an outburst of popular enthusiasm throughout England.

Restora-
tion of
Mon-
archy.

The Convention-Parliament at once voted "that according to the ancient and fundamental laws of this kingdom, the government is, and ought to be, by King, Lords and Commons." The vote had hardly passed when Prince Charles Stuart landed at Dover, May 25, 1660. Four days later, May 29, 1660—his thirtieth birthday—he made his triumphal entry into London, amid the exultant shouts of the populace, and was on that memorable day solemnly crowned King of England, Scotland and Ireland with the title of CHARLES II. Puritan England ended with the Stuart Restoration, and all was restored as before.

Acces-
sion of
Charles
II.

"The
Downfall
of Puri-
tanism."

The thirty thousand veterans of the old Puritan army, drawn up at Blackheath to witness the return of young Charles Stuart to the land and throne of his father, was one of the most suggestive pictures in the annals of England. That spectacle can be truly termed "The Downfall of Puritanism." Those grim and stalwart veterans, who had controlled the destinies of England for almost a score of years—whose dauntless valor and irresistible charges had carried consternation into the ranks of the Cavaliers, the Scotch Covenanters and the Irish rebels

—stood like lifeless statues, while the pealing bells, the blazing bonfires and the exultant shouts of the populace welcomed the returning Stuart to the throne of his ancestors.

These Puritan soldiers had swept away the English throne, the House of Lords and the State Church of England, and had reorganized or dismissed the House of Commons as they saw fit. But now they were beaten without a battle, in the presence of the people, who were re-inspired with their old reverence for royalty. The old heroes of Marston Moor and Neasby, of Preston, of Dunbar and Worcester, now sadly and thoughtfully, but without a murmur, laid down their arms and quietly returned to their homes, thereafter to be distinguished from their neighbors only by greater industry and sobriety. Puritanism had its representative in Oliver Cromwell, and his usurpation of power was considered a Puritan usurpation. Puritanism became a political force, instead of a moral power, when Cromwell assumed the powers and dignity of royalty without the name, and when he governed England through his army instead of his Parliament; and therefore at Cromwell's death the downfall of Puritanism was inevitable.

As a political experiment, Puritanism had fallen never to rise again—had ended in utter failure and disgust; but as a religious system of national life it brought about the wildest outbreak of a moral revolt that ever convulsed England. But Puritanism was not dead. Its political death was merely a transformation. There now arose a nobler, a grander Puritanism, whose spirit and whose influence has fully manifested itself in two great works which have since been transmitted from generation to generation—John Bunyan's *Pilgrim's Progress*, that Puritan allegory which has been the most popular of all religious books; and John Milton's *Paradise Lost*, that Puritan epic which has been the most popular of all English poems.

Quiet Dis-
banding
of the
Puritan
Army.

Puritan
Trans-
forma-
tion.

Works of
Bunyan
and
Milton.

SECTION IV.—STUART RESTORATION AND REVOLUTION OF 1688 (A. D. 1660–1689).

FEW sovereigns ever ascended a throne under more auspicious circumstances than did CHARLES II. No English king was ever welcomed with so wild a delight as was he. The frenzied joy of the people of London was demonstrated by ringing bells, blazing bonfires, glad songs and shouts. The English people were relieved of great anxiety, as it had been doubtful who could take hold of the helm of state which Oliver Cromwell's strong hands had dropped; and Englishmen hoped that adversity and exile would have a tendency to make the young Stuart a wise and useful monarch.

Charles
II., A. D.
1660–
1685.

Popular
Rejoic-
ings at
His Ac-
cession.

Reasons
for the
Public
Joy.

Although Cromwell ruled with justice and made England glorious, the English people did not become reconciled to the practical despotism which he had established. Even republicans were reluctant to live under a government republican merely in name. As we have seen, under Richard Cromwell and after his resignation England was fast relapsing into anarchy. In fact, after his resignation England was virtually without a head, and even without a settled government. The monarchy had been abolished, and the republic had proven a failure. None could tell what would follow, but all saw very clearly that the Puritan army was the sole arbiter of the fate of England. The one fate to be dreaded was a succession of irresponsible military despots.

England's
Escape
from
Anarchy.

Puritans and Churchmen, republicans and royalists, perceived the abyss that yawned before them, and forgot their differences for a time. The only alternative for a peril that all could see but none could fathom was the restoration of the monarchy and the return of the Stuart dynasty. It was not, as has sometimes been asserted, the fickleness of the English people that caused them to welcome the return of the younger Charles Stuart to his father's throne with such unbounded enthusiasm; but it was their conscious and narrow escape from countless national woes.

Anti-
Puritan
Reaction.

The rule of the Puritans had been made irksome to the English people because of their extreme legislation. Piety, or its profession, had been made an essential qualification for office; while innocent amusements had been strictly prohibited. The restoration of monarchy was followed by the repeal of Puritan legislation, and the inevitable result was reaction and a great social revolution. At no other time was the dance around the May-pole on the village green so joyous as now, and Christmas festivities were resumed with more than their accustomed hilarity.

Popular
Disap-
pointment
with
Charles
II.

The reign of Charles II. would have been more peaceful and popular had he possessed but ordinary wisdom, and had his father's experience and his own early misfortunes taught him to study and respect the wishes of his subjects. But he violated all the promises which he had made, and disappointed all the expectations of the English people. Although they welcomed the removal of the unnatural restraints introduced by Puritanism, they were not prepared for the unbridled license that prevailed throughout the country after the Stuart Restoration. Very soon they were turning in disgust from the king whose accession they had hailed with such delight, and were wishing that they still had the great Lord Protector to rule over them.

The history of the stage most vividly illustrates the extent of this great social revolution. Under Puritan rule even the most innocent theatrical performances had been rigidly prohibited. After the Stuart

Restoration the theater was restored, foul and revolting, even destitute of a French refinement to its grossness. Real life in fashionable circles was reflected by the painted scenery and loose manners of the new stage. King Charles II. himself took the lead in the disgraceful revels of the royal court. The court furnished the standard of morality to the capital, whence the deadly contagion spread, infecting fashionable society throughout the entire kingdom. Religion became a byword, and morality became a mockery.

**Vulgarity
of the
Stage and
Fashion-
able Life.**

Says Macaulay concerning the corrupt state of fashionable society in England during the reign of Charles II.: "There have come over with him vices of every sort, and the basest and most shameful lust without love, servitude without loyalty, foulness of speech, dishonesty of dealing, grinning contempt of all things good and generous. The throne is surrounded by men whom the former Charles would have spurned from his footstool. The altar is served by slaves whose knees are supple to every being but God. Rhymers whose books the hangman should burn, panders, actors and buffoons, these drink a health and throw a main with the king; these have stars in their breasts and gold sticks in their hands; these shut out from his presence the best and bravest of those who bled for his house. Even so doth God visit those who know not how to value freedom."

**Macau-
lay's
State-
ment.**

The great mass of the English people, however, remained uncontaminated by this incoming tide of vice. Although Puritanism, as a political power, was dead, and its very name had become a jest among the now dominant Cavaliers, the minds and hearts of the English people had become too deeply imbued with the sturdy virtues and the deep religious spirit which were the very essence of Puritanism to be corrupted by the social pollution which followed in the wake of the Stuart Restoration. These Puritan virtues and this religious spirit still remained to mould English character and to modify English institutions, and are now the most precious inheritance of Englishmen.

**Perma-
nence of
Puritan
Virtues.**

Charles II. was thirty years old when he found himself so unexpectedly seated on the throne of England. He had an agreeable person, a polished address and a cheerful and engaging demeanor. His whole deportment tended to secure favor and popularity. His excessive indolence and love of pleasure made him hate business and leave the affairs of government to others. All that the new sovereign cared for was to live idly and jovially.

**Char-
acter of
Charles
II.**

The first measures of the new monarch gave general satisfaction to the English nation. Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, highly esteemed for his virtues, was placed at the head of the Ministry; and by his uprightness and prudence the government was conducted for some time with justice and moderation.

**Ministry
of the
Earl of
Claren-
don.**

**Act of
Oblivion
and In-
demnity.**

The Convention-Parliament which restored the monarchy in 1660 at the beginning of the new reign passed an *Act of Oblivion and Indemnity*, extending a general amnesty to all who had taken sides against King Charles I. during the Great Civil War, excepting the leaders who had been most directly concerned in procuring the death of Charles I. Of those brought to trial, thirteen were executed as regicides, and many were imprisoned for life, although Charles II. had practically promised to pardon all who voluntarily came forward and surrendered themselves. Many fled to foreign lands; three of them—Goffe, Whalley and Dixwell—finding refuge in the English colonies in America.

**Fate of
Regicides.**

**Trial of
Regicides.**

A court was organized for the trial of twenty-nine of the regicides. This court was partly composed of men who as Parliamentary leaders had been most active in bringing on the crisis, but who had no immediate part in the death of Charles I. The twenty-nine regicides who were brought before this court for trial were not permitted to make any defense. Their judges acted as witnesses against them. By a refinement of cruelty, the executioner, with his axes, was brought into court and seated beside the prisoners. The few witnesses against them were suborned, but almost all of the prisoners were condemned to death.

**General
Harrison
on
His Way
to the
Scaffold.**

The first of these regicides to suffer death was the good old republican general, Harrison, whose honest soldier-like appearance and gallant demeanor had disarmed the suspicion and even excited the involuntary admiration of Charles I. when that king was a captive. General Harrison was drawn on a hurdle from Newgate to Charing Cross, within sight of the palace of Whitehall, October 13, 1660. As he was borne along, his countenance was serene and even cheerful. A brutal wretch called out from the multitude: "Where is your good old cause now?" Harrison smiled as he put his hand on his breast, and said: "Here it is. I am going to seal it with my blood." On the way he said aloud several times: "I go to suffer upon account of the most glorious cause that ever was in the world."

**His
Address
on the
Scaffold.**

General Harrison ascended the high scaffold with a firm step, and there addressed the multitude of his revilers and accusers. Among other things he told them that, though he was unjustly charged with murder, he had always kept a good conscience both toward God and toward man; that he had no guilt upon his conscience, but comfort and consolation, and the blessed hope of eternal peace in the next world.

**His
Horrible
Execution.**

Then followed a most revolting scene. Harrison was cut from the gallows alive, and saw his own bowels thrown into a fire. He was then quartered; and his heart, still palpitating, was torn out and shown to the people. King Charles II. looked at this detestable scene from a short distance.

Two days later, October 15, 1660, John Carew suffered death in the same manner, declaring with his last breath that the cause of liberty would survive. The next day, October 16, 1660, Coke and Peters were also drawn to Charing Cross. In order to strike terror into the heart of the learned Coke, who had been the counsel for Parliament in the trial of Charles I., Charles II. caused the ghastly head of General Harrison, with the face exposed and turned toward him, to be carried in the same hurdle; but the brave Coke was animated with fresh courage at beholding the horrid sight. The good old Puritan preacher, Peters, was brought within the railing around the scaffold, and was thus obliged to see the quartering of Coke. When the executioner had gotten through with Coke he came to Peters, rubbing his bloody hands, and asked the old preacher how he liked that work: Peters replied that he was not in the least terrified, and he met death with a serene smile upon his countenance.

Execution of Carew, Coke and Peters.

Scenes as revolting characterized the execution of the other regicides who had been condemned to death. All died with firmness, glorying in the cause of liberty for which they now suffered on the scaffold. Among the number was Sir Henry Vane. The bold and determined attitude of those who suffered, and their addresses from the scaffold to the multitudes before them, produced their natural effect upon the people. Popular sympathy turned in favor of the executed regicides, and thus their execution was demonstrated to have been a political blunder.

Execution of Sir Henry Vane and Others.

Says Burnet: "Though the regicides were at that time odious beyond all expression, and the trials and executions of the first that suffered were run to by vast crowds, and all people seemed pleased with the sight, yet the odiousness of the crime came at last to be so much flattened by the frequent executions, and by most of those who suffered dying with so much firmness and show of piety, justifying what they had done, not without a seeming joy for their suffering on that account, that the king was advised not to proceed farther, or at least not to have the scene so near the court as Charing Cross."

Burnet's Statement.

Oliver Cromwell, though dead, was regarded as a proper object of revenge. His body, and those of Ireton and Bradshaw, were torn from their tombs in Westminster Abbey, and hung upon the gallows at Tyburn, the place for the execution of the lowest malefactors. This base and silly revenge upon the lifeless remains of these three great leaders of the Puritan Commonwealth furnished a mark for the drunken insults of those who feared them when they were living. Their remains were thrown into a deep pit at Tyburn, and the bodies of Pym and Blake were also cast out of Westminster Abbey into St. Margaret's churchyard. Indignities were also offered to the bodies of Cromwell's

Indignities to the Bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, Bradshaw, Pym and Blake.

mother and his eldest daughter, the last of whom had been the wife of General Ireton and General Fleetwood successively; though both women had been models of female domestic virtue.

Milton's
Dismissal.

Charles II. also let the weight of his displeasure fall upon the illustrious Puritan poet, John Milton, one of the best and greatest men of the age, who had been Cromwell's Latin secretary. Milton was now deprived of all his employments, and narrowly escaped with his life, for having written a noble *Defense of the English People* in their controversy with Charles I. General Monk was rewarded for his treason to his late republican associates by being created Duke of Albemarle and generalissimo.

Monk's
Reward.

Royalist
Dissatis-
faction.

The Act of Oblivion and Indemnity restored to the royalists the estates which the Commonwealth had confiscated, except when the transfer had been made by sale; but this act gave the royalists no redress for other losses. For this reason the dissatisfied Cavaliers called it "one of oblivion to the king's friends and indemnity to his enemies," as many of them had been mulcted without mercy under the Commonwealth, and many had been compelled to give up their estates to meet the necessities of the government.

Last
Vestige
of the
Feudal
System
Abol-
ished.

The Convention-Parliament abolished the last vestige of the Feudal System—the tenure of lands by knight service, including the wardships of minors and the marriage of heiresses; which had been adequate sources of revenue to the king, and instead of which he now received a life-grant of one million two hundred thousand pounds.

The
Cavalier
Parlia-
ment.

The dissolution of the Convention-Parliament and a new election resulted in the return of the *Cavalier Parliament* of 1661, which endeavored by successive acts to restore Episcopacy as the state religion of England. The Solemn League and Covenant was ordered to be burned by the public hangman. Charles II. himself became an Episcopalian, and declared that "Presbyterianism is no religion for a gentleman."

Corpora-
tion Act.

The *Corporation Act*, passed by the Cavalier Parliament, required all public officials to worship in accordance with the usages of the State Church of England, to renounce the Covenant, and to take an oath denying the right of a subject to resist the king under any circumstances whatever. A new *Act of Uniformity*, passed by the same Parliament, required all the clergy to adopt the Book of Common Prayer and to assent to all its contents, on penalty of ejection from their livings. Two thousand Puritan clergymen were ejected from their livings on the anniversary of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew for refusing to comply with this Act of Uniformity.

Act of
Uniform-
ity.

Conven-
ticle Act.

The *Conventicle Act*, another measure of the Cavalier Parliament, forbade the meeting of more than five persons at one place and time

for worship, except by the use of the liturgy; and the *Five Mile Act*, also passed by this Parliament, forbade any dispossessed clergyman to appear within five miles of any town or of his former parish, and excluded all such Nonconformist and Dissenting clergymen from the work of instructing the young, dooming them to penury and even to starvation and death. The penalties for violation of these statutes were fines, imprisonment and banishment; and English prisons were soon filled with Puritan offenders, among whom was John Bunyan, who was incarcerated for twelve years in Bedford jail, during which he wrote *Pilgrim's Progress*.

Five Mile Act.

Bunyan's Imprisonment.

The Cavalier Parliament also passed an act for the suppression of the Quakers, who were particularly odious on account of their refusal to bear arms or take oaths. Their founder, George Fox, suffered the most unrelenting persecution, his meetings being broken up and himself imprisoned. In the course of a few years twelve thousand Quakers were in prison.

Persecution of George Fox and His Quakers.

Although Charles II. had solemnly signed the Scotch Covenant at Scone on New Year's Day, 1651, thus pledging himself to maintain the Presbyterian religion in Scotland, he was no sooner securely established on the thrones of England and Scotland than he not only turned Episcopalian himself, but also resolved to force his Scotch subjects to accept Episcopacy. The Earl of Lauderdale was sent to Scotland as Governor with unlimited powers to carry out the king's will, and he was aided by a Privy Council; while a body of troops, called the *Life-guard*, was enlisted to maintain the royal authority and to sustain its agents.

Attempt to Force Episcopacy on Scotland.

The "Drunken Parliament" of Scotland far surpassed the Convention and Cavalier Parliaments of England in its loyalty to King Charles II., annulling all the acts of preceding Scottish Parliaments for twenty-eight years, and ordering the Marquis of Argyle and the famous divine James Guthrie, the leaders of the Covenanters, to be seized and executed in May, 1661. Episcopal bishops were appointed for Scotland, and James Sharp was created Archbishop of St. Andrews and Primate of Scotland.

The "Drunken Parliament" of Scotland.

In 1662 the Scotch Parliament passed an act requiring all officers of the crown in Scotland to sign a declaration that the Covenant was an illegal oath, and therefore not binding. All clergymen in Scotland were required to be reinstated in their livings by a bishop. Those who refused were ordered to resign their churches and to remove with their families from their parishes. Thereupon three hundred and fifty Presbyterian ministers resigned, and were followed by their congregations into the open fields, where they held religious services in accordance with the dictates of their consciences.

Dismissal of Presbyterian Preachers.

**Cruel
Persecu-
tion of
Scotch
Cove-
nanters.**

The Scotch Parliament enacted severe laws to force the Presbyterian clergymen to discontinue their preaching and to compel the Covenanters to attend their parish churches, in which the Episcopal service was now conducted. The arbitrary Court of High Commission was revived, and a most cruel and unrelenting warfare was commenced against all Scots who refused to conform to the standard of the Episcopal State Church of England. Soldiers were posted at the various centers in Scotland to compel the Covenanters to attend the worship of the Established Church and to collect fines from non-attendants. The royal troops attacked the "conventicles," as the open-air meetings of the Covenanters were called by the Episcopalians, and hunted the Covenanters through the country, cruelly torturing or executing them when they captured them, sparing neither age nor sex in these relentless persecutions.

**Brutal
Massa-
cres and
Tortures.**

The faithful Covenanters, when driven from the open fields, armed for self-defense and held secret meetings in the woods at midnight, where they were sometimes surprised and mercilessly massacred by English soldiers. Many an awful death by slow and cruel torture, many a sad and lingering one in dark and dreary dungeons, occurred in the sea-girt prison of Bass Rock and the gloomy walls of Dumbarton Castle.

**Out-
breaks
and In-
creased
Perse-
cutions.**

The cruelties of the royal troops caused several outbreaks of the Covenanters. An impotent rising of the persecuted Covenanters in the vicinity of Edinburgh in 1662 was seized upon as a pretext for the most barbarous legislation against them on the part of the Scotch Parliament. The unfortunate Covenanters became the victims of the most dreadful cruelty, the thumb-screw and the "boot" being common instruments of torture.

**Con-
stancy
and
Devotion
of the
Scotch
Cove-
nanters.**

Thenceforth until the Revolution of 1688 the Scotch Covenanters maintained their faith amidst persecutions and sufferings which shock the mind. The prisons of Scotland were filled with Covenanters. Archbishop Sharp was generally regarded as the one responsible for this cruel persecution. The most formidable uprising of the Covenanters was crushed in the battle of Pentland in 1666.

**King
Charles
II. Not
a Perse-
cutor.**

The persecutions of the Puritans of England and the Covenanters of Scotland were the acts of the royalist Councils and the Parliaments of the two kingdoms, as the careless nature of King Charles II. rendered him unfit for a persecutor. So far as he was personally concerned, the king was a Roman Catholic, if anything; and he sometimes insisted upon indulgence for Dissenters and Nonconformists, in order to shield Catholic "Recusants." But the disgraceful licentiousness of his court alarmed and disgusted even his best friends and staunchest adherents.

In 1662 King Charles II. married Catharine of Braganza, a daughter of King Afonso VI. of Portugal. Tangier, in the north-western corner of Africa, and Bombay, in Hindoostan, were ceded to England by Portugal as the new queen's dowry. As Tangier was of no practical use it was soon abandoned, while Bombay was bestowed upon the English East India Company.

**Marriage
of Charles
II.**

The king's Portuguese marriage aroused popular dissatisfaction in England; but the English people were aroused to the greatest indignation when Charles II. sold Dunkirk to France, thus parting with this foreign acquisition of England in Cromwell's time, to replenish his coffers, which were constantly exhausted notwithstanding the lavish revenues which Parliament granted him. The English people regarded the sale of Dunkirk to France by Charles II. as the greatest national disgrace that had befallen them since the loss of Calais to the same foreign power during the reign of "Bloody Mary" little more than a century before.

**Sale of
Dunkirk
to France.**

The English people were also dissatisfied when King Charles II. involved them in a useless naval war with Holland, in 1664. This war was caused by the rivalry of the English and Dutch merchants seeking a monopoly of the trade in ivory and gold-dust on the coast of Guinea, in Western Africa. The principal English naval commanders in this war were the king's brother James, Duke of York; Prince Rupert of the Palatinate, so famous as a royalist general under Charles I. in the Great Civil War; and the Duke of Albemarle, formerly General Monk.

**Second
Naval
War
with the
Dutch
Republic.**

In 1664 an English fleet sent to America conquered the Dutch colony of New Netherlands, taking its capital, New Amsterdam. King Charles II. granted the conquered Dutch province to his brother James, Duke of York, as a reward for his services in the war. The name of New Amsterdam was then changed to *New York*, as was also the name of the entire province of New Netherlands, while the name of Fort Orange, on the Hudson, was changed to *Albany*. In 1665 an English fleet under the Duke of York won a signal victory over the Dutch fleet under Opdam off Lowestoff, on the coast of Suffolk.

**English
Conquest
of New
Nether-
lands.**

While the war with Holland was in progress London suffered two great calamities. In the summer of 1665 the plague, which at that period always was lurking in the suburbs and in the undrained and narrow alleys, spread over the city and in six months destroyed the lives of one hundred thousand of its inhabitants; and grass grew in streets that had been the busy marts of trade. Early in September, 1666, a great fire which raged three days reduced two-thirds of the city to ashes, destroying thirteen thousand dwellings and ninety churches, and leaving two hundred thousand of the population utterly destitute. This latter calamity was a blessing in disguise, as it destroyed the

**Great
Plague
and
Great
Fire in
London.**

filthy sections of the city still infected with the plague; and in time well-drained streets and more commodious dwellings had taken the place of narrow lanes and wretched hovels. Among the buildings destroyed was St. Paul's Cathedral; and the rebuilding of this splendid edifice was the work of the great architect, Sir Christopher Wren.

Licentiousness
of King
Charles
II.

These awful calamities had no effect on the king, who all the time was plunging deeper and deeper into luxury, extravagance and vice. He misused the money which Parliament had granted him for the prosecution of the war with the Dutch Republic, lavishing it upon his worthless favorites and his mistresses, thus leaving his ships to decay, while their unpaid crews mutinied. Charles II. is charged with having brought on this war for the sole purpose of obtaining money for his vile pastimes.

Franco-Dutch
Alliance.

In January, 1666, King Louis XIV. of France entered into an alliance with Holland and declared war against England, sending six thousand men to aid the Dutch, who also had the alliance of Denmark. The Dutch fleet defeated the English fleet in a severe battle of four days off the North Foreland, June 11-14, 1666; but the English navy afterward won a victory over the Dutch. During the progress of the negotiations for peace in 1667 the Dutch fleet under De Ruyter, taking advantage of the weakened condition of the English navy in consequence of the misappropriation of the funds voted by Parliament, sailed boldly up the Thames and the Medway, burned many ships at Chatham, bombarded and captured Sheerness and threatened London, whose inhabitants heard the roar of foreign guns for the first time.

Battle of
North
Foreland.

Dutch
Fleet
in the
Thames.

Peace of
Breda.

Louis XIV. of France, who only wanted the two great maritime powers to exhaust each other, now deserted the Dutch Republic; and peace was signed at Breda, in Holland, July 31, 1667, thus ending this second naval war between England and Holland. By the Peace of Breda, the English retained the provinces of New York and New Jersey, in North America, which they had conquered from the Dutch; while the Dutch retained Surinam, or Dutch Guiana, in South America, and the island of Polerone, in the Moluccas. The treaty also modified the Navigation Act so far that all merchandise coming down the Rhine was permitted to be imported into England in Dutch vessels—a measure which gave the Dutch control of much of the commerce of Germany.

Fall,
Disgrace
and Exile
of the
Earl of
Clarendon.

The English people held the Earl of Clarendon, their upright Prime Minister, responsible for their humiliation and disgrace in consequence of the disasters to their arms in the war with Holland; and, though he had been the faithful friend of Charles II. during the latter's exile, he wearied his ungrateful king by his virtues as much as he did the English people by his opposition to popular rights. Both court and

Parliament therefore agreed that this great statesman should be the victim of the popular displeasure. The Earl of Clarendon was accordingly disgraced and driven from office in 1667, and was impeached by the Commons. He fled to France, where he passed the remainder of his days in exile, during which he wrote his famous *History of the Rebellion*. His youngest daughter, Anne Hyde, married the king's brother James, Duke of York, and was the mother of Mary and Anne, afterward Queens of England.

After the disgrace of Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, a new Ministry was formed, known as the *Cabal*, from the initials of the names of the five noblemen who composed it—Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington and Lauderdale. The word *Cabal* had previously been used to signify a Cabinet; but so corrupt was this famous, or infamous, Cabal of Charles II. that the word has ever since been applied to cliques of political tricksters. Ashley Cooper was the ablest statesman of the Cabal Ministry. Sir Thomas Clifford and the Earls of Arlington and Lauderdale were men of less ability. The Duke of Buckingham, the “witty duke,” was the king's vile associate in debauchery.

The
Cabal
Ministry.

The first action of the Cabal Ministry was honorable. Through the mediation of Sir William Temple with De Witt, the Grand Pensionary, or Prime Minister of the Dutch Republic, a *Triple Alliance* was formed by England, Holland and Sweden in January, 1668, to check the ambitious schemes of Louis XIV. of France, who had begun a war against Spain for the purpose of extending the north-eastern frontier of France to the Rhine by wresting the Spanish Netherlands and Franche-Comté from the dominion of the feeble King Charles II. of Spain. This Triple Alliance of England, Holland and Sweden forced the King of France to relinquish his ambitious designs by the Peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1668, contrary to the personal wishes of the English king.

Triple
Alliance
against
Louis
XIV. of
France.

Peace of
Aix la
Chapelle.

But King Charles II. of England and his Cabal Ministry soon descended from the high position which they had assumed as the protectors and defenders of Charles II. of Spain against the grasping ambition of Louis XIV. of France. The action which brands Charles II. of England and the Cabal with the deepest infamy was a secret treaty which they negotiated with Louis XIV. at Dover, May 22, 1670, by which the English monarch agreed to become a Roman Catholic and also the French king's ally in a war against Holland, in return for an annual pension of three million francs. This disgraceful Treaty of Dover stipulated that the King of England should announce his adoption of Roman Catholicism as soon as it was prudent to do so, and that Louis XIV. should furnish him with six thousand French

The Dis-
graceful
Treaty of
Dover.

troops in case his change of religion should cause any popular outbreak in England.

England's
Humilia-
tion.

The Treaty of Dover placed England in the lowest depths of humiliation. Under Queen Elizabeth she had been second only to Spain, if to any of the great powers of Europe. With the accession of the House of Stuart in 1603 she descended to a secondary rank. The eight years of Oliver Cromwell's vigorous administration raised her again to a commanding position among the nations of the world; and an English ambassador who resided at the French court, both during the Commonwealth and during the reign of Charles II., asserted that he was treated with far greater respect as the representative of Cromwell than as the plenipotentiary of Charles II., though the latter was the cousin of Louis XIV.

Third
Naval
War
with the
Dutch
Republic.

Conformably to the Treaty of Dover, Charles II. of England commenced hostilities against the Dutch Republic on the sea, in 1672, as the ally of the French king. The principal English naval commanders in this war were the famous Prince Rupert, Lord Sandwich and the king's brother James, Duke of York. The Dutch navy gained several victories over the combined fleets of England and France.

Battle of
Solebay.

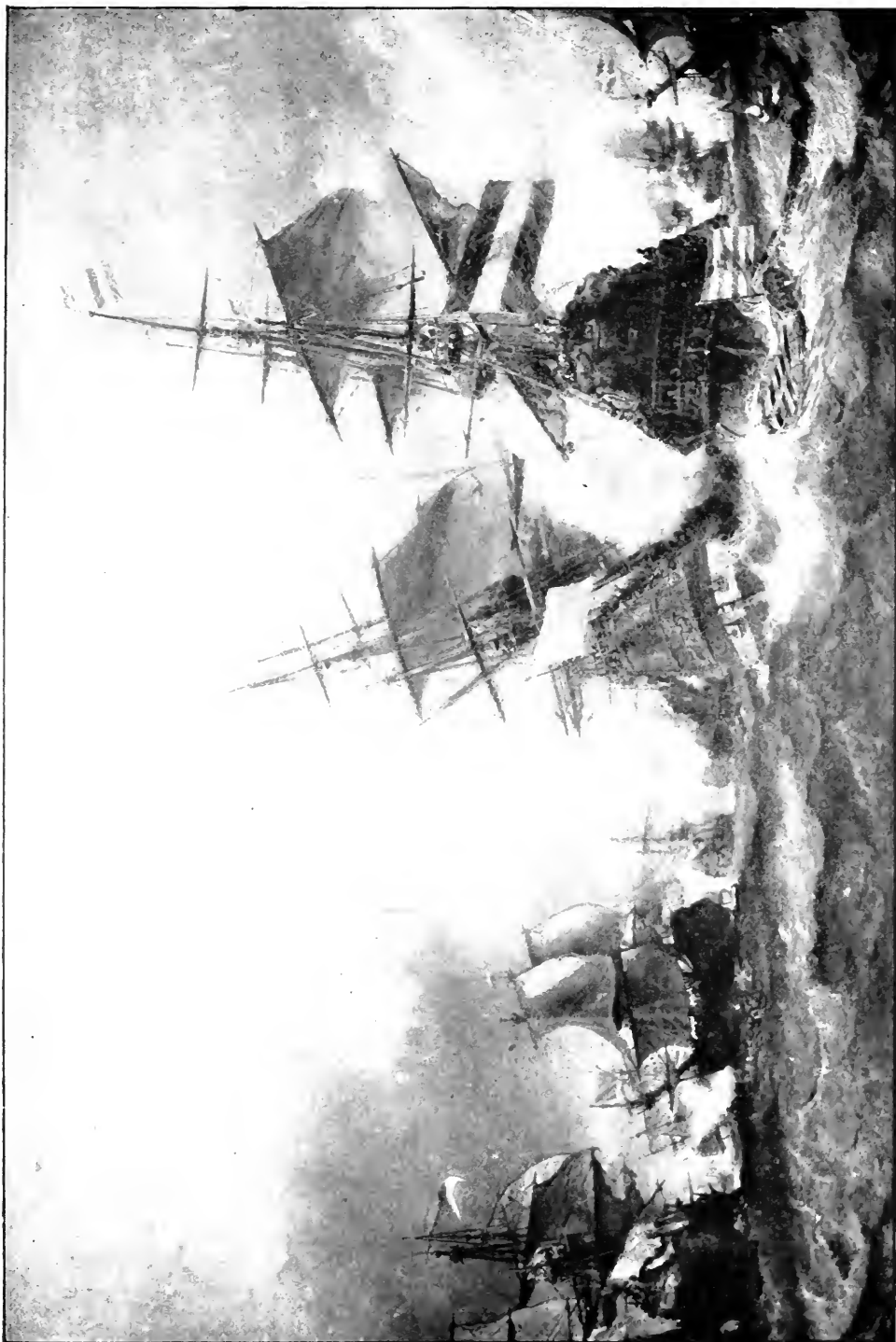
In the battle of Solebay, May 28, 1672, the Dutch fleet under De Ruyter gained a brilliant victory over the united English and French fleets. Lord Sandwich was blown up and perished with his entire crew, and the Duke of York narrowly escaped a similar fate.

Declara-
tion of
Indul-
gence.

In 1672, just before the commencement of this last war with Holland, King Charles II. had issued a *Declaration of Indulgence*, establishing the principle of religious toleration to all sects in England. This royal edict liberated thousands of Puritans who had pined in prison for many years. John Bunyan left the cell which he had occupied in Bedford jail for twelve years. Twelve thousand Quakers were among the liberated. The English people generally distrusted the king's motives in issuing the Declaration of Indulgence, believing that it was simply the initiative in a scheme to restore the Roman Catholics to office and to reestablish Roman Catholicism as the state religion of England. Parliament's persistent refusal to vote supplies forced Charles II. to withdraw this edict of toleration during the same year, 1672.

Test Act.

Though Charles II. outwardly conformed to the Episcopal Church, he was believed to be a Roman Catholic at heart; and his brother James, Duke of York, was an avowed Catholic. The more the Stuarts favored Roman Catholicism, the more firmly did the English people and Parliament adhere to Protestantism; and, almost as soon as the Declaration of Indulgence had been recalled, the two Houses of Parliament followed up their advantage by passing the *Test Act* early in 1673,



BATTLE OF SOLEBAY

From the Painting by E. Isabey

requiring all civil and military officers in the English service to take the Oath of Supremacy, which contained a denial of the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church and an affirmation of the doctrines of the State Church of England.

In obedience to this act, the Duke of York resigned his commission as Lord High Admiral; and his resignation was followed by hundreds of others in the military and naval service, thus showing to what an extent Roman Catholics had already been appointed to office, and confirming the previous popular suspicions of the king's Roman Catholic tendencies.

When the disgraceful Treaty of Dover became known, the people of England felt themselves basely betrayed by their king. So unpopular was this war in England that Parliament refused to vote supplies to carry it on. The infamous Cabal Ministry was broken up in 1673; and a new Cabinet under Sir Thomas Osborne, Earl of Danby, held the reins of power until 1678; while Ashley Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury, who had been dismissed from the office of Chancellor, became the leader of the popular party.

The great opposition of the English people and Parliament forced Charles II. to renounce his alliance with the King of France and to make peace with Holland in February, 1674; but Charles II. still maintained his secret treaty with Louis XIV. and still rendered him such services as might entitle him to his annual pension, although the English people were clamoring for war with France in the interest of the Dutch Republic.

Widespread fear and distrust now prevailed throughout England. The course of Charles II. had aroused a suspicion that he and Louis XIV. of France had entered into a secret plot to ruin English freedom and to make England a Catholic country. In this excited state of public feeling, in 1678, when the English people were ready to credit any wild tale, Titus Oates, an infamous impostor and adventurer, spread rumors of a "Popish Plot" to assassinate King Charles II., burn London, massacre all the Protestants in England, and place the Duke of York on the English throne on condition that he should hold the kingdom as the Pope's vassal.

Titus Oates had been a Baptist preacher, a curate, a navy chaplain; and, after being left penniless by his infamous character, he sought bread by becoming a Catholic, and was admitted into the Order of Jesuits at Valladolid and St. Omer. While in Spain he heard of the secret Jesuit meetings in London; and after being expelled from the order for misconduct he invented his story of the "Popish Plot," made up of the basest falsehoods; but the fears of the English people had destroyed their power of judgment. Oates made affidavit of the truth

Resignation of Roman Catholic Officials.

Anti-war Feeling.

Earls of Danby and Shaftesbury.

Peace with Holland.

Royal Secret Treaty.

Titus Oates and His Story of a "Popish Plot."

Titus Oates's Fabrications and Perjuries.

of his story before Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey, a London magistrate. In the midst of this excitement, the correspondence of Edward Coleman, secretary of the Duchess of York, was seized. The panic was heightened when Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey was found dead in a field near London, and it was assumed that Jesuits had murdered him to silence disclosures. A solemn funeral added to the public agitation.

**Anti-Catholic
Panic in
England.**

The murder was like a spark in a powder magazine. All England was in a frenzy of excitement. Both Houses of Parliament ordered an investigation, in which the Earl of Shaftesbury took the lead. Oates made fresh depositions charging five Catholic Lords with complicity in the plot, and these five accused Lords were committed to the Tower, while two thousand suspected persons were hurried to prison. The thirty thousand Catholics in London were ordered to leave the city. The train-bands were called to arms, and patrols paraded the streets of London to guard against a Catholic rising.

**Exclusion
Act.**

The Earl of Shaftesbury caused a bill to be rushed through both Houses of Parliament, in spite of the fierce opposition of the royalists, excluding Catholics from membership in either House—an exclusion which remained in force a century and a half. This exclusion had been aimed at the Duke of York, but the Earl of Shaftesbury was defeated by a proviso exempting the duke from its provisions.

**William
Bedloe
and Other
Perjured
Inform-
ers.**

The offer of a reward for fresh testimony brought forward another miscreant named William Bedloe, whose stories were more startling than those of Titus Oates. Bedloe testified under oath that a Catholic army was about to land in England to massacre the Protestants. Oates had the insolence to accuse even the queen, at the bar of the House of Lords, with knowledge of the plot to murder her husband. These fresh charges produced a fresh panic. The arrested Catholic Lords were ordered to be impeached. The arrest of every Catholic in England was ordered. Rewards promised for additional information brought forward a multitude of equally infamous spies and informers, who vied with each other in circulating some fresh rumor more exciting and atrocious than the last.

**Another
Anti-
Catholic
Panic.**

The trial and execution of James Coleman began a series of trials, convictions and executions which followed each other with indecent haste—judicial murders which are remembered even now with horror. The perjured testimony of Oates and Bedloe sent many innocent Catholics to the scaffold, all of whom died protesting their innocence to the very last. The most eminent of the victims thus offered up to satisfy the public demand for Catholic blood was Lord Stafford, in December, 1680.

**Execution
of Many
Innocent
Roman
Catholics.**

The trial and execution of James Coleman began a series of trials, convictions and executions which followed each other with indecent haste—judicial murders which are remembered even now with horror. The perjured testimony of Oates and Bedloe sent many innocent Catholics to the scaffold, all of whom died protesting their innocence to the very last. The most eminent of the victims thus offered up to satisfy the public demand for Catholic blood was Lord Stafford, in December, 1680.

**Oates's
Reward.**

The villain Titus Oates became the most distinguished man in England. He strutted about in lawn sleeves like those of a bishop,

had a guard for his protection, and received an adequate pension. Fresh informers were brought forward to swear to the existence of a fresh plot. Gigantic torch-light processions paraded the streets of London, and the effigy of the Pope was burned amid the wild outcry of the excited populace.

The English ambassador at Paris, Edward Montague, returned home upon quarreling with the Prime Minister, the Earl of Danby; obtained a seat in the House of Commons; and, in spite of the seizure of his papers, laid on the table of the House the dispatch which had been sent to Louis XIV., demanding payment of the English king's services to France during the late negotiations. The Commons were thunderstruck. As the Earl of Danby's name was signed to the dispatch, he was at once impeached on a charge of high treason. Charles II. was at the Earl of Shaftesbury's mercy; and, in order to prevent the disclosure of the secrets of his disgraceful foreign policy, the king agreed to the Earl of Shaftesbury's demand for a dissolution of the Cavalier Parliament and the election of a new Parliament, along with the dismissal of the Earl of Danby's Ministry and the appointment of a new Cabinet, in consideration of which the Earl of Shaftesbury dropped the impeachment proceedings against the Earl of Danby. Thus ended the Cavalier Parliament, which had existed seventeen years, A. D. 1661-1678.

The new Parliament, in which the popular party had a majority, convened in March, 1679. The king then redeemed his pledge by dismissing the Earl of Danby and appointing a new Ministry from the popular party with the Earl of Shaftesbury at its head.

This Parliament is famous for having passed the celebrated *Habeas Corpus Act*, the third great statute in the progress of English constitutional liberty, and which effectually prevents arbitrary or prolonged imprisonments. By the provisions of the Habeas Corpus Act no person can be lawfully detained in prison unless he is accused of a specified offense for which he is legally subject to punishment, and it secures a prompt trial of the accused. Every jailer, upon a *writ of habeas corpus*, issued by the judge at the prisoner's demand, must produce his prisoner in court and show the cause of his imprisonment. The Habeas Corpus Act only reaffirms a recognized principle in English law ever since the adoption of Magna Charta; and it is enforced in every country which has derived its ideas of law and justice from England, being adopted in the United States, where it can be suspended only in cases of rebellion or war.

This Parliament also took up an Exclusion Bill, designed to deprive the king's brother James, Duke of York, of his right to succeed to the English throne, and to settle the succession on James's daughter Mary,

Continued
Anti-
Catholic
Alarm.

Fall
of the
Earl of
Danby's
Ministry
and Dis-
solution
of the
Cavalier
Parlia-
ment.

Ministry
of the
Earl of
Shaftes-
bury.

Habeas
Corpus
Act.

Exclusion
Bill.

Dissolu-
tion of
Parlia-
ment.

the wife of Prince William of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, whom she had married in 1677, and who afterward became King William III. of England. This Exclusion Bill passed the House of Commons in May, 1679, but King Charles II. dissolved Parliament in order to prevent the measure from going to the House of Lords.

New
Parlia-
ment Pro-
rogued
and Dis-
solved.

The election which followed returned a Parliament so unfavorable to the king's wishes that Charles II. prorogued it on the very day when it should have assembled. By repeating this prorogation, Charles II. kept it from meeting for an entire year. When it was finally allowed to convene, in October, 1680, it took up the Exclusion Bill, and was also dissolved. The next Parliament was summoned at Oxford in March, 1681, but it manifested the same spirit as its predecessors, and was dissolved after a session of but seven days.

Petition-
ers and
Abhor-
rers.

During these contests between Charles II. and Parliament the English people became divided between two parties—the *Petitioners* and the *Abhorrrers*—the former resolutely demanding the meeting of Parliament, and the latter expressing their abhorrence of any one who would presume to dictate to the king. The popular party had previously been called the *Country party*, and the party sustaining the king had been designated the *Court party*.

Whigs
and
Tories.

But the more permanent party names of *Whig* and *Tory* arose about this time also, and these designations have continued almost to the present day, having in recent years given place to the terms *Liberal* and *Conservative*. The Whigs recognized the right to resist any infringement of the liberties of the people on the part of the king; while the Tories maintained the doctrine of *absolute passive obedience*, denying the right of resistance to royal authority under any circumstances whatever. These names were at first applied by each of the parties to its opponent as terms of reproach; certain religious fanatics in Scotland being called *Whigs*, and certain Catholic banditti in Ireland being styled *Tories*. Altered circumstances have made some change in the principles, as well as in the names, of the two great parties in England during the last two centuries; though the one advocates progress and reform, while the other clings with reverence to the traditions of the past.

Result
of the
"Popish
Plot"
Story.

It had already been discovered that the entire story of a "Popish Plot" was a pure fabrication. The execution of the innocent Lord Stafford had changed the popular rage against the "Papists" into pity and remorse, so that no more blood was shed in the "Popish Plot." The entire crowd of base adventurers and informers, when they found their infamous occupation gone, passed over to the opposite party, and, by turning state's evidence, contributed to ruin those who had employed them.

The various real and pretended plots, along with the disreputable course of the Earl of Shaftesbury and the violence of the popular party in Parliament, produced a reaction in the public mind in favor of the king; and the king's dissolution of Parliament and his appeal to the justice of the nation were received with a general outburst of loyalty, April, 1682. The Church rallied to the king, and his royal declaration was read from every pulpit in England; while the universities solemnly decided that "no religion, no law, no fault, no forfeiture" could avail to bar the sacred right of hereditary succession.

Popular
Reaction
in Favor
of King
Charles
II.

The new strength of the crown was indicated by the arrest of the Earl of Shaftesbury on a charge of suborning false witnesses to the "Popish Plot." London was still true, however, to the Earl of Shaftesbury. The Middlesex grand jury ignored the bill of his indictment, and his discharge from the Tower was greeted in every street of the city with bonfires and the ringing of bells. But the loyal enthusiasm of the English people received a fresh impulse by the publication of the disgraced Prime Minister's papers, which disclosed the scheme of a secret association for the advancement of the exclusion of the Duke of York, the members of which bound themselves to obey the orders of Parliament even after its prorogation or dissolution by the crown.

Disgrace
of the
Earl of
Shaftes-
bury.

Charles II. boldly pushed his advantages, while the Duke of York returned in triumph to St. James's Palace. A daring breach of custom installed Tories in 1682 as sheriffs of the city of London, and the packed juries which they selected placed every exclusionist at the mercy of the crown. After vain plottings, the Earl of Shaftesbury fled to Holland, where he soon afterward died, January, 1683.

Persecu-
tion of
Exclu-
sionists.

But in 1683 a real Protestant plot was discovered. Several worthless characters had conspired to waylay and shoot King Charles II. and his brother, the Duke of York, as they rode past a certain place known as the Rye House, on their way to the races at Newmarket; but the ruffians were detected and executed. This conspiracy is known as the *Rye House Plot*.

Rye
House
Plot.

Six conspirators of high rank desired a change in the government, though perhaps none of them intended any personal harm to the king. These were the Duke of Monmouth, the king's son by a low-born mistress; Lord William Russell; the Earl of Essex; Lord Howard; Algernon Sidney; and John Hampden, grandson of the illustrious Parliamentary leader in the struggle with Charles I. Russell desired simply the exclusion of the Duke of York from the succession to the English throne, and a return to just government under the reigning king and the existing constitution. Sidney was a republican by principle, and had opposed Cromwell's usurpation as well as the Stuart Restoration, but he was no assassin.

Six Whig
Leaders.

**Their
Arrest
and Pun-
ishment.**

The plans of these Whig leaders were probably unconnected with the Rye House Plot; but they were arrested on the accusation of one of the conspirators, and their designs were betrayed by one of their number, Lord Howard. The Earl of Essex died in the Tower. Lord William Russell and Algernon Sidney were beheaded. The Duke of Monmouth, who had fled when the conspiracy was first disclosed, was pardoned by his father, the king, and was allowed to appear at court; but he excited the disgust of all parties by his double dealing, and was again exiled.

**Lord
William
Russell's
Martyr-
dom.**

The juries which tried and condemned Lord William Russell and Algernon Sidney was packed. Concerning Russell, Hume says: "It was proved that an insurrection had been deliberated on by the prisoner; the surprisal of the guards deliberated but not fully resolved upon; and that an assassination of the king had not once been mentioned or imagined by him." The law was stretched to his condemnation, and his blood was too eagerly desired by the tyrant Charles II. and the bigoted Duke of York to allow of the remission of the sentence of death. He was beheaded in Lincoln's Inn Fields, July 21, 1683, in the forty-second year of his age. His most bitter enemies have testified to his character for sincerity, probity and private worth. His wife secured the admiration of the world by the affectionate zeal and devotion with which she aided her husband, and by the magnanimity with which she bore her loss. She accompanied him into court upon his trial; and when he was refused counsel, and only permitted to have an amanuensis, she assumed that character, thus exciting the sympathy and respect of all who beheld her. Lord William Russell was an ancestor of the late Lord John Russell, the famous English statesman.

**Algernon
Sidney's
Martyr-
dom.**

Algernon Sidney was tried for high treason before the brutal Chief Justice Jeffries. His confederate, Lord Howard, who had turned state's evidence to save himself, was the only witness against him; and, as the law for high treason required two witnesses, the Attorney-General had recourse to an expedient. In defiance of law and common sense, the additional testimony was held to be supplied by extracts from some discourses on government, discovered in manuscript in his closet, though not proved to be his handwriting, which asserted the lawfulness of resisting tyrants, and the preference of a free government to an arbitrary one. Notwithstanding a spirited defense he was pronounced guilty, and was beheaded on Tower Hill, December 7, 1683. As he was dragged on a sledge to the place of execution, one of the multitude called to him: "You never sat on a seat so glorious!" Just before laying his head on the block he handed the sheriff a paper, maintaining the injustice of his condemnation, and ending with a prayer for the "good old cause." He met his sad fate with firmness and constancy, and his

memory has ever since been cherished as that of a martyr to the cause of free government.

While avoiding an open or defiant disregard of the laws, Charles II. proceeded deliberately to make his power absolute, thus inaugurating what has been termed the *Second Stuart Tyranny*, to distinguish it from the *First Stuart Tyranny* under Charles I. from 1629 to 1640, when there was no Parliament. During the last two years of his reign, A. D. 1683-1685, Charles II. was as absolute a monarch as any in Europe. The Test Act excluding Catholics from office was quietly ignored, and the Duke of York was restored to his former position as Lord High Admiral.

Second
Stuart
Tyranny.

In the meantime blood had also flowed in Scotland. The severities of the Earl of Lauderdale as governor of that country had already driven the Covenanters to desperation; and some of them attacked James Sharp, Archbishop of St. Andrews and Primate of Scotland, dragged him from his coach and murdered him upon the public highway in the presence of his daughter, May 3, 1679. Of course this crime injured the cause of the Covenanters more than persecution could have injured it. Their religious meetings were broken up by soldiers; and the Covenanters assembled for worship only in the wildest recesses of the hills, all the men being armed, and sentinels being posted to guard against surprise. The principal stronghold of the Covenanters was the hill country between Lanark and Ayr.

Violent
Persecu-
tion of
Scotch
Cove-
nant-
ers.

The most brutal of the king's officers in breaking up the meetings of the Covenanters was John Graham of Claverhouse, who massacred men, women and children with the most atrocious cruelty. In May, 1679, he was routed by a band of armed Covenanters whom he had disturbed at their worship, and lost thirty of his troopers. At another time eight thousand Covenanters seized the city of Glasgow; but the king's bastard son, the Duke of Monmouth, with fifteen thousand royal troops, defeated an army of Covenanters in the battle of Bothwell Bridge, in June, 1679, taking twelve hundred of them prisoners, most of whom were transported to the English colonies in North America, where they ended their days.

Outbreak
and Over-
throw of
Cove-
nanters.

King Charles II., who had formerly pleased his more extreme Protestant subjects by the marriage of his eldest niece Mary to William, Prince of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, now took a similar step by the espousal of her sister Anne to a brother of King Christian V. of Denmark. These princesses were the only children of the king's brother James, Duke of York, and were in the line of succession to the English and Scottish thrones after their father. Their mother was Anne Hyde, the daughter of the Earl of Clarendon, and the first wife of the Duke of York, as already noticed. After her death the

Mar-
riages
of the
Daugh-
ters of
the Duke
of York.

Duke of York married an Italian princess, Maria Beatrice of Este, daughter of the Duke of Modena.

**Mis-
tresses
and
Bastards
of King
Charles
II.**

Charles II. had mistress after mistress, and the guilt of these dissolute women was emblazoned to the world by the gift of titles and estates, so that royal bastards were set among the English nobility. The Duke of Monmouth was the son whom Charles II. had with Lucy Walters, and was the ancestor of the Dukes of Buccleugh. The Dukes of Grafton are descended from Charles II. and Barbara Palmer, whom the king created Duchess of Cleveland. The Dukes of St. Albans are the posterity of Charles II. and Nell Gwynn. The Dukes of Richmond are the descendants of the same king and Louise de Querouaille, a French mistress, whom the king created Duchess of Portsmouth, and whom the French court had sent to England to win Charles II. to its interests.

**Freedom
of the
Press.**

The freedom of the press was secured during the reign of Charles II. This result was accomplished by Parliament's refusal to renew the license law by which a supervision of the press had been maintained.

**New
English
Colonies
in North
America.**

During the reign of Charles II. the colonies of the Carolinas in North America were settled by the English under a grant of that territory by the king to the Earl of Clarendon and seven associates. The colonies of New Jersey and Pennsylvania were also settled during this reign; the latter by Quakers under the auspices of William Penn, the son of Admiral Penn, who conquered Jamaica from the Spaniards in 1665 during the period of the Commonwealth, as already noticed. William Penn's justice and brotherly kindness to the natives saved Pennsylvania from the perils and difficulties to which the other English colonies in North America were subject.

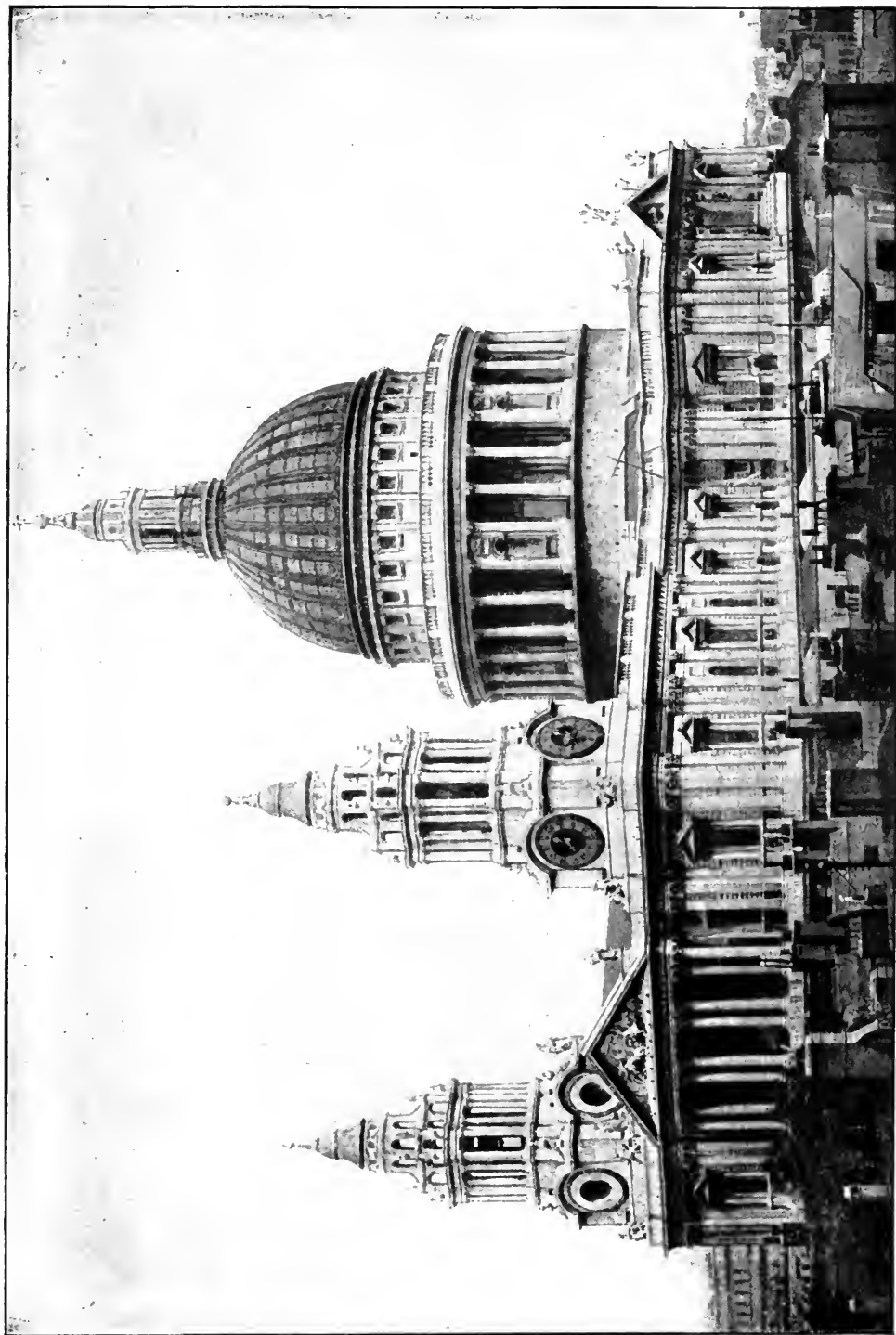
**Progress
of
Science.**

England advanced steadily in industry and wealth during the reign of Charles II., notwithstanding the civil and political disorders which distracted the kingdom. This reign was a great era in science in England, being the period when Sir Isaac Newton discovered the wondrous natural law which keeps the sun and the planets in their orbits; when Edmund Halley commenced his learned investigations of tides, comets and the earth's magnetism; when Robert Boyle improved the air-pump, and by its aid studied the properties of the atmosphere; when Thomas Hobbes and John Locke discoursed of the human mind, its laws and its relations to matter.

**Royal
Society.**

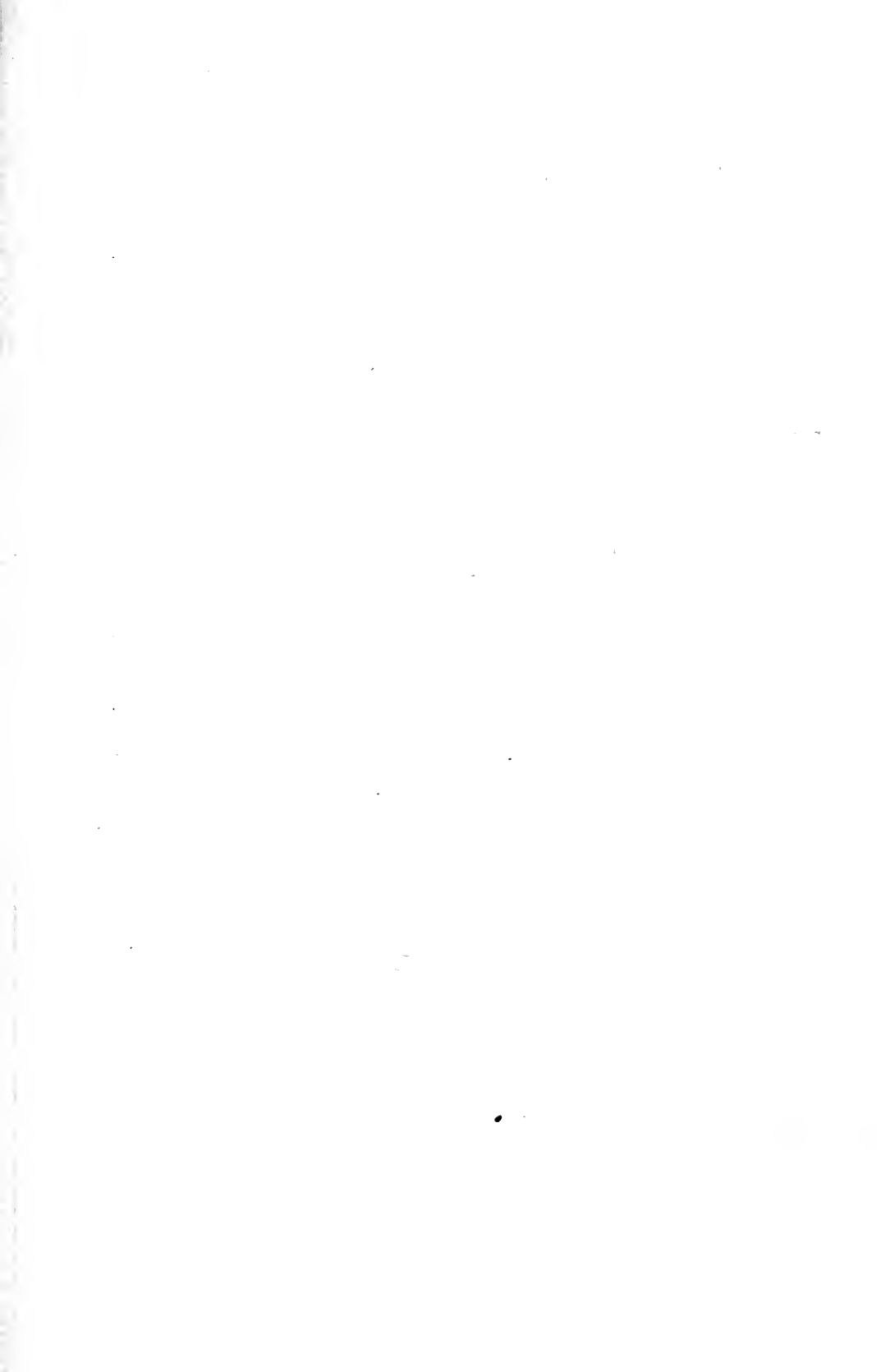
The Royal Society of Science was founded in the year of the Stuart Restoration, and its members were the first Englishmen who engaged in the really scientific study of minerals, plants, birds, fishes and quadrupeds. During this period many foreign painters flourished at the English court, and have left portraits of all its famous men and women. The great fire of London in 1666 gave a new impulse to architecture by

**Art and
Archite-
cture.**



ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL

From a Photograph



opening a field for the genius of Sir Christopher Wren, who designed the present magnificent Cathedral of St. Paul's and many other churches.

Coffee, tea and chocolate first came into England with the Stuart Restoration, and coffee-houses were first established in London during the reign of Charles II. These establishments became celebrated as the places where political affairs were thoroughly discussed, and where the opinions of wits were eagerly heard and repeated by multitudes of listeners. Nobles and gentry living in the country frequently engaged correspondents in London to inform them of current matters of interest in government and society; and by means of written or printed *news-letters* the talk of the capital was repeated throughout the kingdom—sometimes to the discomfort of His Majesty's Ministers, who made some fruitless efforts to stop these currents of public opinion at their source.

Coffee-houses.

News-letters.

It has been asserted that Charles I. would never have rushed to his fate with such blind persistence if railways, telegraphs and newspapers had existed in his time as they do in our own day. The king was utterly ignorant of the temper of his subjects. The means of communication were worse than they are in Turkey at the present time. Even at the end of the seventeenth century, public roads in England could scarcely be distinguished from the meadows and the marshes which they traversed. Six horses were required to draw a coach through the deep mud, and all the public highways were infested by robbers.

Lack of Means of Communication.

The population of London at the time of the death of Charles II. is estimated to have been a half million. The streets were narrow, dirty and unpaved, and not lighted until the last year of that king's reign; and they were infested by ruffians and robbers, against whom the aged and feeble watchmen were unable to afford any protection.

Condition of London.

In spite of all his faults, King Charles II. was an easy-going, good-natured sovereign, plodding quietly along in the path of his pleasures, even when the most exciting events were in progress around him. His excessive good nature and his sportive manners, and the freedom and gayety of his court, have acquired for him the well-merited title of the "Merry Monarch." One of his courtiers portrayed him thus in the following epigram:

Good Nature of King Charles II.

"Here lies our sovereign lord the king,
Whose word no man relies on;
Who never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one."

When this was shown to the king he retorted in his pleasant way: "That may be very true; for my words are my own, but my acts are my Ministers'."

His
Death.

Early in 1685 Charles II. was seized with an epileptic attack; and, after lingering a few days, he died on February 6th of that year in the fifty-fifth year of his age and the twenty-fifth of his reign. Although he made no public avowal of Roman Catholicism, he was at his own request attended by a Roman Catholic priest in his dying moments.

James
II., A. D.
1685-
1688.

As Charles II. died without legitimate children, his brother, the Duke of York, succeeded him as King of England, Scotland and Ireland without immediate opposition, thus becoming JAMES II. of Eng'land and JAMES VII. of Scotland, February, 1685. During his brother's reign James had acquired considerable distinction as a naval commander, and England had been proud of him as her sailor prince. All efforts to exclude him from the English throne on account of his pronounced Roman Catholicism had failed; and, in spite of the recent agitations, the English people received with joyful confidence the pledge which he had made in the presence of his Council, at its first meeting after the death of Charles II., to uphold and maintain the Established Church and to observe and execute the laws of the realm.

His
Accession.

Punish-
ment of
Titus
Oates.

Titus Oates was now brought to trial for his perjuries; and upon conviction he was sentenced to be whipped through the city during two days, to stand in the pillory five times a year and to be imprisoned for life.

Huguenot
Immi-
grants.

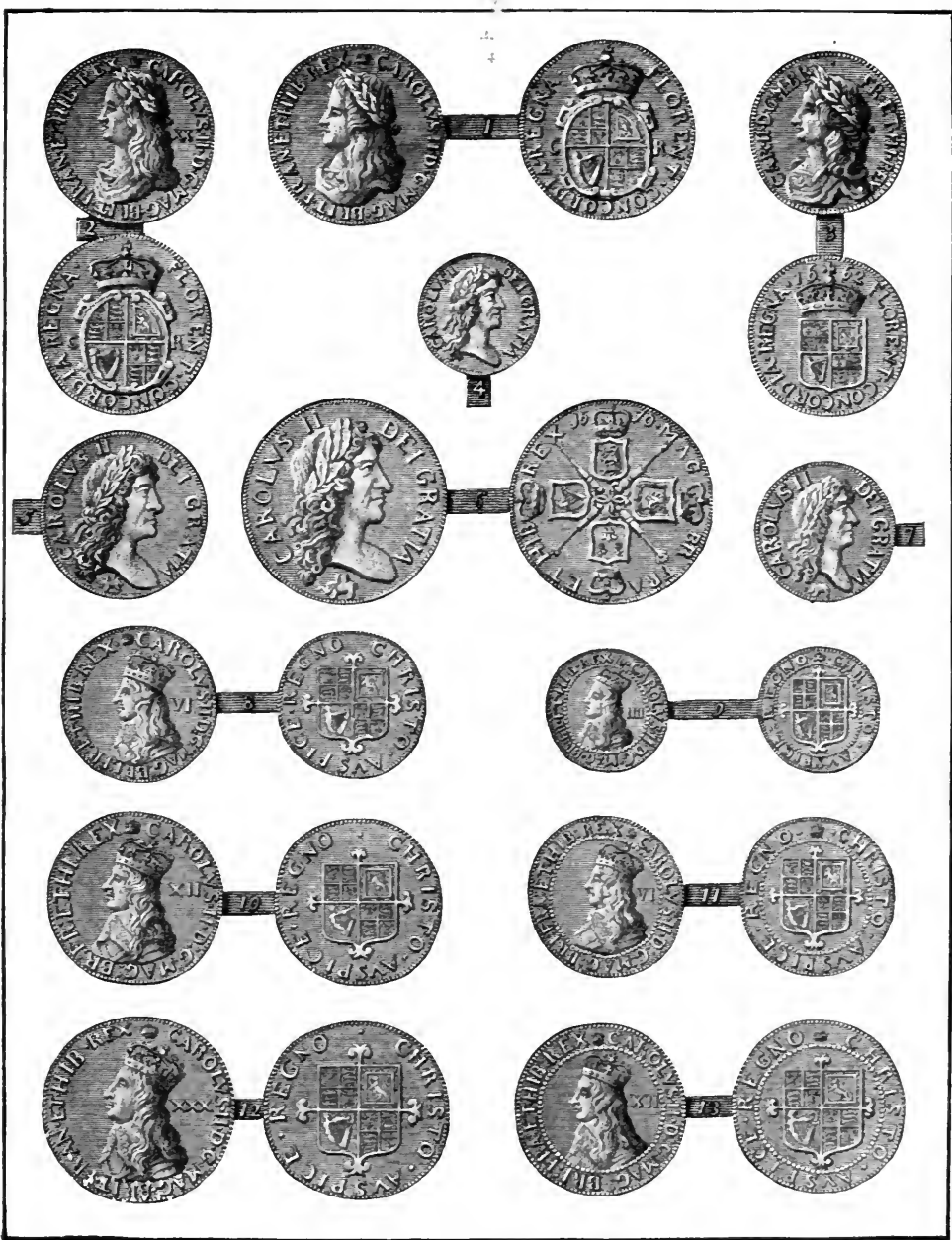
In the first year of the reign of James II. thousands of French Huguenots, who fled from their native land to escape the dreadful persecution which King Louis XIV. inaugurated that year by the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, settled in England and her North American colonies, establishing there those fine manufactures for which the Huguenots were celebrated. The many French names among the silk-weavers of Spitalfields, near London, shows their descent from the French exiles for conscience sake, who first introduced that industry into England. Among the famous names in England in our own times are those of James and Harriet Martineau and Mr. Labouchere, whose ancestors were among these Huguenot exiles two centuries ago.

Popular
Disap-
point-
ment in
James II.

The high expectations that the English people had formed of James II. at his accession were soon doomed to the most profound disappointment; and the popular enthusiasm gave way to gloom, and gloom was finally succeeded by horror. James II. was not a simple lover of ease and pleasure like Charles II. had been; but he showed that he was more indifferent to public sentiment, more defiant of the law, more malignant toward men of other views.

His First
Arbitrary
Acts.

Within three days after his accession, and in opposition to the advice of his Council, he levied customs without the consent of Parliament. The first elections during his reign were carried by fraud and violence



GOLD AND SILVER COINS OF CHARLES II

in the king's interest. The new Parliament, utterly subservient to the royal will, approved the king's levy and voted him a life income of two million pounds. This Parliament's action on the question of religion was moulded to suit His Majesty's pleasure.

The Parliament of Scotland was as servile to the king as was that of England, and it made the laws against the Covenanters more rigorous. One of these severe laws authorized the soldiers to put to death at once all Scots who refused to take the *Oath of Abjuration*, which required them to repudiate all sympathy with the declarations issued by the Covenanters in opposition to the royal authority. Among the many who were put to death for refusing to take this oath were two women—Margaret Maclauchlan and Margaret Wilson—who were tied to stakes in Solway Frith and drowned by the rising tide. The royal troops treated the Covenanters with the most shocking brutality, while the Covenanters exhibited the most heroic courage and firmness in their trials and sufferings. Another act of the Scottish Parliament at the beginning of this reign made attendance upon a conventicle a crime punishable with death.

During the same year, 1685, the Marquis of Argyle, the son of the great Marquis of Argyle, the leader of the Covenanters, who was executed in May, 1661, returned to Scotland from his exile and made an ill-organized effort to rouse the clans to resistance to royal oppression. This revolt of the Marquis of Argyle in Scotland was intended to be simultaneous with the rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth, the illegitimate son of Charles II., in England; but the assembled army of the Scotch clans was dispersed without striking a blow; and the Marquis of Argyle was captured while attempting to escape, and was beheaded at Edinburgh. The royal troops wasted the revolted section with fire and sword, and many members of the rebellious clans were cruelly mutilated and then transported to America, where they passed their remaining days.

The rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth in England, equally as rash as that of the Marquis of Argyle in Scotland, was undertaken for the dethronement of James II. and for the assertion of the duke's own title to the English crown; but its results were more disastrous than the attempted revolt in Scotland. The Duke of Monmouth had been persuaded by his adherents to make his rash invasion of England; and he accused his royal uncle of being "a traitor, a tyrant, an assassin and a Popish usurper," charging him with being the author of the great fire in London and of the murder of Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey and the Earl of Essex, and with having poisoned Charles II. The Duke of Monmouth was so beloved by the English people that, though he had only a hundred followers when he landed in England, he was

Persecution and Martyrdom of Scotch Covenanters.

Rebellion, Overthrow and Execution of the Marquis of Argyle in Scotland.

Rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth in England.

soon at the head of six thousand, and was obliged to dismiss many for lack of arms.

**Battle of
Sedge-
moor.**

The Duke of Monmouth was thoroughly defeated by the royal army at Sedgemoor, near Bridgewater, in Somersetshire, July 6, 1685—the last battle fought in England. He was found lying in a ditch, exhausted with hunger and fatigue. After many entreaties he was admitted to his royal uncle's presence; and, prostrating himself on his knees, he piteously begged with bitter tears that his life might be spared; but he refused to purchase his safety by betraying his partisans. Summoning his courage, he faced death on the scaffold, and his head fell by the stroke of the executioner's ax, July 15, 1685. His deluded followers were hunted down like wild beasts.

**Execution
of the
Duke of
Mon-
mouth.**

**Second
English
Reign of
Terror.**

These unfortunate attempts at rebellion in England and Scotland only strengthened the royal power, as they kindled a new sentiment of loyalty in the minds and hearts of the English people, while they also furnished a plausible pretext for a large increase of the English army. The most severe measures were adopted against the rebels, and the Second Stuart Tyranny before long developed into the *Second English Reign of Terror*.

**Jeffries's
Cam-
paign,
or the
Bloody
Assize.**

James II. exacted a most bitter vengeance for the Duke of Monmouth's misguided rebellion. A Circuit Court, under the presidency of Lord Chief Justice Jeffries, was organized in the rebellious counties of England; and the brutal action of this tribunal was better suited to the darkest of the Dark Ages than to the enlightenment of the seventeenth century. This court has been variously styled in history as *Jeffries's Campaign*, the *Bloody Assize* and the *Second English Reign of Terror*. The pages of history can be searched in vain for a name that has descended to a more immortal infamy than has that of Judge Jeffries. The mind recoils with the deepest horror from the merciless judgments of this fiend against the innocent and the guilty, and from his heartless levity in the midst of the sufferings which he inflicted.

**"Kirke's
Lambs."**

Chief Justice Jeffries had a fit associate in his atrocious cruelties in Colonel Kirke, who had learned his inhumanity from the Moors about Tangier. At the head of a company of troopers as inhuman as himself and ironically called "Kirke's lambs," this brutal officer was charged with the apprehension and execution of "Monmouth's rebels." Wherever Colonel Kirke and his "lambs" appeared men were hurried off to the gallows without even an inquiry as to their guilt or innocence, and he is said to have insulted their death-agonies by rude jests. It is said that "Kirke's lambs" were accustomed to entertaining themselves during their drunken carousals by having their prisoners hung on high gibbets in front of their windows, and having the drums beat to furnish music to the dance of the quivering bodies. As in the

Wars of the Roses, the heads and limbs of those executed were posted in conspicuous places to strike terror into the hearts of the inhabitants. Colonel Kirke's military executions were about as savage as Chief Justice Jeffries's judicial murders.

The English historian, Charles Knight, in his excellent *History of England*, gives the following account of the barbarities of Jeffries and Kirke: "The pitchy cauldron was constantly boiling in the Assize towns to preserve the heads and limbs from corruption that were to be distributed through the beautiful Western Country. As the leaves were dropping in that autumn of 1685, the great oak of many a village green was decorated with a mangled quarter. On every tower of the Somersetshire churches a ghastly head looked down upon those who gathered together for the worship of the God of love. The directing-post for the traveler was elevated into a gibbet. The laborer, returning home beneath the harvest-moon, hurried past the body suspended in its creaking grimaces (chains). The eloquent historian of this reign of terror has attested from his own childish recollections that 'within the last forty years, peasants in some districts well knew the accursed spots and passed them unwillingly after sunset.'"

**Knight's
Account.**

Among the victims of Chief Justice Jeffries's cruelty were two noble and generous women whose only crime was their womanly charity in giving food and lodging to fleeing rebels. One was Lady Alice Lisle, seventy years of age, the widow of one of the members of the High Court of Justice which tried and condemned Charles I. She was beheaded at Winchester. The other was Mrs. Elizabeth Gaunt, who was burned to death at Tyburn.

**Lady
Alice
Lisle
and Mrs.
Elizabeth
Gaunt.**

Three hundred and fifty rebels were hanged in the "Bloody Circuit" as Jeffries made his way through Dorsetshire and Somersetshire. More than eight hundred were sold into slavery in the West Indies. A larger number were whipped and imprisoned. Even the cold heart of General Churchill, to whose energy the royal victory at Sedgemoor had been largely due, was shocked at the ruthlessness with which the king turned a deaf ear to all appeals for mercy. Said the general, as he struck the chimney-piece on which he leaned: "This marble is not harder than the king's heart."

**The
"Bloody
Circuit."**

**General
Churchill
Shocked.**

Those who were spared bought their lives only with their entire possessions; and Chief Justice Jeffries returned to London enriched by the pardons which he had sold, and boasted that he had "hanged more for high treason than all the judges of England since William the Conqueror." His royal master rewarded him for his cruelties by creating him Chancellor.

**Boast of
Jeffries.**

We are told that even the queen herself and her maids of honor made merchandise of free-born English subjects, begging the lives of the

Heartless Conduct of the Queen and Her Maids of Honor. condemned that they might increase their wealth by selling these unfortunates into slavery in the West Indies. Even the innocent and thoughtless girls who had presented an embroidered banner to the Duke of Monmouth when he entered their native town of Taunton would have suffered a similar fate had they not been ransomed by the payment of two thousand pounds to the maids of honor.

James II. and His Roman Catholic Reactionary Policy. The ease with which the rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth had been suppressed, and the evident loyalty of the English people toward their king, encouraged James II. to execute the policy which he had resolved upon from the very beginning of his reign—the reëstablishment of Roman Catholicism as the state religion of England. The standing army having been increased from ten thousand to twenty thousand men, the king filled the most important military offices with Roman Catholics in utter defiance of the Test Act. He dismissed Lord Halifax for refusing to consent to a plan for the repeal of that statute.

James II. and Parliament. James II. haughtily declared to Parliament in 1686 that his grant of commissions to Catholics must not be questioned, whether legal or not. He also made a demand on Parliament for supplies for his increased army. Though both Houses of Parliament had large Tory majorities, their alarm at popery and at a standing army was stronger than their loyalty. The Commons, by a majority of a single vote, refused the grant of supplies until the king granted a redress of grievances, and demanded the recall of the illegal commissions to Roman Catholics. The Lords assumed a bolder tone, and the eloquence of Lord Halifax backed the protest of the bishops against any infringement of the Test Act. The king at once prorogued both Houses of Parliament.

James II. and the Courts. King James II. determined to obtain from the courts what he could not obtain from Parliament. He packed the Court of King's Bench with his own creatures, after dismissing four judges who refused to lend themselves to his plans. The new judges decided in the case of Sir Edward Hales, a Catholic officer in the royal army, that a royal dispensation could be pleaded in bar of the Test Act. The principle laid down by these judges asserted the right of the crown to override the laws; and King James II. applied this principle with a reckless impatience, admitting Catholics into all civil and military offices without restraint, while four Catholic Lords were sworn in as members of the Privy Council.

Monks and Jesuits. The laws which forbade the presence of Catholic priests in England, or which forbade the open exercise of Catholic worship, were ignored. A gorgeous chapel was opened in St. James's Palace for the king's worship. Monks of the various orders attired in their

respective garbs ostentatiously paraded the streets of London, and even the Jesuits were permitted to establish a crowded school in the old palace of the Savoy. In consequence of a riot on the establishment of a new Catholic chapel in London, a camp of thirteen thousand royal troops was established at Hounslow to overawe the capital.

King James II. also proceeded with vigor to stamp out Protestantism in his other two kingdoms. In Scotland he acted as a pure despot, placing the government of that country in the hands of two Catholic lords, the Earls of Melfort and Perth, and putting a Catholic in command of Edinburgh Castle. Although the Scottish Parliament had been the servile instrument of King Charles II., it boldly refused to pass an act of toleration to Catholics, as recommended by James VII. When the king tempted them to consent by offering them free trade with England they indignantly replied: "Shall we sell our God?" James VII. at once ordered the Scotch judges to treat all laws against Catholics as null and void, and his orders were obeyed. The Earl of Perth was the inventor of the steel thumb-screw, one of James's favorite instruments of torture and conversion.

**James II.
and
Scotland.**

King James II. appointed Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnel, a Catholic lord, to the office of Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. In that country the king's policy threw off even the disguise of law, and by his command Roman Catholics were admitted to the Council and to civil offices. The new Lord Lieutenant reorganized the royal army in Ireland by cashiering all its Protestant officers and by admitting two thousand Catholic Irish into its ranks. As the determined foe of the English and Scotch Protestant settlers in that country, the Earl of Tyrconnel turned every Englishman and every Protestant out of office in Ireland; and in a very short time every Privy Councillor, every judge, every mayor and every alderman in that dependent kingdom was an Irishman and a Roman Catholic.

**The Earl
of Tyr-
connel's
Reaction-
ary Pro-
ceedings
in
Ireland.**

In the meantime King James II. had commenced a bold and systematic attack on the Protestant State Church of England. He roughly set aside the statute which abolished the Court of High Commission, which had been passed by the Long Parliament in 1640 and confirmed by the Convention-Parliament which restored the monarchy in 1660. In 1686 the king organized an Ecclesiastical Commission of seven members headed by the infamous Jeffries, with full power over religious affairs in England.

**James II.
and the
Church of
England.**

The king had forbidden the clergy to preach against popery, and ordered Bishop Compton of London to suspend a vicar who set this order at defiance. The bishop refused, and was punished for his disobedience by suspension from office. But the pressure of the Ecclesiastical Commission only drove the clergy to a bolder defiance

**Defiant
Attitude
of the
English
Clergy.**

of the royal will. Sermons against superstition were preached from every pulpit; and the two most celebrated divines of the time—Tillotson and Stillingfleet—headed a host of controversialists, who scattered pamphlets and tracts from the public press, which teemed with the indignant protests of the English people.

James II.
and the
Universi-
ties of
Cam-
bridge
and
Oxford.

King James II. next made an effort to place the great universities of England under Catholic control. A monk presented himself at Cambridge with royal letters recommending him for the degree of Master of Arts, but was rejected on his refusal to sign the Articles of Faith of the Church of England, and the Vice Chancellor was dismissed from office as a punishment for the rejection of the monk. The Master of University College at Oxford, who professed conversion to Catholicism, was authorized by the king to retain his post in defiance of the law. The king also appointed Massey, a Roman Catholic, as Dean of Christ Church College at Oxford.

Defiant
Attitude
of the
Fellows
of Mag-
dalen
College.

In 1687 James II. recommended a Catholic of infamous life, named Farmer, for the position of President of Magdalen College at Oxford, although he was not even qualified by statute for the office. The Fellows of the college remonstrated; and when their remonstrance was rejected they chose one of their own number, named Hough, as their President. The Ecclesiastical Commission declared the election void; and the king then recommended Bishop Parker of Oxford, a Catholic at heart and the meanest of his courtiers, for the vacant Presidency of Magdalen College. But the Fellows obstinately adhered to their chosen President. The king at once visited Oxford and summoned them to his presence, and lectured them as they knelt before him like schoolboys. Said he: "I am king; I will be obeyed! Go to your chapel this instant, and elect the bishop! Let those who refuse look to it, for they shall feel the whole weight of my hand!"

Violent
Action
against
Fellows.

The Fellows calmly disregarded the king's threats; but a special commission visited the university, pronounced Hough an intruder, set aside his appeal to the law, burst open the door of the President's house to install Parker in his place, and deprived the Fellows of their fellowships upon their refusal to submit. The Demies were also expelled when they refused to submit. Parker died immediately after his installation, and was succeeded by Bonaventure Giffard, a Catholic bishop in partibus; and twelve Catholics were admitted to fellowships in one day.

Blind
Obstinacy
of
James II.

All England was now in a ferment; but King James II. possessed the insane obstinacy of the Stuart race, and pressed swiftly forward to his doom, turning a deaf ear to the entreaties of his Catholic friends, and even to Pope Innocent XI., who warned the reckless king, through the Papal Nuncio in England, not to do anything rashly and to govern

England in accordance with her laws for the present. The king, however, persisted in his policy; and his course was as reckless in the State as it was in the Church.

James II. silenced Parliament by repeated prorogations, and finally dissolved it, so that he was left unchecked in his defiance of the law. The members of the Ministry and the Privy Council who did not share his religious views were removed to make way for Catholics. Among those thus removed were his two brothers-in-law, the sons of the great Earl of Clarendon. One of these, Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, had been Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; and the other, Laurence Hyde, Earl of Rochester, had been First Lord of the Treasury. Lord Bellasys, a Catholic, became First Lord of the Treasury; and Lord Arundell, another Catholic, became Lord Privy Seal. Petre, a Jesuit, was called to the Privy Council. The Papal Nuncio was received in state at Windsor.

Reorgani-
zation
of the
Ministry
and Privy
Council.

Although the great Tory nobles were staunch adherents of the crown, they were as resolute Englishmen in their hatred of mere tyranny as were the Whigs. The young Duke of Somerset, upon being ordered to introduce the Papal Nuncio into the Presence Chamber, replied: "I am advised that I can not obey Your Majesty without breaking the law." The king asked angrily: "Do you not know that I am above the law?" The duke retorted: "Your Majesty may be, but I am not." The Duke of Somerset was dismissed from office, but the spirit of resistance spread rapidly.

James II.
and the
Duke of
Somerset.

In spite of the king's letters, the governors of the Charter House, numbering among them some of the greatest English nobles, refused to admit a Catholic to the benefits of this institution. The most devoted Tories murmured when James II. required apostasy to the Protestant State Church of England as an evidence of their loyalty to the king. In fact he was soon obliged to abandon all hope of bringing the Church or the Tories over to his will. Following the example of his brother, he published a Declaration of Indulgence in 1687, annulling the penal laws against Protestant Dissenters, or Nonconformists, and Roman Catholics alike, and abrogating every statute which imposed a test as a qualification for office in Church or State; but most of the Nonconformists, following the example of their great leaders—Baxter, Howe and Bunyan among them—fully understood the king's motives, and remained true to the cause of freedom by refusing to accept an Indulgence which could be purchased only by the subversion of the law.

James II.
and His
Declara-
tion of
Indul-
gence.

The failure of this Declaration of Indulgence only spurred James II. to an effort to obtain the repeal of the Test Act from Parliament itself. But he was very well aware that no free Parliament could be

He
Obtains
a Com-
pliant
House of
Lords.

induced to consent to its repeal. True, the king could pack the House of Lords by creating a sufficient number of new peers. Said his Minister, Lord Sunderland, to General Churchill: "Your troop of horse shall be called up into the House of Lords." It was, however, not so easy to obtain a compliant House of Commons.

Fails to
Procure
a Com-
pliant
House of
Commons.

The king directed the Lord Lieutenants to bring about such a "regulation" of the governing body in boroughs as would insure the return of candidates to the House of Commons pledged to repeal the Test Act, and to question every magistrate in their respective counties concerning his vote. Half of them refused at once; and many great nobles—the Earls of Oxford, Shrewsbury, Dorset, Derby, Pembroke, Rutland, Abergavenny, Thanet, Northampton and Abingdon—were immediately dismissed from their Lord Lieutenancies. When the justices were questioned they merely replied that they would vote according to their consciences, and send members to Parliament who would protect the Protestant religion. After repeated "regulations," it was seen that it was impossible to organize a corporate body which would return members to Parliament willing to obey the king. All thought of a compliant Parliament had to be abandoned; and even the most bigoted Catholic courtiers advised moderation on the king's part at this evidence of the stubborn opposition which James II. must prepare to encounter from the nobles, the gentry and the trading classes.

New
Declara-
tion of
Indul-
gence.

Finally an arbitrary act on the king's part for the first time aroused the clergy of the Established Church, who had been preaching Sunday after Sunday the doctrine of absolute passive obedience to the worst of kings. On April 27, 1688, James II. issued a new Declaration of Indulgence, abolishing all religious tests for office and all penal laws against Protestant Dissenters, or Nonconformists, and Roman Catholics. The king ordered every clergyman in England to read this Declaration to his congregation during divine service on two successive Sundays. With such unanimity did the English clergy refuse to be the instruments of their own humiliation that only two hundred out of ten thousand clergymen complied with the king's order. The Declaration of Indulgence was read in but four of the London churches, and in these the congregations rushed out of church when the reading of it commenced. So determined were the English people to resist the insane efforts of their bigoted king to overthrow Protestantism.

Protest
of Arch-
bishop
Sancroft
and Six
Other
Bishops.

The bishops of the Church of England went with the rest of the clergy in opposing the king's illegal measures. Several days before the appointed Sunday, Dr. William Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury and Primate of England, called the bishops together; and the archbishop and the six bishops who were able to appear at Lambeth signed a mild protest to the king declining to publish an illegal

Declaration of Indulgence. When Archbishop Sancroft presented the paper to James II. the king exclaimed: "It is a standard of rebellion!"

James II. at once resolved to wreak his vengeance on the prelates who signed the protest. He ordered the Ecclesiastical Commission to dismiss them from their sees, but the Commission shrunk from complying with the king's command in this matter. The Chancellor, Lord Jeffries, advised a prosecution for libel as the easier method of punishment; and Archbishop Sancroft and the six bishops were committed to the Tower upon their refusal to furnish bail. They went to prison amid the applause of a vast multitude, while the sentinels knelt for their blessing as they entered the gates of the Tower, and the soldiers of the garrison drank their healths. One of these imprisoned prelates was Bishop Thomas Ken, the author of the familiar Doxology: "Praise God, from Whom all Blessings Flow."

**Their
Com-
mittal
to the
Tower.**

So menacing was the temper of the English nation that King James II. was advised by his Ministers to give way; but the danger only increased the bigoted king's obstinacy. Said he: "Indulgence ruined my father." The Primate and the six bishops were brought before the bar of the Court of King's Bench as criminals, June 29, 1688. Though the judges were the subservient instruments of the crown, and though the jury had been packed to convict, judges and jury alike were overawed by the indignation of the English people at large; and Archbishop Sancroft and the six bishops were acquitted the next day, June 30, 1688. As soon as the foreman of the jury had pronounced the words "Not guilty," a deafening shout of applause burst forth from the overjoyed multitude; and horsemen galloped along over every road to spread the glad tidings of the acquittal throughout the kingdom.

**Their
Trial and
Acquittal.**

The night of the day of acquittal, June 30, 1688, was a memorable one in London. The populace vented their joy at the verdict of the jury in the most enthusiastic demonstrations. The entire city was illuminated in honor of the Primate and the six bishops, while bells were loudly rung from every belfry, bonfires blazed in every street, rockets lighted up the heavens. The army which James II. had quartered at Hounslow to overawe the capital manifested its sympathy with the people by joining in their acclamations. The king was at Hounslow when he was informed of the acquittal of the seven prelates, and as he rode from the camp to return to London he heard a great shout behind him. The startled king asked: "What is that?" The reply was: "It is nothing—only the soldiers are glad that the bishops are acquitted." The king responded: "Do you call that nothing?"

**Public
Rejoicing
in Conse-
quence.**

James II.
deserted
by His
Army.

The shout of the soldiers at Hounslow plainly told James II. that he had lost the sympathy of the army, which had been his only hope; and the king was now thoroughly conscious that he was left utterly deserted in his realm. The nobility, the gentry, the bishops and the clergy of the Church of England, the universities, every lawyer, every merchant, every farmer, his very soldiers, had now forsaken him. His most devoted Catholic friends urged him to give way before the sentiment of the English nation so universally and resolutely manifested; but to give way was to reverse every act which he had done as king, and James II. was in no mood to reverse his acts.

Subver-
sion of
Legal
Author-
ity.

The king's arbitrary acts and usurpations had subverted all legal government in England. Sheriffs, mayors and magistrates appointed by the crown in defiance of Parliamentary statute were no real officers in the eyes of the law. Members returned to Parliament by such illegal officers could constitute no legal Parliament. Scarcely a Minister of the Crown or a Privy Councilor exercised any legal authority. To such a pass had James II. brought things that the reëstablishment of legal government meant the complete reversal of all his acts during the three years of his reign.

The
King's
Obstinate
Persist-
ence.

The king was spurred on only to a more dogged pertinacity by danger and remonstrance. Still undaunted, he broke up the camp at Hounslow and dispersed the troops in distant cantonments. He dismissed the two judges who had favored the acquittal of the Primate and the six accused bishops. He ordered the chancellor of each diocese to report the names of the clergy who failed to read the Declaration of Indulgence.

General
Resist-
ance
to the
King's
Measures.

The king's will broke fruitlessly against the sullen resistance which he encountered on all sides. Not a chancellor made any return to the Ecclesiastical Commissioners, and the temper of the English nation cowed the Commissioners into inaction. When the judges who had shown their servility to the crown went on circuit the gentry refused to meet them. But a still fiercer indignation was aroused by the king's determination to rep'ace the English troops whose temper proved unserviceable for his purposes by soldiers from the Earl of Tyrconnel's Catholic army in Ireland. Even the English Roman Catholic Lords at the Council-table protested against this measure; and six officers in one regiment resigned their commissions rather than enroll the Irish recruits among their English troops. The ballad of *Lillibullero*, a scurrilous attack on the Irish Roman Catholics, was sung throughout all England.

For three years the people of England had borne patiently with James II., as the king was old, and as his two daughters, Mary and Anne, had been educated in the Church of England and were married

to Protestant princes, the former to Prince William of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, and the latter to Prince George of Denmark; but when the hopes of the English people for a release from the yoke of popery were dispelled by the birth of a Prince of Wales, June 10, 1688, they resolved upon the dethronement of James II. Many of the most prominent men of all parties in England entered into negotiations with his son-in-law, the Prince of Orange, whom they resolved to place upon the English throne at an early day. James II. little dreamed that many of the officers of the army of forty thousand men which he assembled were in secret league with his son-in-law. Among these officers was General John Churchill, afterward so famous under the title of Duke of Marlborough.

Consequence of the Birth of a Prince of Wales.

The other event which hastened the crisis which hurled James II. to his doom was the arrest and trial of Archbishop Sancroft and the six accused bishops. On the very day of their acquittal seven of the most prominent nobles of England sent an invitation to the Prince of Orange to come to England to defend liberty and Protestantism. Both parties joined in this invitation—the Tories under the leadership of the Earl of Danby, and the Whigs under the Earl of Devonshire, Lord Cavendish. Bishop Compton represented the High Churchmen. This invitation was carried secretly to Holland by Herbert, the most popular of English seamen, and who had been deprived of his command because he had refused to vote against the Test Act. The seven nobles who signed this call to William of Orange pledged themselves to rise in arms when he landed in England.

Invitation to William of Orange, Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic.

William had seen his royal father-in-law become the pensioner of Louis XIV. of France, the prince's most inveterate enemy. He had diligently watched the persistent efforts of James II. to restore Roman Catholicism as the state religion of England. He had observed James's evident purpose to make Ireland a Roman Catholic state, to become an asylum for English Roman Catholics and a possible refuge for himself—a scheme which menaced the integrity of the dominions of William's wife, who was the prospective heir to the English throne. William's counsels and protests had been unheeded by his kingly father-in-law; and when the birth of a Prince of Wales was announced, William shared the general belief that it was a supposititious child to be foisted upon England in the interest of the Roman Catholic Church. William's purpose was then formed, and he accepted the invitation of the seven English nobles, saying to Dykvelt, the Dutch ambassador at London: "It is now or never."

His Acceptance.

William was already, by descent and by circumstances, the champion of Protestantism in Europe. As the brave defender of his native land against the greedy ambition of Louis XIV., he the more willingly un-

His Position and Claims.

dertook the defense of the Protestant Church of England against his father-in-law, the cousin and co-religionist of the King of France. Besides, he was, after his wife and her sister Anne, the next heir to the throne of England, being, like them, the grandchild of Charles I.

**His Prepara-
tions.**

The English nation was ready to rise against its king upon the landing of the Prince of Orange. William was gathering Dutch troops and transports with wonderful rapidity and secrecy, while noble after noble proceeded from England to Holland. The Earl of Shrewsbury arrived at The Hague with an offer of twelve thousand pounds toward defraying the expenses of the expedition. Edward Russell, the brother of the ill-fated Lord William Russell, appeared at the Dutch capital as the representative of the noble House of Bedford. The representatives of the great Tory families, the sons of the Marquis of Winchester, of the Earl of Danby, of the Earl of Peterborough, then appeared there, as did also the High-Church Lord Macclesfield.

**Silent
Prepara-
tions in
England.**

At home the Earls of Danby and Devonshire—the former on the part of the Tories, and the latter as the representative of the Whigs—were making silent preparations with Lord Lumley for a rising in the North of England. Notwithstanding the profound secrecy with which this whole movement was conducted, the keen instinct of Lord Sunderland, the Prime Minister of King James II., who had apostatized to Roman Catholicism for the purpose of remaining in office, detected the preparations of William of Orange. Conscious that his sovereign's ruin was impending, Lord Sunderland revealed all the king's secrets to William on the promise of a pardon for the crimes to which he had lent himself.

**Accord of
James II.
and Louis
XIV.**

King James II. alone remained obstinate and insensate as usual. He feared no revolt in England without the aid of the Prince of Orange, and he felt confident that a threatened French invasion of Holland would prevent William's landing in England. Kings James II. and Louis XIV. were in perfect accord; and when William began to collect ships and Dutch troops for an invasion of England, the French king schemed to detain him on the Continent. But Louis XIV. committed a great political blunder by hurling his forces against Germany in September, 1688, instead of against Holland, thus rendering the latter country safe for the moment, and leaving Prince William of Orange safe to pursue his campaign in England. The States-General of the Dutch Republic at once sanctioned their Stadtholder's project, and the armament which William had prepared rapidly gathered in the Scheldt.

**Tardy
Conces-
sions of
James II.**

As soon as the news reached England the king passed from obstinacy to panic. He had mustered an army of forty thousand men by drafts from Scotland and Ireland, but the temper of the troops was such



WILLIAM III LANDING AT TORBAY

From the Painting by T. Stothard

that he could place no trust in them. He therefore became alarmed for the safety of his throne and made many concessions. He dissolved the Ecclesiastical Commission. He replaced the magistrates whom he had driven from office. He restored the franchises of the towns; and the Chancellor, Lord Jeffries, carried back the Charter of London in state into the city. The frightened king also dismissed Lord Sunderland from office, and produced before the Lords who were in London proofs of the birth of his child, which was almost universally believed to be a Catholic imposture.

But the king's concessions came too late; as the English people had already resolved that James II. should no longer reign; and as Prince William of Orange sailed from Holland with a fleet of six hundred transports, escorted by fifty men-of-war, and carrying thirteen thousand Dutch troops, and landed at Torbay, on the southern coast of Devonshire, November 5, 1688. His army entered Exeter amid the acclamations of its inhabitants. As his appearance had not been expected in the South-west of England, no great landowner joined him for a week; but the nobles and squires soon rallied to his standard, and his rear was secured by the adhesion of Plymouth.

In the meantime the Earl of Danby gave the signal for a rising in the North of England by dashing into York at the head of a hundred horsemen. The militia returned his shout of "A free Parliament and the Protestant religion!" The nobles and the gentry flocked to his standard, and on his march to Nottingham he was joined by the forces under the Earl of Devonshire, who had mustered at Derby the great lords of the midland and eastern counties of England.

All England was now in revolt against James II., and the revolt was triumphant in every part of the kingdom. The garrison of Hull declared for a free Parliament. The Duke of Norfolk appeared in the market-place of Norwich at the head of three hundred gentlemen. Lord Lovelace was greeted at Oxford with vociferous acclamations by townsmen and gowmsmen. Bristol opened its gates to the Prince of Orange, who advanced steadily on Salisbury, where his royal father-in-law had mustered his forces. But the royal army retreated in disorder. Its leaders were secretly pledged to William; and Lord Churchill's desertion was followed by that of so many other officers that King James II. abandoned the struggle in despair.

The deserted king fled to London, where he was told that his younger daughter Anne had left St. James's Palace to join the Earl of Danby at Nottingham. The wretched king burst into tears, exclaiming: "God help me, for my own children have forsaken me!" His spirit was thoroughly broken, and he secretly determined on flight from England in obedience to the advice of his queen and the priests;

Landing
of the
Prince of
Orange in
England.

Risings
of the
Earls of
Danby
and
Devon-
shire.

All
England
in Revolt
against
James II.

His
Flight
from
London.

although he had promised to convene both Houses of Parliament, and sent commissioners to Hungerford to treat with his triumphant son-in-law on the basis of a free Parliament. He said to the few who had not deserted him that Parliament would force upon him such concessions as he could not endure. After sending his wife and infant son to France, the fallen king cast the Great Seal into the Thames, and secretly left London on the night of December 12, 1688, rowing silently down the river to a ship which he had engaged to convey him to France.

**Tempo-
rary Mob
Rule.**

The government of England was thus dissolved by the king's own act. The mob was master. Even the army which James II. had collected to uphold his usurped authority was disbanded and let loose upon the capital, and for several days there was a wild outburst of panic and outrage; but the orderly instinct of the Anglo-Saxon race soon reasserted itself. In this momentous crisis the nobles and bishops who were in London assumed the responsibility of government, issued orders to the commanders of garrisons, the army and the navy, and opened communication with the Prince of Orange.

**Escape of
James II.
to France.**

The runaway king was arrested near the coast; but this was unwelcome news to the authorities in London and to the Prince of Orange, who had promised his wife that her father should suffer no personal injury. No one wanted to harm the fallen king, the English nation having grown wiser since his father's execution. As it was only desired that James II. should be safely out of the way, it was made easy for him to escape. After waiting for some days for an invitation to resume his throne, he fled from London a second time, and embarked for France unhindered, December 23, 1688. The fugitive king arrived safely in France several days later, and proceeded to St. Germain, near Paris, where he was honorably received by his cousin, King Louis XIV., from whom the exiled monarch received a pension during the rest of his life.

**Short
Inter-
regnum
and Con-
vention-
Parlia-
ment.**

An interregnum of two months succeeded the flight of James II. Upon William's arrival in London the House of Lords held a session and requested him to assume the provisional government and to call upon the electors of every town and county of England to send representatives to a Convention-Parliament to settle the future government of the nation. The Convention-Parliament assembled in January, 1689. Both Houses and both parties were averse to recalling the exiled king, but the House of Commons with its Whig majority differed with the House of Lords with its Tory majority on the technical question as to the right of the nation to depose its king.

**Action
of the
Commons.**

The Commons voted that James II. "having endeavored to subvert the Constitution of this kingdom by breaking the original contract

between king and people, and by the advice of Jesuits and other wicked persons having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himself out of the kingdom, has abdicated the government, and the throne is thereby vacant."

Spirited debates occurred in the House of Lords, where the Whig minority, backed by the eloquence of Lord Halifax, warmly supported the resolution of the Whig majority of the Commons. Archbishop Sancroft and the High Tories contended that no crime could bring about a forfeiture of the crown, and that James II. was still king, but that his tyranny had given the English nation a right to deprive him of the actual exercise of government and to confer its functions upon a regency. The moderate Tories, under the Earl of Danby, admitted that James II. had ceased to be king, but denied that the throne could be vacant, and contended that from the moment of his abdication the sovereignty was vested in his daughter Mary. The Lords rejected the High Tory plan by a single vote, and adopted the moderate and conservative Tory scheme of the Earl of Danby by a large majority.

Action
of the
House of
Lords.

Both the Tory positions encountered a sudden obstacle in William. He refused the regency, and told the Earl of Danby that he did not intend to be his wife's gentleman-usher. Mary refused to accept the crown unless her husband shared the royal honors. These two declarations put an end to the question. Both Houses of the Convention-Parliament then passed an *Act of Settlement* electing WILLIAM III. and MARY II. as joint King and Queen of England, with the actual administration in the hands of William, who was thenceforth the head of both a monarchy and a republic, as he was still Stadtholder of Holland.

Act of
Settle-
ment.

Somers, a young lawyer who had just distinguished himself in the trial of the bishops, and who afterward played a great part in English history, drew up a *Declaration of Rights*, which was presented to William and Mary by the two Houses of Parliament in the banqueting-room of Whitehall, February 13, 1689. This Declaration of Rights recited the misgovernment of James II., his abdication, and the resolution of the Lords and Commons of England to assert the ancient rights and liberties of English subjects.

Declara-
tion of
Rights.

The following were the most important provisions of the Declaration of Rights: 1. The king cannot suspend the laws or their execution. 2. He cannot levy money without the consent of Parliament. 3. The subjects have a right to petition the crown. 4. A standing army cannot be kept in time of peace without the consent of Parliament. 5. Elections and Parliamentary debates must be free, and Parliaments must be frequently assembled.

Its Pro-
visions.

William
and
Mary
Called
to the
Throne.

In full faith that William and Mary would accept and maintain the principles enunciated in this Declaration of Rights, the immortal document ended with declaring the Prince and Princess of Orange joint King and Queen of England. At the close of the document, Lord Halifax, in the name of the Lords and Commons of England, prayed William and Mary to accept the English crown. William accepted the offer in his own name and his wife's, and declared that both intended to maintain the laws and to govern by advice of Parliament.

"Glorious
Revolution of
1688."

Such was the *Glorious Revolution of 1688*, by which the English people established their free constitution on a firm basis, after a century of struggles with the royal House of Stuart; and ever since that great event England has had a free constitutional government. Power was transferred from the king to the House of Commons. The monarch reigns as a mere figure-head, and "the king can do no wrong." His Ministers being responsible for the government's policy, remain in power so long only as they are supported by a majority in the popular branch of Parliament.

Its Grand
Results.

A revolution which accomplished results so grand without the shedding of a drop of blood may well be called glorious. Thenceforth there was no more punishment in England except for crime. Englishmen have never since pined in dreary dungeons, or died in God's free air on a heap of blazing fagots, as martyrs to their convictions. Instruments of torture are now found only in museums, as relics of a past age, exciting the beholder's wonder that any age, especially any Christian age, could have been so barbarous.

Restoration of
English
Constitutional
Liberty.

King James II., as the subverter of the laws of the realm, and as the usurper of powers which did not belong to a King of England, was really the beginner of the revolution; while the English people and Parliament were the defenders of law as well as of the constitutional liberties which had been their inherent birthrights. The English monarchy was thus restored to the character which it had possessed under the Plantagenets, and which it had lost under the Tudors and the Stuarts. The right of the English people, through their representatives in Parliament, to depose their king, to alter the line of succession, to place on the throne whom they desired, was now asserted and fully established. The election of William and Mary formally put an end to all claim of the "divine right of kings," or all hereditary right independent of law. Since their time no King or Queen of England has been able to advance any claim to the crown except a claim resting on a particular clause in some Act of Parliament. William and Mary, and Anne, were sovereigns simply by virtue of the Bill of Rights. Their successors of the House of Brunswick have been sovereigns solely by virtue of the Act of Settlement.

End of
"Divine
Right of
Kings."

SECTION V.—ENGLAND'S FIRST YEARS OF GOVERNMENT BY THE PEOPLE (A. D. 1689-1714).

WILLIAM III. and MARY II. began to reign in 1689. England had attained a free and settled government by the bloodless Revolution of 1688. As the will of the nation had been recognized in the choice of William and Mary for its joint sovereigns, the Whig party very naturally came into power, having a majority in the Convention-Parliament. The "Glorious Revolution," as we have observed, made the English government a government by the people, which it has been ever since. Though the English throne is hereditary, the right of the English people, through their representatives in Parliament, to dethrone their reigning sovereign was clearly established by this great and bloodless Revolution, so that even the English crown is "broad-based upon the people's will."

William
and Mary,
A. D.
1689-
1702.

England's
Beginning
of Free,
Popular
Govern-
ment.

The year 1689 was a memorable one in the constitutional history of England. The Convention-Parliament during that year passed a *Bill of Rights* embodying the principles enunciated in the Declaration of Rights which William and Mary accepted upon coming to the throne. William III. signed the Bill of Rights, which has been called "The Third Great Charter of English Liberties." The *Toleration Act*, also passed by the Convention-Parliament in 1689, established complete freedom of worship.

Bill of
Rights.

Tolera-
tion Act.

The Act of Settlement provided "that whoever shall hereafter come to the possession of this crown shall join in communion with the Church of England as by law established." The Convention-Parliament asserted its absolute right over taxation by restricting the grant of the royal revenue to four years. King William III. was very much incensed by this provision. Said he: "The gentlemen of England trusted King James, who was an enemy of their religion and their laws, and they will not trust me, by whom their religion and their laws have been preserved." But the only result of this outbreak of royal anger was the resolution of Parliament to make the vote of supplies thenceforth an annual one—a resolve that has been adhered to ever since.

Conven-
tion-
Parlia-
ment and
William
III.

By the *Mutiny Act*, Parliament granted disciplinary powers and pay for the military force of the kingdom for but one year, in order to guard against the establishment of a standing army. Like the grant of supplies, the Mutiny Act has remained an annual one since the Revolution of 1688.

Mutiny
Act.

King William III. was not personally as popular in England as the cause which he represented; as he spoke English very badly, was

King
William's
First
Ministry.

naturally cold and reserved in his manners, and lacked the easy grace and the cultivated tastes of the Stuart kings, though he was an able general and statesman. He chose his first Ministry from both parties; the Tory Earl of Danby being named Lord President; the Whig Earl of Shrewsbury being appointed Secretary of State; and Lord Halifax, a trimmer between the two great parties, being selected for Lord Privy Seal. The struggles between the Whigs and the Tories were very bitter in Parliament. The Whigs proceeded to undo the wrongs which the Tories had done during the reigns of Charles II. and James II., and clamored for the punishment of the Tories guilty of those wrongs.

England
Joins the
Grand
Alliance
against
Louis
XIV. of
France.

The election of William of Orange to the throne of so powerful a kingdom as England was a serious blow to his great enemy, Louis XIV. of France; as it enabled William to bring the fleets and armies of England into his struggle with the King of France, and as it immensely increased his power and influence in Continental Europe. William III., as King of England, became the acknowledged head of the coalition of European powers formed to resist French aggression. Without an ally, Louis XIV. was obliged to face the united power of England, Holland, Germany and Spain. An English brigade was sent to the assistance of the Dutch in the Spanish Netherlands, and distinguished itself under General Churchill, who had been rewarded for his services to William III. by the title of Earl of Marlborough. But King William III. himself was detained in England by the unsettled condition of the government, particularly by the critical state of affairs in Ireland.

Scot-
land's
Rise in
Favor of
William
III.

In England, as we have seen, the Revolution of 1688 had been peacefully accomplished, not a drop of blood having been shed, and not a sword having been drawn for James II. That king's tyranny had been greater in Scotland than in England; and, as soon as he had called his Scottish troops into England to resist William's invasion from Holland, a revolt broke out in Edinburgh against his authority. The peasants in the West of Scotland at once rose in arms and drove the Episcopal clergy from their parishes, and the fall of James's tyranny was as rapid and complete in the Lowlands of Scotland as it was in England.

Conven-
tion-
Parlia-
ment of
Scotland
and the
Claim of
Right.

By the advice of the Scottish lords who were then in London, King William III. summoned a Convention-Parliament in Scotland similar to the one in England, and on his own responsibility set aside the laws which excluded Presbyterians from the Scottish Parliament. The Convention-Parliament of Scotland resolved that James VII had forfeited the Scottish crown by his misgovernment, and offered it to William and Mary on condition of their acceptance of a *Claim of Right*, similar to the Declaration of Rights by the English Conven-

tion-Parliament, and ending with a demand for the abolition of Episcopacy in Scotland. William and Mary accepted the crown of Scotland with the conditions imposed in the Claim of Right, and their authority in that kingdom was strengthened by the arrival of the Scotch regiments which William had brought from Holland when he landed in England. The strength of the new government was roughly tested in the Highlands, whose inhabitants were the deadly foes of the celebrated and powerful clan of the Campbells headed by the noble House of Argyle.

When James VII. was dethroned in Scotland, early in 1689, John Graham of Claverhouse, who had been created Viscount Dundee as a reward for his cruel persecution of the Covenanters, retired with a few troopers into the Highlands, where he was joined by the clans of the Macdonalds, the Macleans, the Camerons and others, who thought that the Revolution meant the restoration of their old oppressors, the Campbells, as represented by the House of Argyle. The Highlanders were ready to fight the Campbells and the government which upheld them, as they had fought under the banners of the Marquis of Montrose in the same cause nearly half a century before.

As King William's Scotch regiments under General Mackay climbed the rugged mountain pass of Killiecrankie, July 27, 1689, they were charged and swept in headlong rout down the g'en by three thousand Highland clansmen under the Viscount Dundee, who was killed in the moment of victory. The loss of their leader broke the bond which held the Highlanders together, and in a few weeks the authority of William and Mary was undisputed in Scotland. In the summer of 1690 General Mackay erected the strong post of Fort William in the Highlands, and his offers of money and amnesty brought about the submission of the Highland clans.

Sir John Dalrymple, the Master of Stair, who had charge of the new government in Scotland, had hoped that the Highland clans would refuse to take the oath of allegiance to the new king and queen, and thus give grounds for a war of extermination and free Scotland forever from its terror of the barbarous Highlanders. He had provided for the expected result by orders of most ruthless rigor, having written to the officer in command in these words: "Your troops will destroy entirely the country of Lochaber, Lochiel's lands, Keppoch's, Glengarry's and Glencoe's. Your powers shall be large enough. I hope the soldiers will not trouble the government with prisoners." But his hopes were disappointed by the readiness with which the Highland clans accepted the government's offers of amnesty. All submitted in good time and took the oath of allegiance to William and Mary, except the clan of Macdonald of Glencoe, whose pride caused him to delay

**Rise
of the
Scotch
High-
landers
against
William
and
Mary.**

**Battle of
Killie-
crankie.**

**Sir John
Dal-
rymple's
Plot.**

taking the oath of allegiance until six days after the latest day fixed by the proclamation of amnesty.

His Cruel Order.

Thus thwarted in his hopes for the extermination of the Highlanders, Sir John Dalrymple eagerly seized on Macdonald's delay as the pretext for a massacre of less dimensions. He therefore laid an order "for the extirpation of that nest of robbers" before King William, and this brutal order received the royal signature, though the king afterward said that he neglected to read the order. After having thus obtained the royal sanction, the Master of Stair wrote to Colonel Hamilton, who undertook the execution of the order: "The work must be secret and sudden."

Massacre of Glencoe.

Accordingly Colonel Hamilton with troops from the clan of the Campbells, the deadly foes of the clansmen of the Macdonalds of Glencoe, quartered peacefully among them for twelve days until all suspicion of their bloody errand had disappeared. At dawn February 13, 1692, the Campbells fell upon the unsuspecting Macdonalds, and in a few moments thirty of the unfortunate clan lay dead in the snow. The rest escaped under cover of a storm to the mountains, where most of them perished of cold and starvation. Upon hearing the news of the *Massacre of Glencoe*, as this tragedy was called, Sir John Dalrymple said: "The only thing I regret is that any got away."

King William's Part Therein.

The Massacre of Glencoe has been severely and justly condemned in later times, but very few except Sir John Dalrymple knew anything about it at the time. But King William's consent to it—though excused on the plea of his neglect to read the order which he signed—will always remain as a stain upon his name.

Restoration of the Presbyterian Church in Scotland.

The pacification of the Highlands enabled the work of reorganization to proceed quietly at Edinburgh. When King William accepted the Claim of Right with its repudiation of Episcopacy he had practically restored the Presbyterian Church as the state religion in Scotland. The Westminster Confession was accordingly revived as the standard of faith in Scotland, and the Scottish Parliament passed an act abolishing lay patronage. The Scottish Parliament firmly refused to pass a toleration act, as proposed by King William; but the king was just as firm in his purpose, declaring that there should be no persecution for conscience sake during his reign. Said he: "We never could be of that mind that violence was suited to the advancing of true religion, nor do we intend that our authority shall ever be a tool to the irregular passions of any party."

Ireland's Rise in Favor of James II.

Ireland was the battle-ground of the last and most severe struggle between King William III. and the fallen James II. The Earl of Tyrconnel, as Lord Lieutenant, had accomplished his mission in that

dependent kingdom by bringing it completely under Catholic rule. The Irish army had been reorganized by disbanding its Protestant soldiers and by filling the ranks with native Catholics. The courts in Ireland had also been "purified" by substituting Catholic for Protestant judges. The town charters had been seized into the hands of King James II., and Catholic mayors of cities and Catholic sheriffs of counties filled the places formerly occupied by Protestants. In every part of Ireland the half-savage natives had been let loose upon Englishmen and Protestants. In the South of the island the panic-stricken Protestants, pursued with fire and sword, fled from their homes and sought refuge over-sea; while those of the North found shelter under the walls of Londonderry and Enniskillen, which were the only towns of Ireland that declared for William and Mary and made a stand against the Catholic supporters of James II.

After intriguing with King William III. for two months in order to gain time, and backed by fifty thousand native Irish soldiers, the Earl of Tyrconnel boldly raised the standard of the fallen James II. by flinging a flag to the breeze from the tower of Dublin Castle, embroidered on its folds with the words: "Now or Never." In response to this signal, every native Irish Catholic flew to arms. The infuriated Irish plundered what their former English masters had left, and such was the havoc that the French envoy told King Louis XIV. that it would require years to repair what had been destroyed.

**Dublin
Castle
Seized
by the
Irish
Rebels.**

In the meantime King James II. had sailed from France for Ireland with a French fleet and army furnished by his cousin, King Louis XIV., and landed at Kinsale. With half of the Earl of Tyrconnel's disorderly army of fifty thousand Irishmen, chiefly armed with clubs, James II. laid siege to Londonderry. The siege lasted one hundred and five days, during which the brave little garrison of seven thousand Englishmen made many gallant sallies and repulsed the assaults of the besiegers. Multitudes of Protestants died of hunger in the streets of the beleaguered town, but still the cry of the besieged was: "No Surrender." When only two days' food remained in the city, an English ship broke through the boom stretched across the river Foyle, thus bringing relief to the heroic garrison and the starving inhabitants, July 28, 1689; whereupon the Irish army under James II. sullenly raised the siege and retired.

**Siege of
Londonderry.**

**Its
Relief.**

On the same day the Protestant garrison of Enniskillen made a sally from that town and routed the Irish force twice as large at Newtown Butler, driving it in a panic which soon spread to the whole of the Irish forces under the command of James's general, Hamilton. The routed Irish troops retreated to Dublin, where James II. lay helpless in the hands of the frenzied Catholics.

**Defense
of Ennis-
killen.**

**Ireland's
Parliament
and Its
Bill of
Attainder.**

In the Parliament of Ireland which the fallen Stuart king had summoned at Dublin every member was an Irishman and a Roman Catholic; and this Parliament proceeded in its work of ruin to the English settlers in Ireland, repealing the Act of Settlement on which all title to property rested, and passed a *Bill of Attainder* against three thousand Protestants. Notwithstanding the love for religious freedom expressed by James II., the Protestant clergy were driven from their parsonages; Fellows and scholars were expelled from Trinity College at Dublin; and the French envoy, the Count of Avaux, even proposed a general massacre of the Protestants who still lingered in the districts which had submitted to James II. But James, to his credit, shrank horror-struck from the proposal, saying: "I can not be so cruel as to cut their throats while they live peaceably under my government." The Count of Avaux coldly responded: "Mercy to Protestants is cruelty to Catholics."

**English
Invasion
of
Ireland.**

Thus far King William III. was unable to come to the relief of his Protestant subjects in Ireland, as the best English troops were in the Spanish Netherlands, operating against the French; but in the autumn of the same year, 1689, the Duke of Schomberg, a refugee Huguenot, who had entered King William's service, landed in Ireland with ten thousand English troops, and took Carrickfergus after a short siege. But this new invasion only roused Ireland to fresh enthusiasm, and the ranks of the Irish army were again filled, thus enabling James II. to lead a force of twenty thousand men to Drogheda to oppose King William's general. Thereupon the Duke of Schomberg with his ten thousand raw recruits intrenched himself at Dundalk, but a pestilence in his camp soon carried off half his troops.

**James II.
and
William
III.**

During the next six months of the campaign in Ireland, James II. sought to replenish his treasury by the coinage of brass money, and his troops subsisted by sheer plunder; while King William III. was preparing in England to reduce Ireland to submission, so that he would be free to devote his entire energies to his struggle with Louis XIV. of France.

**French
Aid to
the Irish
Rebels.**

During the winter of 1689-'90 the English army in Ireland under the Duke of Schomberg was reinforced, and by the spring of 1690 it numbered thirty thousand men. In the summer Louis XIV. sent seven thousand French troops under the Count of Lauzun to reinforce the Irish army under James II. About the very same time King William III. himself landed at Carrickfergus, and rapidly marched southward toward Dublin.

**Battle
of the
Boyne.**

When King William III. caught sight of the Irish army under James II., strongly posted behind the river Boyne, he exclaimed in an outburst of delight: "I am glad to see you, gentlemen; and if

you escape me now the fault will be mine." Early the next morning—July 1, 1690, Old Style, but July 12th, New Style—the entire English army plunged into the river. Thereupon the Irish infantry broke in a disgraceful panic; but the Irish cavalry made a gallant charge, in repulsing which the Duke of Schomberg lost his life. For the time the English center was held in check; but the arrival of King William III. at the head of the English left wing decided the battle against James II., whose last hope of recovering his lost dominions was thus destroyed. The fallen Stuart king at once fled to Dublin, and embarked at Kinsale to return to France; while King William III. entered Ireland's capital in triumph. The Orangemen, or Protestants of Ireland, still observe the anniversary of the battle of the Boyne.

The cowardice of James excited the scorn of his own Irish followers. An Irish officer replied to an Englishman's taunts about the panic at the battle of the Boyne: "Change kings with us, change kings with us, and we will fight you again." The Irish fought better afterward without a king. The French auxiliaries deserted the routed Irish army, which had fled to Limerick, where it was besieged. Said the Count of Lauzun contemptuously, concerning the ramparts of Limerick: "Do you call these ramparts? The English will need no cannon. They may batter them down with roasted apples."

But twenty thousand Irish troops under the brave and skillful Patrick Sarsfield, who had served in the English army, surprised the English ammunition train, repulsed a desperate effort of the besiegers to take Limerick by storm, and thus forced King William III. to raise the siege of that town on the approach of winter.

After his failure in the siege of Limerick, King William III. returned to England to devote his attention to the war with France on the Continent, leaving the command in Ireland in the hands of the Earl of Marlborough, General Churchill, who had been recalled from the Spanish Netherlands, where he had been rapidly proving himself a great military genius. Cork with its garrison of five thousand Irishmen surrendered in the fall of 1690, and Kinsale also fell into the hands of the English a few days later.

During the winter of 1690-'91 a new French general, St. Ruth, arrived in Ireland with arms and supplies, thus encouraging the Irish; but in the spring of 1691 the English under Ginkell, a Dutch general in King William's service, siezed Ath'one, thus forcing a battle with the combined French and Irish forces at Aughrim, in which St. Ruth was slain and his army utterly vanquished.

The surrender of Limerick by Sarsfield to Ginkell in October, 1691, brought about the complete pacification of Ireland, and the whole country acknowledged William and Mary. Two treaties were con-

Cowardice of James II.

Siege of Limerick.

Sarsfield's Defense of Limerick.

General Churchill

Fall of Cork and Kinsale.

Battle of Aughrim.

Fall of Limerick and Pacification of Ireland.

cluded at Limerick between Ginkell and Sarsfield, the first promising religious toleration to the Irish Roman Catholics, and the second permitting Sarsfield and his ten thousand followers to go to France and to enter the French service. The triumph of the English was complete; and the severe laws that were enacted held Ireland in such absolute subjection that the country ceased to be a cause of apprehension to England for a century, or until the French Revolution.

Green's
State-
ment.

Says John Richard Green, the eminent English historian, in his *Short History of the English People*: "By the military treaty, those of Sarsfield's soldiers who would were suffered to follow him to France; and ten thousand men, the whole of his force, chose exile rather than life in a land where all hope of national freedom was lost. When the wild cry of the women who stood watching their departure was hushed, the silence of death settled down upon Ireland. For a hundred years the country remained at peace, but the peace was a peace of despair. The most terrible legal tyranny under which a nation has ever groaned avenged the rising under Tyrconnel. The conquered people, in Swift's bitter words of contempt, became 'hewers of wood and drawers of water' to their conquerors; but till the very eve of the French Revolution, Ireland ceased to be a source of terror and anxiety to England."

Attitude
of Whigs
and
Tories.

On the great questions of civil and religious liberty Whigs and Tories were now agreed, as the two parties had united in bringing about the Revolution of 1688. But there their unanimity ended. The Whigs proceeded to undo the wrongs upon their great leaders during the last two reigns, and wanted to wreak vengeance on their opponents. The attainder of Lord William Russell was reversed. The judgments against Algernon Sidney, Lady Alice Lisle and others were annulled. In spite of the opinion of the judges that the sentence of Titus Oates had been illegal, the House of Lords refused to reverse it; but even that infamous impostor and adventurer was pardoned and pensioned.

King
William's
Stand
against
Proscrip-
tion.

The Whigs clamored for the punishment of the Tories who had shared in the illegal acts of Charles II. and James II., and refused to pass the Bill of General Indemnity which King William III. laid before them. The new king was resolved that no proscription should follow the revolution which placed him upon the English throne, as he was naturally opposed to persecution, and as the prosecution of the war with France demanded all his energies and exertions.

The Oath
of Alle-
giance
and the
Non-
jurors.

Almost every parson in the Established Church of England resented the requirement of an oath of allegiance to William and Mary as an intolerable wrong. Archbishop Sancroft, with a few bishops and many of the higher clergy, absolutely refused to take the oath, treated all who took it as schismatics, and when deprived of their sees by Act

of Parliament they regarded themselves and their adherents as the only members of the true Church of England. The great majority of the clergy bowed to necessity by taking the oath; but their bitterness toward the new king and queen was fanned into a flame by the expulsion of the *Nonjurors*, as those who refused to take the oath were called.

During the year 1690 Admiral Herbert, who had been created Earl of Torrington as a reward for his services in the Revolution of 1688, had engaged in an indecisive engagement with a French squadron in Bantry Bay. A French naval victory off the English coast would have been pregnant with serious political consequences to King William III.; as a popular reaction had begun in England in favor of the deposed James II., on account of the expenses of the war with France, the high taxation in consequence, the expulsion of the *Nonjurors* and the consequent discontent of the clergy, the panic of the Tories at the spirit of vengeance displayed by the triumphant Whigs, and the presence of James II. in Ireland. This reaction led to the formation of a new party, called *Jacobites*, consisting of the Tory adherents of James II.; and it was feared that a Jacobite rising would follow the appearance of a French fleet on the English coast.

Popular
Reaction
in Favor
of
James II.

The
Jacobites.

Under these circumstances, King William III., who perceived that if he yielded to the Whig thirst for vengeance his cause would be ruined, dissolved Parliament, proclaimed a general amnesty for all political offenses, under the title of an *Act of Grace*, and accepted the resignations of his more violent Whig Ministers. A new Ministry under the Earl of Danby, the old Tory leader, was formed; and the new Parliament summoned in 1690 had a Tory majority in the House of Commons.

Act of
Grace
and a
Tory
Ministry.

The combined English and Dutch fleets under Admiral Herbert, Earl of Torrington, were defeated by the French fleet under Admiral Tourville off Beachy Head, on the coast of Sussex, June 30, 1690 (July 11th, New Style), the day before the battle of the Boyne. The fear of an invasion of England united the English people against the Jacobites. The burning of Teignmouth by the French fleet and the news of the battle of the Boyne gave the death-blow to the reaction in favor of the exiled James II.

Naval
Battle off
Beachy
Head.

In the spring of 1691 King William III. appeared in person at the head of an English army in the Spanish Netherlands, but was unable to prevent the capture of Mons by the French. The result was another Jacobite reaction in England, and such prominent Tories as the Earl of Clarendon and Lord Dartmouth opened a correspondence with the exiled James II. The Earl of Shrewsbury and other Whig leaders, angered at what they considered King William's ingratitude,

Jacobite
Reaction
in Favor
of
James II.

did the very same thing. The Earl of Marlborough sought to bring about a revolt which would drive William III. from the throne and place James's daughter Anne upon it, hoping thus to get the real direction of affairs in his own hands, as Anne had a great affection for the Earl of Marlborough's wife.

**Project
for the
Invasion
of
England.**

Admiral Russell, the successor of the Earl of Torrington, was also disloyal to King William III., but was too true an Englishman to allow the French to invade Eng'land. In May, 1692, an army of thirty thousand men—French troops and British exiles—was assembled on the coast of Normandy to invade England and replace James II. on his lost throne; but Admiral Russell, at the head of the English and Dutch fleets, defeated the French fleet under Admiral Tourville off the Isle of Wight, May 19, 1692, and in a still greater naval battle off Cape La Hogue, on the coast of Normandy, May 23, 1692. James II., who watched the battle from a neighboring eminence, could not help expressing his admiration of the skill and bravery of the English seamen, saying: "None but my brave English could have done this." This great English naval victory defeated the project of an invasion of Eng'land by the fallen James II., and established England's supremacy on the seas.

**Naval
Battles
off the
Isle of
Wight
and
Cape La
Hogue.**

**Land
Battles.**

The French army in the Spanish Netherlands defeated the allied Eng'ish and Dutch armies under King William III. in the great battles of Steinkirk, July 24, 1692, and Neerwinden, July 29, 1693.

**Corre-
spond-
ence with
James II.**

William's expensive war with France aroused great dissatisfaction in England, and his most trusted Ministers were ever ready to enter into a correspondence with James II. whenever their own interests seemed likely to be advanced thereby. Even the Princess Anne was persuaded by her intimate friend, the Countess of Marlborough, to write a penitent letter to her father, whom she had deserted during the Revolution of 1688, desiring peace and reconciliation.

**Great
Constitu-
tional
Change.**

The Revolution of 1688 and the Bill of Rights transferred the political power in Eng'land from the king to the House of Commons. Hitherto the Ministers of the Crown were but the king's servants, being responsible to the king only. By impeachment the Commons could sometimes force a king to remove a Minister who antagonized them, but they had no constitutional power to put in his place a Minister who represented their will. But the discontent of the Commons with William's war policy and with his internal administration led to a wonderful constitutional change in 1693, which has made England virtually a republic.

The credit of this great constitutional change belongs to Robert, Earl of Sunder'land, who had been a Minister under Charles II. and also under James II., and who secured pardon and protection from

William III. by having betrayed James II. when that king's doom was impending, although he had held office under him by complying with his tyranny and by a feigned conversion to the Roman Catholic faith. He had remained in retirement since the Revolution of 1688, and now came forward to suggest his new plan to William III., which was that the king should choose all his Ministers from the party which had a majority in the House of Commons. By this plan the Ministers of the Crown ceased to be the king's servants in all but in name, and became simply an executive committee representing the majority of the House of Commons, with which they must always be in accord on questions of great national policy. Small factions were thus drawn together into two great parties, which supported or opposed the Ministry of the Crown—the party of the Government and that of the Opposition.

Robert, Earl of Sunderland, and His Plan for a Responsible Ministry

Such was the origin of that system of popular representative government framed by Robert, Earl of Sunderland, which has ever since prevailed in England. In spite of the temporary reaction, the Earl of Sunderland believed that the Whigs were really the stronger party; as they were the natural representatives of the principles of the Revolution of 1688, and as they were supporters of the war with France, which the Tories opposed on account of the growth of taxation and the ruin of English commerce by French privateers.

His View of Whig Strength.

The Tory opposition to the war induced King William III. to hearken to the Earl of Sunderland's advice by dissolving Parliament in 1695 and ordering the election of a new Parliament. The elections gave the Whigs a majority in the new House of Commons, whereupon the king dismissed his Tory Ministry and appointed a Whig Ministry in accord with the new House of Commons. The able Whig statesmen known as the Junto were called to this new Ministry. Thus Admiral Russell became Lord of the Admiralty; the brilliant Somers became Lord Keeper; Montague became Chancellor of the Exchequer; and the Earl of Shrewsbury became Secretary of State.

New Parliament and a Whig Ministry.

The Whig majority of the House of Commons moved quietly under the direction of their leaders, the new Ministers of the Crown, thus giving a new tone to that branch of Parliament; and great financial and constitutional measures passed rapidly through Parliament. By the passage of the *Triennial Act*, in 1695, the duration of a House of Commons was limited to three years. The refusal of the Commons to renew the bill for the censorship of the press, in 1695, established the freedom of the press; whereupon a multitude of public prints appeared. Concerning the action of the Commons in this matter, Macaulay says: "This act has done more for liberty and civilization than the Great Charter or the Bill of Rights."

Triennial Act and Freedom of the Press.

**Bank of
England
Founded.**

To meet the financial strain of the war with France, Montague, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, established the *Bank of England* in 1694 by adopting the plan suggested by Paterson, a Scotch adventurer; the subscribers to a loan being formed into a company without exclusive privileges and prohibited by law from lending money to the crown without the consent of Parliament. The growth of the national wealth had been so great that the list of subscribers was filled in ten days. The discovery of the resources afforded by the national credit revealed a new source of power. The rapid growth of the National Debt gave a new security against the restoration of the Stuarts, who would have repudiated it. Montague also carried out another financial reform in purifying the coinage of England, which had been greatly debased.

**National
Debt.**

**Queen
Mary's
Death.**

Queen Mary died near the end of 1694, and thus William III. reigned alone during the few remaining years of his life. William III. never recovered from the sadness caused him by the death of his wife, to whom he was tenderly and devotedly attached.

**Capture
of Namur.**

The power of the new Whig Ministry, the evidence of the public credit, strengthened King William III. at home and abroad. In 1695 the Grand Alliance against France won its first great victory over the French arms by the capture of Namur, in the Spanish Netherlands. The war was finally ended by the Peace of Ryswick, September 30, 1697; by which Louis XIV. relinquished all his conquests except Alsace, recognized William III. as King of England, Scotland and Ireland, and abandoned the cause of James II.

**Peace of
Ryswick.**

**Partition
Treaty
and the
Spanish
Succession.**

William III. and Louis XIV. soon afterward entered into a treaty for the partition of the Spanish dominions, October, 1698. The Spanish branch of the Hapsburgs, which had occupied the throne of Spain for two centuries, was about to end with the death of the childless Charles II.; and three heirs of Spanish princesses who had married into French and Austrian families claimed the Spanish succession.

**Popular
Reaction
against
William
III. and
the Whig
Party.**

The death of the nearest heir, the Elector of Bavaria, in 1699, annulled the First Partition Treaty between the Kings of England and France. Europe was threatened with another general war, and the popular feeling in England left William III. without the means of backing his policy by force of arms. The suffering caused to the merchant class by the last war, and the burden of debt and taxation which it entailed, were daily arousing the resentment of the English people; and the general popular discontent avenged itself on King William III. and the Whig party, which had sustained his policy. The king's lavish grants of crown-lands to his Dutch favorites, his cold and sullen demeanor, with his endeavor to maintain a standing army, had lost him all popularity. The Whig Junto lost its hold on the Commons. Montague was driven from his post. Somers was at-

tacked without scruple. Even the boldest Whigs were afraid to accept office. In spite of the king's entreaties, Parliament sent his Dutch guards out of the country, reduced the army from ten thousand men to seven thousand, and the navy from forty thousand to eight thousand.

By a Second Partition Treaty between the Kings of England and France, in 1700, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany was required to cede his Spanish claims to his second son, the Archduke Charles; while Louis XIV. conferred his claims on Spain upon his grandson, Duke Philip of Anjou, who renounced his hereditary claims on France. But, upon the death of Charles II. of Spain, in 1700, Louis XIV. disregarded the Second Treaty of Partition by accepting the will of Charles II. bequeathing the whole Spanish inheritance to Philip of Anjou, garrisoned the Spanish Netherlands with French troops, and haughtily refused to comply with King William's demand for their withdrawal.

**Second
Partition
Treaty.**

The new Parliament in England with its Tory majority was opposed to war, and in 1701 William III. was obliged to appoint a Tory Ministry under Lord Godolphin, which forced William III. to recognize Philip of Anjou as King of Spain. As Holland did this, William could not refuse. But both parties in England were agreed in opposing a French occupation of the Spanish Netherlands, and a French attack on the Protestant succession in England as settled by the Revolution of 1688. When Holland appealed to England for aid against a French invasion, the enraged Tory party in Parliament saw that they were silently drifting into war, and impeached the leading members of the Whig Junto for their share in the Partition Treaties. They insulted William III. and delayed the supplies. But the disclosure of the French king's designs and fresh Jacobite plots induced even the Tory Parliament to increase the army to ten thousand men and the navy to thirty thousand.

**New Tory
Parliament
and Its
Anti-war
Attitude.**

Finally, when Louis XIV., upon the death of James II., in 1701, recognized his son as King of England, Scotland and Ireland, all England was aroused to intense indignation, regarding the French king's action as a national insult; and King William III. found his Tory Parliament very willing to second all his efforts.

**Impru-
dent Act
of Louis
XIV.**

A new *Act of Settlement*, passed in 1701, excluded Roman Catholics forever from the throne of England; making Anne, the second daughter of James II., the prospective heiress to the English crown; and extending the right of succession to the Protestant heirs of James I., on the impending failure of Protestant heirs of James II.; thus conferring the crown upon the Princess Sophia, the granddaughter of James I. and the wife of the Elector of Hanover.

**New Act
of Settle-
ment.**

**Second
Grand
Alliance.**

In 1702 a Second Grand Alliance was concluded against Louis XIV. of France by England, Holland and the German Empire. The Parliament summoned by William III. in 1702 with its Tory majority voted forty thousand troops for the War of the Spanish Succession, which now broke out. In the midst of his preparations for war, King William III. died at Hampton Court, March 8, 1702, from the effects of a fall from his horse, which broke his collar-bone and aggravated the disease from which he for some time had been suffering. He was fifty-one years of age at the time of his death, and had reigned over England thirteen years. His successor ANNE, second daughter of James II., carried out his policy.

**Acci-
dental
Death of
William
III.****His
Abilities
and Char-
acter.**

William III. for some time had been suffering from ill health, but to the last his fiery soul within showed itself in his eagle eye and in his firmly-compressed lips. As the House of Orange had lain prostrate in his early youth, he was trained in the sad school of adversity. So he had learned to be watchful of public events, and also to be reserved in expressing his views. As his family was restored to power when he was reaching manhood, he brought to the public service wisdom and prudence remarkable in one so young. He displayed his genius to the best advantage in great emergencies. He was never so cool as when on the battlefield, and was always most dangerous after a defeat. He was personally unpopular during his lifetime, on account of his silent, unsocial habits, and his manifest partiality for his own countrymen. But his patience, constancy and patriotism, and the wisdom of his far-seeing policy, which secured to the English people prosperity at home, and which gave them an influence abroad which they had not possessed since Cromwell's time, have caused the name of William III. to be honored in every English household.

**Rights of
Accused.**

Statutes enacted by Parliament during the reign of William III. secured to persons accused of crime the right of counsel and a copy of the charges, and secured to those who were condemned protection from excessive fines and from cruel and unusual punishments.

**Popular
Liberty
and
Royal
Prerog-
ative
Defined.**

The reign of William III. embraces an era in constitutional government in England, not only because it gave rise to new laws in the interest of liberty, but also because it gave vitality to old laws. Before his reign there were a sufficient number of charters and statutes, if they had been executed, to have made the English people thoroughly free; but public sentiment was not sufficiently educated and expressed, and the royal prerogative was not adequately limited and defined, to render the rule of a tyrant impossible. During the reign of William III. the rights and liberties of the English people and the prerogatives of the crown were clearly defined, so that ever since that period the sovereign as well as the subject bows before the majesty of the law.

The one principle established in the reign of William III. that has made popular government in England secure is the principle that the Ministers of the Crown must be in accord with the majority in the House of Commons. If in any matter of importance, or in any matter in which the rival parties are at issue, the Commons refuse by their vote to sustain the policy of the Ministry in power, the Ministry either resigns to make way for a Ministry of the opposing party or it dissolves Parliament and orders an election for a new House of Commons; and if the new election sustains the Ministerial policy by returning a majority in its favor the Ministry remains in power; but if an adverse majority is returned the Ministry resigns, and a Ministry of the opposite party comes into power. Thus the House of Commons—the popular, or republican branch of the English Parliament—can dictate the governmental policy, and is the chief ruling power in England.

**Principle
of Ministerial
Responsibility
Established.**

Since that time the sovereign of England has reigned without governing; and as his Prime Minister, as the real executive of the English government, is not responsible to the monarch, but to the English people, through their representatives in the House of Commons, and as the sovereign is shorn of all power in the government, the king or queen is not responsible for any act of government, therefore no royal abuses of political power can result from the maxim of English law that "the king can do no wrong," thus giving truth and practical force to that maxim, the king or queen not being able to do wrong as a sovereign, as he or she is deprived of the power of doing so.

**The King
Can Do
No
Wrong**

One peculiar and interesting fact in connection with the English Constitution is that it is not embraced in a single enactment or in the enactments of any single reign. It includes all the great charters and statutes that have been enacted at various times since King John's reign, with such customs and precedents as have been sanctioned by long usage. The English Constitution, although lacking the individuality of the United States Constitution, commands our reverence and our admiration; as it is the slow and steady growth of ages, and as it is the product of the wisdom and patriotism of the best English minds, standing the tests of time and an advancing civilization. In fact the American Constitution is simply an epitome and collection of the various charters of freedom which mark the entire course of English history.

**Development
of the
British
Constitution.**

The term *Mother Country* is significant to Americans, not only as indicating the English origin of most of the people of the United States, and of our early colonial governments, but also the English origin of American liberties and American laws. Almost all of those great principles of government which Americans so dearly cherish

**The
Mother
Country**

were conceived in English hearts and wrought out by English hands. The inalienable rights of man—life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness—dawned in Magna Charta and the Bill of Rights long before they shone resplendent in the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States.

Greatness
of the
Anglo-
Saxon
Race.

The great Anglo-Saxon branch of the Germanic race—which was planted on the soil of Britain fourteen centuries ago—grew under exceptionally favoring influences to be the admiration and wonder of the world. The history of the long series of popular conquests, which were nobly won and firmly held—from Magna Charta to the Bill of Rights, which were the preludes to our own Declaration of Independence and our National Constitution—contains a fund of political wisdom which is the priceless inheritance of our own nation as well as of the Mother Country. The spirit of American institutions cannot be understood without some knowledge of the circumstances in England which led to the development of the great principles of English freedom upon which our own institutions are built. The great English statesmen who laid the foundations of English and American freedom in England centuries before our Republic was born deserve our lasting gratitude. The names of Stephen Langton, of Simon de Montfort, of John Hampden and the men who founded the English Commonwealth, should be cherished as much as Americans as by Englishmen.

English
Freedom
in
America.

Thus it is English freedom—the slow and steady growth of many centuries—that the people of our Republic enjoy. This new slip was severed from the parent tree a century ago, only that it might extend new roots and new branches in a broader field and under yet freer heavens, thus giving fuller development to the great principles of human liberty which constitute the rich inheritance transmitted to us from an illustrious ancestry.

Anne,
A. D.
1702–
1714.
Two
Great
Events.

As we have seen, ANNE, second daughter of James II., succeeded William III. on the thrones of England and Scotland. The two great events of English history during Queen Anne's reign were the War of the Spanish Succession and the Parliamentary or Constitutional Union of England and Scotland. These will now be noticed.

War
of the
Spanish
Succession.

Nearly the whole of Anne's reign of twelve years (A. D. 1702–1714) was occupied with the War of the Spanish Succession, which will be briefly noted here and more fully described in our account of the French history of this period. The allied English, Dutch and German imperial armies under the English Duke of Marlborough and the German imperial general, Prince Eugene of Savoy, a Frenchman by birth, won great victories over the French armies on the Continent—namely at Blenheim, in Bavaria, August 13, 1704, and in the

Spanish Netherlands, at Ramillies, May 23, 1706; at Oudenarde, July 11, 1708, and at Malplaquet, September 11, 1709; while the English fleet under Admiral Sir George Rooke captured the rocky stronghold of Gibraltar from the Spaniards, August 4, 1704, and that strongest fortress of the world and key to the Mediterranean has ever since been in England's possession. The English under the Earl of Peterborough took Barcelona, in Spain, in 1705, but the allies were beaten by the French in Spain in the great battle of Almanza, April 25, 1707.

**Victories
of the
Duke of
Marl-
borough.**

**Capture of
Gibraltar.**

John Churchill, created Earl of Marlborough in 1639 and Duke of Marlborough in 1702, was the most distinguished political leader in England during Queen Anne's reign, being the great upholder of England's war policy during the War of the Spanish Succession. At first both parties in England supported the war—the Whigs because it was in the interest of their party policy, and the Tories because it was conducted by a Tory general.

**The Duke
of Marl-
borough
and the
War Sen-
timent in
England.**

The victory of Blenheim produced great political consequences in England. The Tories in the meantime had slowly drifted back into their antipathy to a "Whig war." The Duke of Marlborough sought to bind the Tories to his war policy in 1702 and 1703, by supporting a bill against occasional conformity, excluding the Nonconformists still more rigidly from all municipal rights, and by allowing the queen to set aside the tithes and first fruits hitherto paid by the clergy to the crown as a fund for the augmentation of small benefices. This fund is still called Queen Anne's Bounty. But the Lords steadily resisted the bill against occasional conformity, and the efforts of the Duke of Marlborough to bind the Tory Ministers to a support of the war were daily becoming more fruitless.

**Political
Conse-
quences
of the
Victory
of
Blenheim.**

The higher Tories, under the leadership of the Earl of Nottingham, had thrown every obstacle in the way of the prosecution of the war, and finally resigned office in 1704; whereupon the Duke of Marlborough had a new Ministry appointed, consisting of the more moderate Tories who were still in favor of the war. Thus Robert Harley became Secretary of State, and the talented Henry St. John became Secretary of War. The Duke of Marlborough's march into Germany imbittered the political strife in England. The Tories and Jacobites threatened to bring the duke's head to the block if he failed in his campaign, and he was saved from political ruin only by the victory of Blenheim.

**The
Tories
and the
Duke of
Marl-
borough.**

The Duke of Marlborough slowly and reluctantly drifted from the Tory party, which opposed the war, to the Whigs, who really supported his war policy. He took advantage of the victory of Blenheim to dissolve Parliament; and, according to his hopes, the elections of 1705 returned a majority in favor of the prosecution of the war.

**The
Duke of
Marl-
borough
and the
Whigs.**

His efforts brought about a coalition of the Whig Junto and the moderate Tories who still supported him, thus foiling the hostile attacks of the extreme Tories, or peace party. The Duke of Marlborough secured the support of the Whigs by making the Whig William Cowper Lord Keeper and by sending Lord Sunderland as envoy to Vienna. But the duke encountered bitter disappointment abroad in the refusal of the German imperial and Dutch armies to join him in the campaign of 1705.

Partia-
mentary
Union of
England
and
Scotland.

The year 1707 was rendered memorable by the Constitutional or Parliamentary Union of England and Scotland. For a long time the policy of uniting England and Scotland into one kingdom had been seriously considered by leading statesmen in the two kingdoms, but the project was long delayed by religious differences and commercial jealousies. Scotland would not bear any portion of the English national debt. England refused to yield any part of her monopoly of trade with her colonies. The English Churchmen longed for the restoration of Episcopacy in Scotland, while the Scotch Presbyterians refused to listen even to the legal toleration of Episcopalians.

Act of
Settle-
ment
by the
Scotch
Parlia-
ment.

The passage of an Act of Settlement by the Scotch Parliament in 1703 warned English statesmen of the danger of further delay. In this measure the Scotch Whigs, who cared only for the independence of their country, united with the Scotch Jacobites, who cared only for the interests of the *Pretender*, the son of the ill-fated James II. The Scotch Jacobites excluded the name of the Princess Sophia of Hanover from their Act of Settlement; while the Scotch Whigs introduced a provision that no sovereign of England should be recognized as sovereign of Scotland except upon condition of giving security to the religion, freedom and trade of the Scots.

Act of
Union
and the
Kingdom
of Great
Britain.

The danger of the Scotch Act of Settlement was great, as it indicated a recognition of the Pretender in Scotland on the death of Queen Anne, and a consequent war between England and Scotland. But this danger was averted three years later by the wisdom and resolution of Lord Somers in bringing the question to an issue. By his firmness the jealousies and differences on both sides were put by; and an *Act of Union* was finally passed by the English Parliament in 1707, providing that England and Scotland should be united into one kingdom under the name of *Great Britain*, and that the succession to the crown of this United Kingdom should be governed by the provisions of the English Act of Settlement. The Scotch Church and the Scotch laws were left undisturbed; but all rights of trade were made common to both countries, and a uniform system of coinage was adopted. A single Parliament was thenceforth to represent the United Kingdom at Westminster, and thus forty-five Scotch members were added to the five hundred

and thirteen members of the English House of Commons, while sixteen Scotch representative peers were added to the one hundred and eight members of the English House of Lords.

In Scotland the opposition to the Act was bitter and almost universal. The terrors of the Presbyterians were allayed by an Act of Security which became a part of the *Treaty of Union*, and which required every sovereign on his accession to take an oath to support the Presbyterian Church; but the enthusiastic Whig patriots and the fanatical Jacobites of Scotland would not be satisfied with any securities. The Scotch Jacobites sought the aid of French troops and plotted for a Stuart restoration. The Scotch national party threatened to secede from the Presbyterian Assembly which voted for the Union, and to establish a rival Parliament.

Scotch
Opposi-
tion
and the
Act of
Security.

But in the end the good sense of the Scotch people, and the loyalty of the trading classes of Scotland to the cause of the Protestant succession, prevailed over all jealousies and opposition; and the Act of Union was adopted by the Scottish Parliament during the same year, 1707, when the Treaty of Union became a Parliamentary Act, which was signed by Queen Anne, who gave her assent in these noble words: "I desire and expect from my subjects of both nations that henceforth they act with all possible respect and kindness to one another, that so it may appear to all the world they have hearts disposed to become one people."

Act of
Union
Accepted
by the
Scotch
Parlia-
ment.

Time has answered all of Queen Anne's hopes. The two nations hitherto so hostile have remained one ever since the Treaty of Union in 1707 brought them together. The Union was soon acquiesced in as the best policy for both countries, and so it has indeed proved. England was thus freed from a constant danger of treason and war, and the Union has been of the greatest advantage to Scotland.

Its
Benefit
to Both
Countries.

Says John Richard Green, in his *Short History of the English People*, concerning Queen Anne's expressed hopes: "Time has more than answered these hopes. The two nations whom the Union brought together have ever since remained one. England gained in the removal of a constant danger of treason and war. To Scotland the Union opened up new avenues of wealth which the energy of its people turned to wonderful account. The farms of Lothian have become models of agricultural skill. A fishing town on the Clyde has grown into the rich and populous Glasgow. Peace and culture have changed the wild clansmen of the Highlands into herdsmen and farmers. Nor was the change followed by any loss of national spirit. The world has hardly seen a mightier and more rapid development of national energy than that of Scotland after the Union. All that passed away was the jealousy which had parted since the days of Edward the First two

Green's
State-
ment.

peoples whom a common blood and common speech proclaimed to be one. The Union between Scotland and England has been real and stable simply because it was the legislative acknowledgment and enforcement of a national fact."

French
Aid to
the Pre-
tender
Foiled.

The Constitutional Union of England and Scotland in 1707 excited some disturbances in Scotland, and the French king took advantage thereof by sending a fleet and five thousand men to escort the Pretender to the Frith of Forth. The French monarch's design was frustrated by the English fleet under Admiral Byng.

The Duke
of Marl-
borough
and the
Attitude
of the
Two
Parties.

The Duke of Marlborough had been rewarded with the royal manor of Woodstock, where the palace of Blenheim was afterward erected. It was the wise policy of the duke to govern England by holding the balance of power between the rival political parties. His victory at Ramillies made him strong enough to force Queen Anne to admit Lord Sunderland, the most ultra leader of the Whigs, to office, notwithstanding her hatred of the Whig party. The Tories were daily becoming more opposed to the war, and the Duke of Marlborough was obliged to rely upon the Whigs for support. They made him pay a dear price for their aid. They were the only party that supported the war to which the Duke of Marlborough was pledged; and he was powerless to oppose the measures of the Whigs, as he could not command the support of the Tories.

Queen
Anne
and the
Duke of
Marl-
borough.

Not only was the Tory party opposed to the Duke of Marlborough, but Queen Anne's Tory principles caused her to lose faith in the great duke. She bitterly resented the appointment of Lord Sunderland to office, which the Duke of Marlborough had wrung from her by threatening to resign his command. The Whigs were resolved to drive the moderate Tories from office; and, as the Duke of Marlborough was powerless to oppose them, he was obliged to comply with their demands, against his own judgment. This compliance increased the queen's hatred towards the duke, and the haughty temper of the duke's wife won for her the dislike of her former royal friend. The Whigs were now supreme in England.

The
Duke's
Waning
Influence.

Great expectations had been formed in England, which the results of the campaign of 1707 so miserably disappointed. In consequence Lord Godolphin and the Duke of Marlborough lost much of their popularity, and they were opposed even by members of the Cabinet. Though they persuaded Queen Anne to dismiss Secretary Harley and Mr. St. John, they perceived that their influence with Her Majesty and their power in Parliament had been considerably diminished, A. D. 1708.

The great victories of the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene of Savoy in the Spanish Netherlands, at Oudenarde, July 11, 1708,

and Malplaquet, September 11, 1709, did not restore the former's declining prestige among his own countrymen, and the great loss of the allies in the battle of Malplaquet caused the Tory enemies of the Duke of Marlborough to raise the cry of a "deluge of blood" in order to make him unpopular in his own country. Eng'and was flooded with pamphlets and other publications against the great duke, who was abused, ridiculed, accused of prolonging the war for his own gratification and profit; and even the courage of this greatest of England's generals was questioned. The efforts of his Tory enemies succeeded, and the English people were induced to consider the greatest Englishman of the time as his country's worst enemy. His brilliant services in so nobly sustaining the glory of England abroad were simply regarded by the English populace as evidences of a criminal ambition.

Rapid
Loss of
His Popu-
larity.

A change of opinion with regard to the war had taken place in England, which resulted in the expulsion of the Whigs from office and the accession to power of the Tories, who opposed the war. The English people by this time had become weary of a struggle in which they bore the chief burdens and reaped few advantages. Queen Anne, a woman of feeble mind, had long been under the influence of the Duchess of Marlborough, who did not always use her power with discretion, but behaved toward the queen in a haughty and insolent manner.

Political
Change.

Queen
Anne
and the
Duchess
of Marl-
borough.

A new favorite, Mrs. Masham, now supplanted the Duchess of Marlborough in the queen's favor, and was influenced by Secretary Harley and Mr. St. John to induce Her Majesty to make a complete change in the administration. This would not have been possible had the Whigs continued to enjoy the confidence of the English people, but many circumstances contributed to diminish their popularity.

Queen
Anne
and Mrs.
Masham.

The burden of taxation which the expenses of the war occasioned began to excite general dissatisfaction when frequent but useless victories ceased to excite joy, especially as the allies contrived that "Eng'and should fight for all and pay for all." The English people regarded the rejection of the French king's peace proposals, through the influence of the avaricious Duke of Marlborough and the vindictive Prince Eugene, as the triumph of private interest and private ambition over public policy. The Duke of Marlborough had incurred the hatred of the people by his avarice, having greatly enriched himself by his share in army contracts.

The
English
People
and the
Duke of
Marl-
borough.

In the midst of the general discontent of the English nation with the rule of the Whigs, the Tories raised the cry that the Church was in danger, because of the favor which the Whig party showed to the Dissenters, or Nonconformists. Instead of allowing this imputation to refute itself, the Whigs unwisely endeavored to silence the clamor by force. Dr. Henry Sacheverell preached a sermon before the Lord

Sache-
verell's
Sermon

Mayor of London in St. Paul's Cathedral severely censuring the Dissenters and advocating the exploded doctrines of absolute passive obedience and non-resistance.

**His
Impeach-
ment.**

Though Sacheverell's sermon was a poor and contemptible production, the violence of party spirit caused it to be printed and forty thousand copies of it to be sold in one week. It probably would have been forgotten in another week had not Lord Godolphin, who was personally assailed in the House of Commons, persuaded his partisans to subject the preacher to a Parliamentary impeachment. The common sense of the English nation revolted from such an absurd proceeding. The generous feeling of the nation was enlisted on the side of Dr. Sacheverell, and this sympathy was soon transferred to his cause. During his trial the populace manifested the most lively zeal in his behalf; and when he was convicted, the House of Lords, dreading popular tumults, passed a sentence so lenient that the Tories hailed it as a triumph for their party.

**New Tory
Ministry.**

The persecution of Sacheverell led to the expulsion of the Whig party from power. Aware of their unpopularity, Queen Anne dismissed all her Ministers except the Duke of Marlborough, and formed a Tory Cabinet in which Messrs. Harley and St. John were the leading members. Mr. Harley was soon created Earl of Oxford, and Mr. St. John became Viscount Bolingbroke. Parliament was dissolved, and the elections returned a Parliament with an overwhelming Tory majority, A. D. 1711. The new Tory Ministry, however, for the time adhered to the war policy of their Whig predecessors; and the new Tory House of Commons voted adequate supplies for the prosecution of the war.

**Disgrace
and Re-
tirement
of the
Duke of
Marl-
borough.**

The Duke of Marlborough fought his last campaign in 1711, during which he stormed and carried the intrenched camp of Marshal Villars at Arleux and captured the strongly-fortified town of Bouchain; but while he was winning these successes on the frontier of France and the Spanish Netherlands the malice of his Tory enemies in England was too strong for him; and, being charged with avarice and corruption in enriching himself in army contracts, he was condemned by a vote of the House of Commons and deprived of his command and all his civil offices, and was succeeded in his command by the Duke of Ormond, who had secret orders not to fight. The Duke of Marlborough at once left England, being then sixty-one years of age.

**His
Abilities
and Char-
acter.**

Such was the treatment accorded by his own countrymen to the general who, in an unbroken career of good fortune, took every fortress which he besieged and won every battle which he fought. He was one of the greatest statesmen, and unquestionably the ablest general, that England ever produced. He was remarkably handsome,

and was gifted with a serenity which few things could ruffle. He possessed unshaken courage, an ardent and venturesome nature, which was held in check by a cool, clear judgment, which was never influenced by personal feelings. He had an extraordinary capacity for enduring fatigue, and he sometimes passed fifteen hours on horseback. His manners were perfect, and a striking trait of his character was his courtesy to every one.

The great duke was passionately fond of his wife, and his love for her was the only strong feeling of his otherwise purely intellectual nature. He was absolutely without feeling in everything else, hating no one, loving none, regretting nothing. The passions which usually swayed others, whether noble or ignoble, were simply regarded by him as elements in an intellectual problem that required patience for its solution. He was insensible to the finer feelings of human nature; and, although he was a man of real greatness, he loved money simply for money's sake, and stained his great fame by his avarice and speculation.

His
Insensi-
bility and
Avarice.

In the disgrace of the Duke of Marlborough—whom political circumstances had gradually drawn from the Tory party until he had become the most influential leader of the Whig party—the chief supporter of the war policy lost his influence in public affairs in England; and before the close of the campaign of 1711 the new Tory Ministry of England was secretly negotiating with France for peace, and a preliminary treaty was signed between England and France at London in October, 1711.

Anti-war
Sentiment
in
England.

Prelimi-
nary
Treaty.

As early as January, 1712, conferences for peace were opened at Utrecht, in Holland, through the influence of England under her Tory Ministers, who, after many disgraceful intrigues, sacrificed the interests of their country to party purposes. Eighty plenipotentiaries of the allied powers met three envoys on the part of the King of France. Owing to the opposition of the Dutch and German imperial ambassadors, negotiations progressed very slowly.

Peace
Confer-
ences at
Utrecht.

After a year's negotiation, the Peace of Utrecht, April 11, 1713, between England, Holland, Portugal, Spain and France—followed by the Peace of Rastadt, between France and Austria, March 7, 1714, and the Peace of Baden, between France and the German Empire, in September, 1714—ended the War of the Spanish Succession; the French claimant, Philip of Anjou, being recognized as King of Spain; while England obtained Gibraltar and Minorca from Spain, and Nova Scotia and the Hudson's Bay Territory from France.

Peace of
Utrecht.

The conduct of the Tory Ministry of the Earl of Oxford and Lord Bolingbroke in concluding the Peace of Utrecht aroused fierce party contests in England. The Whigs denounced the treaty as an absolute

Party
Contests
in
England.

surrender of the fruits of English victories and a wanton sacrifice of the advantages which England might have claimed from the success of her arms. The Tories reproached the Whigs for continuing the war unnecessarily after all its reasonable objects had been gained. The English people generally disliked the treaty, and the House of Commons rejected the commercial treaty with France by a majority of nine votes.

Lord
Boling-
broke
and the
Stuart
Pre-
tender.

The removal of the Earl of Oxford from the head of the Ministry through the influence of the Jacobites, and the formation of a more ultra Tory Cabinet under Lord Bolingbroke, who was favorably disposed toward the House of Stuart, gave ground for popular apprehensions, especially as the Jacobites openly demanded that the Pretender, the son of James II., be declared the heir to the English throne. Lord Bolingbroke would have brought about such a result could he have induced the young Stuart to become a Protestant. The Whigs accordingly raised the cry that the Protestant succession was in danger, and the alarm which they thus spread throughout the kingdom recovered for their party a very large share of its former favor and popularity.

Queen
Anne's
Death.

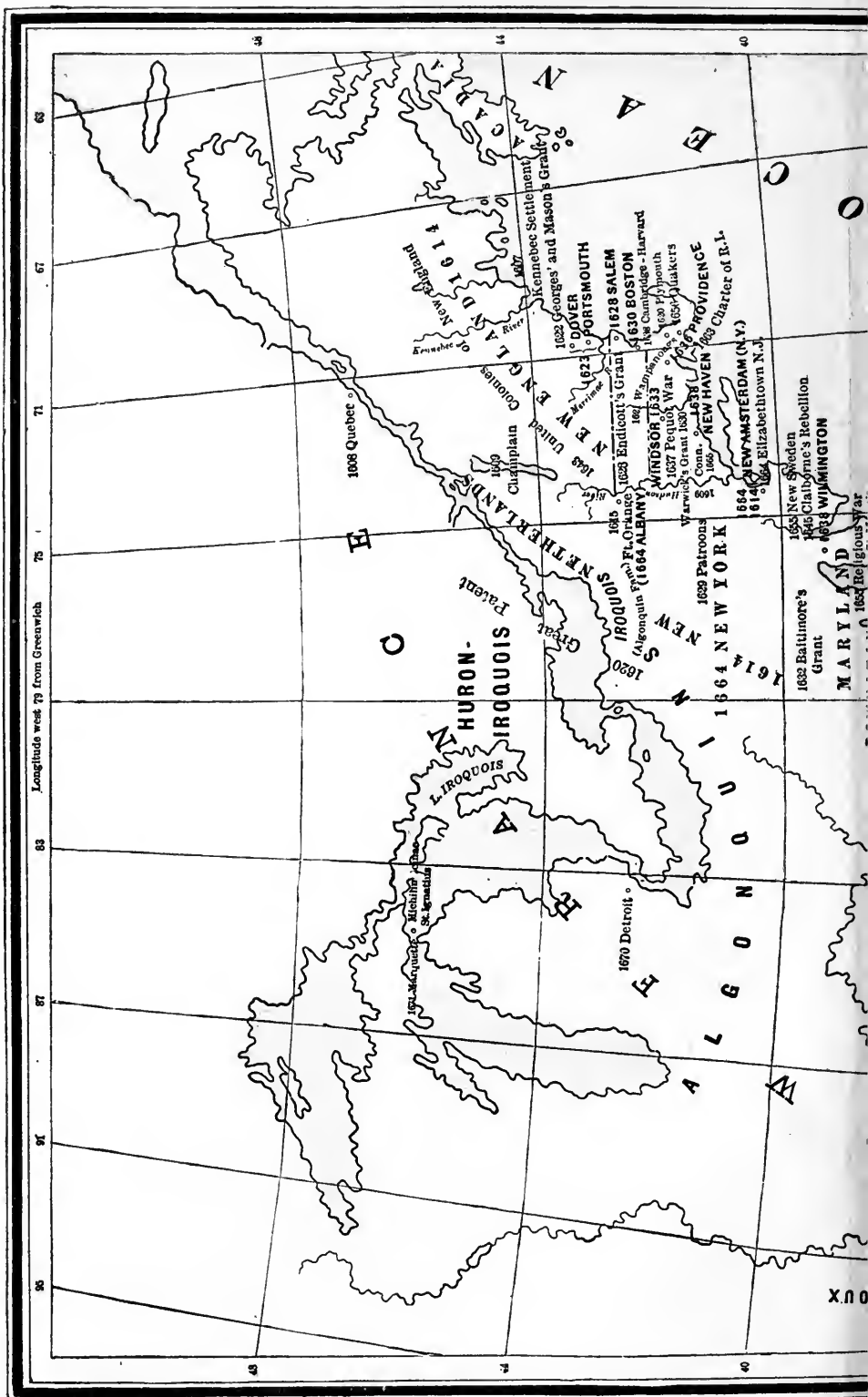
In the midst of these violent party contests in England, Queen Anne died of apoplexy, August 1, 1714. The reign of "Good Queen Anne" has not only been distinguished for the great military triumphs of the Duke of Marlborough, and for the Parliamentary or Constitutional Union between England and Scotland in 1707, but also for the brilliant galaxy of writers who have made the period of her reign memorable as the *Augustan Age of English Literature*, while the reign of her great contemporary, Louis XIV., had also become distinguished as the Augustan Age of French Literature, as already noticed. The great literary lights of this Augustan Age of English Literature were the great poet Alexander Pope, the political writers Joseph Addison, Sir Richard Steele, Jonathan Swift and Lord Bolingbroke, and Daniel Defoe, the author of *Robinson Crusoe*.

Augustan
Age of
English
Litera-
ture.

House of
Brun-
swick,
Hanover,
or Guelf.

George I.

Queen Anne's death ended the Stuart dynasty. Her husband, Prince George of Denmark, had died several years before her. As all her nineteen children had died before her, she was succeeded on the throne of Great Britain and Ireland by the Elector George of Hanover, the son of the Princess Sophia, the granddaughter of James I. Thus, in accordance with the Act of Settlement, passed by the English Parliament in 1701, the German House of Hanover, or Brunswick—the Guelfs, or descendants of the famous Henry the Lion, Duke of Bavaria and Saxony, the great rival of the chivalrous German Emperor Frederick Barbarossa—ascended the British throne, which they have ever since occupied.



SECTION VI.—ENGLAND'S NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES (A. D. 1607–1776).

THE English founded all their claims to North America upon Cabot's discoveries. As we have already stated, during Queen Elizabeth's reign, the distinguished Sir Walter Raleigh made several unsuccessful efforts to colonize North America; and Queen Elizabeth, in consideration of her unmarried state, named the territory *Virginia*. In 1606 King James I. of England granted the territory between the Potomac and Cape Fear rivers, under the name of *South Virginia*, to an association in London, known as the *London Company*. At the same time the king granted the territory now known as New England, under the name of *North Virginia*, to a company in the West of England, called the *Plymouth Company*.

English
Claims.

Virginia.

London
and
Plymouth
Compa-
nies.

In 1607 one hundred and five English emigrants, under Captain Christopher Newport, sailed up the beautiful river which they named *James*, in honor of their king; and on the bank of that stream they began a settlement which they named *Jamestown*. This was the first permanent English settlement in America. The settlers suffered greatly from cold, hunger and the hostilities of the natives, until the famous Captain John Smith assumed the direction of affairs, and, by his skillful management, restored confidence.

Settle-
ment of
James-
town.

Captain
John
Smith.

Captain Smith explored the country northward to the interior of the present Pennsylvania. According to the well-known story now generally discredited, Smith was taken prisoner by the Indians, whose ruler, Powhatan, determined to put him to death; but Pocahontas, the daughter of Powhatan, interceded for the prisoner and saved his life; whereupon Smith was released and permitted to return to Jamestown.

Legend of
Captain
Smith
and Poca-
hontas.

When Captain Smith returned to England, in 1609, the colony at Jamestown ceased to prosper, and was soon reduced by famine from five hundred persons to sixty. The winter and spring of 1610 was long known as "The Starving Time." The remaining settlers were about to leave Virginia, when, in 1611, Lord Delaware, who had been appointed governor of the colony, arrived from England, with immigrants and provisions, and the colonists resolved to remain. In 1613 the Indian maiden, Pocahontas, was married to a young Englishman named John Rolfe. She was then taken to England and presented at court.

"The
Starving
Time."

Lord
Delaware's
Arrival.

In 1619 representative government was established in Virginia; and, on the 28th of June of that year, the first legislative assembly in America convened at Jamestown. In 1620 one hundred and fifty white women were brought to Jamestown, and sold to the planters

Virginia
Assem-
bly.

**Introduc-
tion of
Slavery.** for wives, at the cost of their passage. During the same year (1620) a Dutch vessel loaded with negroes ascended the James river, and sold twenty of them for slaves to the planters at Jamestown. This was the beginning of negro-slavery within the domain of the present United States.

**House
of Bur-
gesses.** Sir Francis Wyatt, who became governor of the colony in 1621, gave the Virginians a written constitution which allowed them a popular legislative assembly. This was the beginning of the celebrated Virginia *House of Burgesses*. The constitution vested the appointment of governor and council in the London Company. In 1622 the Indians, under the leadership of Opechancanough, Powhatan's brother and successor, massacred three hundred and fifty of the Virginia colonists, and reduced eighty plantations to eight. The whites began a terrible war of revenge against the savages, slaughtered many of them most unmercifully, and drove the remainder into the wilderness.

**Virginia,
a Royal
Province.** In 1624 King James I., by an act of high-handed usurpation, dissolved the London company, and, taking away its charter, made Virginia a royal province; but he wisely abstained from interference with the House of Burgesses. In 1641 the staunch royalist, Sir William Berkeley, was appointed governor of Virginia by King Charles I.; and during his administration of nearly forty years the colony rapidly advanced in prosperity. In 1644 another war broke out with the Indians, still governed by Opechancanough; and, after a struggle of two years, the power of the savages was broken, and they ceded large tracts of land to the Virginians.

**Governor
Berkeley.** The Virginians, although democratic, sympathized with the king during the civil war in England. When monarchy was restored in England, in 1660, full power was given to Governor Berkeley to restrict the liberties of the Virginians. Berkeley's tyranny produced a popular rebellion in 1676, headed by the staunch republican, Nathaniel Bacon, who assumed command of five hundred men without the permission of Berkeley, who proclaimed the popular leader a traitor. Bacon drove Berkeley from Jamestown and set the place on fire, and the first town founded by the English in America was reduced to ashes. Soon afterward Bacon died, and with his death ended the rebellion. The rebels were severely punished; and fines, imprisonments, and confiscations of property disgraced the remainder of Berkeley's administration, William Drummond and others being hanged. King Charles II. said of Berkeley: "That old fool has hanged more men in that naked colony than I did here for the murder of my father."

Governor Berkeley was opposed to popular enlightenment. Said he to the commissioners sent from England to Virginia in 1671:



From Photograph, copyright 1902 by Detroit Photo. Co.

THE OLD CHURCH AT JAMESTOWN

“Thank God, there are no free schools nor printing-press; and I hope we shall not have these hundred years; for learning has brought disobedience and heresy and sects into the world, and printing has divulged these and libels against the best government.” When Attorney-General Seymour was asked for aid to found a college in Virginia to prepare the clergy for their work “in the salvation of souls,” he replied: “Damn your souls. Grow tobacco.”

Remarks
of
Governor
Berkeley
and
Attorney-
General
Seymour.

From 1680 to 1684 Virginia was a proprietary colony under Lord Culpepper, who owned extensive lands in the province, but after this short period it again became a royal province in 1684. From the time of the English Revolution of 1688 Virginia was a prosperous and flourishing colony.

Virginia
after
1680.

In 1602 Bartholomew Gosnold, Raleigh's friend, explored the coast of Massachusetts bay, and discovered and named Cape Cod. He also discovered the islands of Nantucket and Martha's Vineyard, and a group which he named the Elizabeth Islands, in honor of his queen. In 1603 and 1606 Martin Pring visited the coast of North Virginia. In 1614 the intrepid Captain John Smith explored the country between Cape Cod and the Penobscot, and named the region *New England*.

Bartholo-
mew
Gosnold's
Discov-
eries.

Captain
Smith
in New
England.

In 1620 the Plymouth Company was dissolved, and a new company was formed, which was called *The Council of Plymouth*, and to which was granted the territory called New England. A few years previous to this a company of English Puritans, who had suffered persecution in their native land, because they did not conform to the established Anglican Church, settled in Holland. They were led by the pious Rev. John Robinson. Failing to become reconciled to the customs and habits of the Dutch, these humble Puritans, who felt that they were only pilgrims in this world, resolved to emigrate to the wilds of America, where they might worship God in their own way.

Council of
Ply-
mouth.

Rev. John
Robinson
and His
Puritan
Band

These Puritans in Holland formed a partnership with some London merchants, who furnished them with capital for their enterprise. They returned to England; and in September, 1620, one hundred and one of these pious men and women sailed for New England in a vessel called the *Mayflower*. These *Pilgrim Fathers*, as they are called, landed on a rock on the coast of Massachusetts bay, on the 21st of December, 1620. They named the place of landing *Plymouth*, and the town which they founded is the oldest in New England. In the cabin of the *Mayflower*, just before landing, they had adopted a written constitution of government, and chosen John Carver for their governor. Several months after their landing (March 21, 1621) Governor Carver made a treaty of friendship with Massasoit, the sachem of the Wampanoag Indians. A few days after this treaty Governor Carver died, and William Bradford became governor of the

The
Pilgrim
Fathers
in the
May-
flower.

Their
Settle-
ment of
Plymouth
in New
England.

colony. Captain Miles Standish was the military leader and hero of the settlement, who protected it against savage foes and performed some bold exploits. Many settlers had died during the winter. Other immigrants came. In 1627 the Plymouth colonists purchased the interests of the London merchants, and became the sole proprietors of the country in which they had established themselves; and in 1634 they abolished their pure democracy, and adopted the more convenient form of representative government.

John
Endicott
and the
Settle-
ment of
Salem.

In 1628 John Endicott and one hundred Puritan emigrants founded Salem. They had been sent from England by a company which the following year (1629) was incorporated *The Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay in New England*. In the same year the Company assigned the charter and government to the colonists. During 1629 other immigrants arrived and settled Charlestown.

John
Winthrop
and the
Settle-
ment of
Boston.

In 1630 a large number of Puritans from England arrived at Salem, with John Winthrop as governor. Some of them made settlements at Dorchester, Roxbury, Watertown, Cambridge and Lynn; while Winthrop and others settled Boston, which became the capital of the Massachusetts Bay colony and the future metropolis of New England. In 1634 representative government was established in the colony of Massachusetts Bay.

Puritan
Intoler-
ance.

The Puritans, who had just suffered so much persecution in England for their religious opinions, were no sooner settled in New England than they became persecutors themselves, and allowed no toleration for difference of opinion in religious or civil matters. In 1635 Roger Williams, a Puritan minister of the gospel, was banished from the Massachusetts Bay colony, because he advocated toleration for all religious beliefs. Williams founded the colony of Rhode Island the next year, 1636. Religious dissensions still disturbed the Massachusetts Bay colony; and in 1637 Mrs. Ann Hutchinson and the Rev. John Wheelwright, supporters of Williams, were banished.

Banish-
ment of
Roger
Williams
and
Others.

United
Colonies
of New
England.

In 1643 the New England colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut and New Haven united in a confederacy for mutual protection against the French, the Dutch and the Indians. This union, called *The United Colonies of New England*, lasted more than forty years, when mutual jealousies caused its dissolution.

Persecu-
tion of
Quakers.

The year 1656 is noted in the history of the Massachusetts Bay colony for a most cruel persecution of Quakers who sought an asylum in that colony. Some were whipped, others were imprisoned, and many were put to death. Finally a milder spirit prevailed, and persecution ceased.

A Royal
Commis-
sion.

The New Englanders, unlike the Virginians, sympathized with the enemies of the king during the civil war in England. When monarchy



EMBARKATION OF THE PILGRIMS

From the Painting by Robert Weir, in the Rotunda of the Capitol at Washington

was restored in the Mother Country, in 1660, an effort was made to restrict the liberties of the people of New England; and a royal commission was appointed to govern the colony of Massachusetts Bay; but this attempt at usurpation encountered so much popular resistance that it was relinquished, and republicanism was triumphant.

In the meantime there were missionary efforts to convert the Indians of New England to Christianity. As early as 1643 Thomas Mayhew labored for the conversion of the Indians of Martha's Vineyard Island, and a Narragansett sachem to whom he applied for permission to preach to his tribe replied: "Go make the English good first." His son, Thomas Mayhew, Jr., was a more active missionary, but after ten years' labor for the conversion of the Indians he perished on a sea voyage to England in 1657. The greatest of all the English missionaries among the Indians of New England was the famous John Eliot, who for about twenty years preached to the Indians in their own language after learning it, traveling and preaching and founding churches among the Indians of Massachusetts, from the Merrimac to Cape Cod, and finally translating the Catechism and the Bible into the Indian language, in 1661-1663.

Missionaries
to the
Indians.

The
Mayhews
and John
Eliot.

In 1675 the Wampanoag prince, Metacomet, commonly known as *King Philip*, the son and successor of the good Massasoit, commenced a war of extermination against the white people of New England. Philip's first attack was made at Swanze, on Sunday, July 4, 1675, and many of the whites were massacred. The whites were soon aroused, and seized their arms, while the savages desolated the English settlements on the Connecticut river. King Philip was repulsed in an attack upon Hatfield, in October, 1675; after which he was sheltered by the Narragansetts of Rhode Island. A force of fifteen hundred New Englanders resented the hostile conduct of the Narragansetts by applying the torch to their wigwams; and hundreds of Indian men, women and children perished in the flames, and a thousand of their warriors were killed or captured. The following year (1676) the Indians were subjugated; and their great leader, King Philip, was shot by an Indian who was friendly to the whites. Captain Church cut off his head, and his little son was sold as a bond-slave in the West Indies. Thus ended *King Philip's War*.

King
Philip's
War.

After James II. became King of England, in 1685, he annulled the charter of the Massachusetts Bay colony, and appointed the infamous Sir Edmund Andros to rule all New England as Governor-General. Andros governed tyrannically for two years; but when, in 1689, news reached Boston of the Revolution in England which drove King James II. from the throne, the Bostonians seized and imprisoned Andros, and sent him to England on a just charge of maladminis-

Tyranny
and
Over-
throw of
Governor
Andros.

tration in office; and the New England colonies immediately resumed their charters.

**Salem
Witch-
craft.**

In 1692 the people of Massachusetts Bay were afflicted with a great delusion, known as the *Salem Witchcraft*. A general belief in sorcery prevailed; many unfortunate persons were accused of practicing witchcraft; and, during a period of six months, about twenty persons were put to death, and many others were imprisoned. This frightful delusion passed away as suddenly as it had appeared. Even the most learned in those times believed in witchcraft. The great English divine, Richard Baxter, pronounced a disbeliever in witchcraft "an obdurate Sadducee." Sir Matthew Hale, as Judge, tried and condemned those accused of witchcraft. A century later Sir William Blackstone, the eminent legal authority, declared that to deny the existence of witchcraft is to deny divine revelation.

**Massa-
chusetts,
a Royal
Province.**

In 1692 King William III. of England united the colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay, and the English settlements in Maine and New Brunswick, as one royal province under the name of Massachusetts, and appointed Sir William Phipps governor.

**King
William's
War.**

The war that broke out between England and France in 1689 extended to the English and French colonies in North America, and is known in American history as *King William's War*, because it occurred during the reign of William III. in England. The Indians of Canada and Acadia aided the French, while the Five Nations, of New York, assisted the English. In July, 1689, the town of Dover, in New Hampshire, was attacked by the French and their Indian allies; and in February, 1690, Schenectady, in New York, was burned and sixty of its inhabitants were atrociously massacred by the French and the Indians.

**Attacks
on Dover
and Sche-
nectady.**

**New
England
Expedi-
tions
against
the
French.**

In May, 1690, the New England colonies sent a naval expedition under Sir William Phipps, which plundered the French colony of Acadia. The same year a New England land expedition under a son of Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, proceeded to attack Montreal; while a naval force under Sir William Phipps was sent against Quebec. Both expeditions were failures. The people of New England suffered terribly from the attacks of the French and their savage allies, until the Peace of Ryswick was concluded between England and France, in 1697.

**Queen
Anne's
War.**

In 1702 a war broke out between England and France, which extended to the colonies of those nations in North America. This war, called in Europe the *War of the Spanish Succession*, is known in American history as *Queen Anne's War*, so called because it happened during the reign of Queen Anne in England. The French and Indians again spread desolation among the English settlements. Deer-

field, in Massachusetts, was burned, and its inhabitants were massacred by the savages and their French allies.

Deerfield
Burned.

In 1710 a fleet from England, aided by a land force from New England, captured Port Royal, in Acadia. Port Royal was named *Annapolis*, after Queen Anne; and Acadia became an English province, under the name of *Nova Scotia*, or New Scotland. In 1711 a fleet and army from England under Sir Hovenden Walker, assisted by New Englanders, the whole expedition consisting of five thousand men, proceeded against Quebec. The vessels were wrecked at the mouth of the St. Lawrence river, and one thousand men perished. The expedition was abandoned, and the Peace of Utrecht was concluded between England and France in 1713.

English
Conquest
of Acadia.

Expedi-
tions
against
Quebec.

In 1744 another war began between England and France, known in Europe as the *War of the Austrian Succession*, and in American history as *King George's War*, because it took place while George II. was King of Great Britain. The principal event of this war in America was the capture of the French fortress of Louisburg, on the island of Cape Breton, by the English. In April, 1745, Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, sent an army under General William Pepperell against this fortress, called the *Gibraltar of America*, on account of its strength. The New England army, in conjunction with a British fleet under Admiral Warren, laid siege to the fortress late in May, and on the 28th of June (1745) Louisburg and the island of Cape Breton were surrendered to the English.

King
George's
War.

English
Capture
of Louis-
burg.

In 1746 the French sent a powerful fleet under the Duke d' Anville to retake Louisburg. The greater part of this fleet was destroyed by storms, and the enterprise was abandoned. The Peace of Aix la Chapelle, concluded between England and France in 1748, put an end to the war.

French
Attempt
to
Recover
Louis-
burg.

In 1622 the territory between the Merrimac and Kennebec rivers was granted to Sir. Ferdinand Gorges and John Mason, under the name of *Laconia*. The proprietors sent out emigrants to settle in Laconia, and as early as 1622 fishing stations were established on the sites of Portsmouth and Dover. In 1629 the good Rev. John Wheelwright and others founded the town of Exeter.

Laconia
Grant and
Settle-
ment.

In 1629 John Mason became sole proprietor of Laconia, and named the region *New Hampshire*, after Hampshire county in England. Mason settled at Portsmouth; and other settlements were made as far as Machias, in Maine. In 1641 New Hampshire was united with the Massachusetts Bay colony; but the two colonies were again separated in 1679, when New Hampshire became a royal province. In 1699 New Hampshire was reunited with Massachusetts under the same governor, but a final separation took place in 1741.

Laconia,
or New
Hamp-
shire.

Provi-
dence
Founded
by Roger
Williams.

The first settlement in Rhode Island was made on the Pawtucket river by William Blackstone, a Puritan minister. When Roger Williams was banished from the colony of Massachusetts Bay, in 1635, he traveled through the wilderness in the midst of winter; and in 1636 he founded a settlement on Narraganset bay, which, with pious feelings, he named *Providence*. This was the beginning of the Rhode Island colony, which became an asylum for persecuted Christians of all sects.

Settle-
ment of
Rhode
Island.

In 1638 William Coddington, a Nonconformist minister, and others who were banished from the colony of Massachusetts Bay, founded Portsmouth, on the island which they named *Rhode Island*; and in 1639 the settlement of Newport was commenced.

Rhode
Island
and
Provi-
dence
Planta-
tions.

In 1644 Roger Williams, who had gone to England for that purpose, obtained from the Long Parliament a liberal charter, under which *The Rhode Island and Providence Plantations* were united as one province; and in 1647 a colonial convention, assembled at Portsmouth, adopted a democratic form of government and established the principles of perfect religious freedom in Rhode Island.

Its
Charter
from
King
Charles
II.

In 1663 King Charles II. of England granted to the Rhode Island and Providence Plantations a charter which left the colonists in the full enjoyment of perfect civil and religious freedom. This charter was suspended by the tyrant Andros in 1687; but when he was imprisoned in Boston, in 1689, it was resumed, and remained in full force as the instrument of government of the commonwealth until 1842, when a State constitution was adopted.

Adrian
Block.

In 1614 Adrian Block, a Dutch navigator, discovered the Connecticut river, and sailed up that stream as far as the site of Hartford. In 1630 the Council of Plymouth granted the soil of Connecticut to the Earl of Warwick, who, the following year, granted it to Lord Say and Seal, Lord Brooke and others.

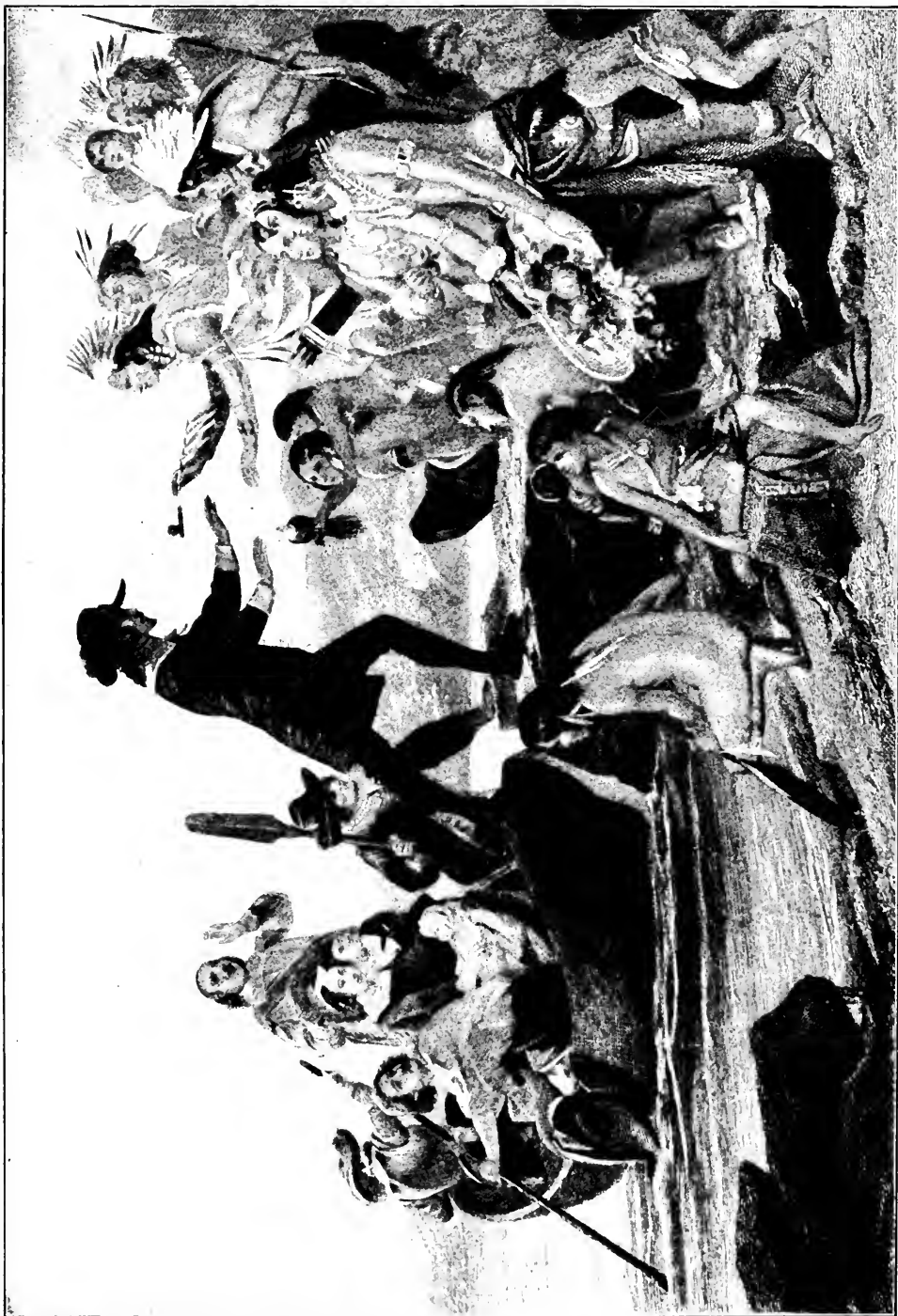
Connect-
icut
Grant.

Settle-
ments in
Connect-
icut.

In 1633 the Dutch erected a fort at the site of Hartford, and in the same year the English under Captain Holmes established a trading-house at the site of Windsor. In 1635 emigrants from Boston settled Windsor and Wethersfield; and in 1636 other emigrants from the colony of Massachusetts Bay, led by the good Rev. Thomas Hooker, founded Hartford. In 1635 John Winthrop, son of the governor of the Massachusetts Bay colony, led a company of emigrants to the mouth of the Connecticut river, where they formed a settlement, which, in honor of Lord Say and Seal and Lord Brooke, they named *Saybrook*.

Pequod
War.

In 1637 a frightful war broke out between the Connecticut settlers and the Pequod Indians, the Mohegan and Narraganset tribes uniting with the whites; and in a furious battle at the Mystic river the savages



ROGER WILLIAMS LANDING AT PROVIDENCE

From the Painting by A. Chappel

were defeated by Captain John Mason, after their fort had been set on fire, and the tribe of the Pequods was exterminated, and their chief, Sassacus, fled to the Mohawks, who put him to death. In 1638 New Haven was founded by emigrants from England, led by the pious Rev. John Davenport and Theophilus Eaton; and they resolved to be governed in civil matters according to the rules and principles of the Bible.

New
Haven
Founded.

In 1639 the settlers at Hartford, Windsor and Wethersfield adopted a liberal constitution of government for the Connecticut colony. In 1644 the Saybrook settlement was united with Connecticut; and in 1665 the Connecticut and New Haven colonies were united into one colony, called *Connecticut*, under a charter granted to the colonists by King Charles II. three years before.

Connect-
icut
Charter.

In 1675 Sir Edmund Andros, then governor of New York, attempted to extend his authority over Connecticut; and for this purpose he went to Saybrook with a small naval force; but he was so firmly resisted that he relinquished the attempt.

Governor
Andros.

In 1687 Andros, as Governor-General of all New England, succeeded in depriving all the New England colonies, excepting Connecticut, of their charters. He went to Hartford to seize the Connecticut charter; and while the assembly was in session in the evening the charter was laid on the table; but just as Andros attempted to take it the lights were suddenly extinguished, and Captain Wadsworth carried away the charter and hid it in the hollow of an oak tree, which thenceforth was called the *Charter Oak*. Andros, however, governed Connecticut until he was imprisoned in Boston, in 1689, when the Connecticut charter was taken from its hiding-place, and was resumed by the colonists as their instrument of government.

Andros
and the
Connect-
icut
Charter.

The
Charter
Oak.

In 1693 Governor Fletcher of New York attempted to bring Connecticut under his jurisdiction, and for that purpose he went to Hartford, where he assembled the Connecticut militia. When Fletcher proceeded to read his commission, Captain Wadsworth, the commander of the militia, commanded the drums to be beaten. "Silence," shouted Fletcher, whereupon Wadsworth stepped up and said: "Sir! if they are interrupted again, I will make the sun shine through you in a moment!" Fletcher returned to New York in great anger. From this time Connecticut was a prosperous colony.

Governor
Fletcher
and
Captain
Wads-
worth.

Thus there were finally four New England colonies—New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut. Plymouth and Maine had been united with Massachusetts, and New Haven had been united with Connecticut. Settlements eventually spread west of the upper part of the Connecticut river—in the region afterwards called *Vermont*, a French name meaning *Green Mountain*. The first settle-

Four New
England
Colonies.

ment within this region was made by Massachusetts colonists at Fort Dummer, on the site of Brattleboro', in 1724.

**Henry
Hudson's
Discov-
eries.**

In 1609 Henry Hudson, an English navigator, then in the service of the Dutch East India Company, explored the American coast from Chesapeake bay to Long Island Sound, and sailed up the beautiful river which bears his name, as far as the site of Albany. On this account the Dutch claimed the territory drained by that stream. On a subsequent voyage Hudson discovered the large bay which bears his name, in northern Canada; and, while on his home voyage, his crew became mutinous and sent Hudson and his son in a boat adrift on the ice, and they were heard of no more.

**His
Fate.**

**Dutch
West
India
Company
and New
Nether-
lands.**

In 1614 the Dutch erected huts on Manhattan Island, and in the same year they also built a fort near the site of Albany. In 1621 the States-General of Holland granted great privileges of colonization to a company of Amsterdam merchants who were incorporated the *Dutch West India Company*. This company claimed the territory between Cape Henlopen and the Connecticut river, and named it *New Netherlands*.

**Settle-
ment of
New Am-
sterdam.**

In 1623 permanent Dutch settlements were made at New Amsterdam, on Manhattan Island, and at Fort Orange, on the site of Albany. Immigrants from Holland came over into the colony in large numbers. The first governor of New Netherlands was Peter Minuit (1626-1633), and the second was Wouter Van Twiller (1633-1638).

**Governor
Kieft's
Misrule
and
Result.**

The third governor of New Netherlands was the haughty, rapacious and despotic Sir William Kieft, who vainly tried to suppress the growth of democracy among the New Netherlanders, and whose turbulent spirit soon involved him in trouble with the Swedes on the Delaware, the English on the Connecticut, the Indians all around him and the colonists at his door. With cruel treachery, Kieft attacked the Indians at Hoboken; and hostilities were carried on with the greatest ferocity for two years, when the Indians were subdued, and their power and spirit were broken. In 1647 the quarrelsome Kieft was recalled; and on his way to Europe his vessel was wrecked, and the infamous governor perished.

**Governor
Stuy-
vesant.**

The fourth and last governor of New Netherlands was the firm and energetic Peter Stuyvesant, who endeavored, as much as prudence would permit, to check the growing spirit of republicanism among the New Netherlands people, who grew bolder by degrees, and who finally denied the right of taxation without representation, and showed an inclination to bear English rule for the sake of enjoying English liberty.

**His
Conquest
of New
Sweden.**

In 1655 Governor Stuyvesant conquered the Swedish settlements on the Delaware, and formally and forcibly annexed New Sweden to New Netherlands.

In 1664 King Charles II. of England granted to his brother James, Duke of York and Albany, all the territory embraced by the Dutch colony of New Netherlands. The Duke sent a small naval force under Colonel Richard Nicolls to take possession of New Netherlands, which was done in September of the same year, 1664. The people of New Amsterdam, tired of Stuyvestant's rigor, and hoping to enjoy greater political freedom under English rule, made no resistance; and Stuyvesant was obliged to surrender the place to Nicolls. The name *New York* was given to New Amsterdam, as well as to the province of New Netherlands; and Fort Orange was named *Albany*.

English
Conquest
of New
Nether-
lands.

New
York
City and
Colony.

Colonel Nicolls was the first governor of the English province of New York. The Dutch colonists were disappointed in their hopes of enjoying greater political liberty under English rule; as Nicolls and his successor, Francis Lovelace, governed most despotically. In 1673, during a war between England and Holland, a Dutch squadron captured the city of New York; but it was restored to the English by a treaty of peace the next year (1674), and Andros became governor.

English
Tyranny.

Capture
and
Restora-
tion of
New
York.

In 1683 the Duke of York granted the people of New York a *Charter of Liberties*, allowing them a popular assembly; but when he became King of England, in 1685, with the title of James II., he revoked the privileges which he had granted, and made the tyrant Andros governor of New York a second time. When news reached New York of the dethronement of James II. in England and the imprisonment of Andros in Boston, Jacob Leisler, a leading merchant, with the sanction of the people of New York, assumed the office of governor, until the arrival of Colonel Henry Sloughter, the new royal governor, in 1691, when Leister and his son-in-law Milburne were tried and executed for high treason.

Charter
of
Liberties.

Execu-
tion of
Leisler
and
Milburne.

From the time of Leister's death the people of New York resisted the oppression of the royal governors sent to rule them, and republicanism constantly gained strength. In 1734 William Cosby, then governor of the province, caused John Peter Zenger, the editor of the democratic newspaper in New York, to be arrested on a charge of libel. Zenger was tried and acquitted by a jury; and the magistrates of New York city made a present to his counsel, Andrew Hamilton, of Philadelphia, for his noble vindication of the freedom of the press.

Zenger's
Trial
and Ac-
quittal.

In 1622 William Clayborne erected a trading-house on Kent Island. King Charles I. of England granted the territory on both sides of Chesapeake bay, under the name of *Maryland*, to Cecil Calvert, Lord Baltimore, an English Roman Catholic nobleman, who desired to find a refuge in America for persecuted Roman Catholics. In 1634 nearly two hundred English Roman Catholics, with Leonard Calvert, Cecil's brother, as their governor, formed a settlement at St. Mary's, near the

Lord
Baltimore
and the
Maryland
Grant.

Settle-
ment
of St.
Mary's.

mouth of the Potomac river. The assembly met at St. Mary's in 1635, and adopted a liberal form of government for the Maryland colony.

Clayborne's Two Rebellions. In 1635 William Clayborne, who refused to recognize Lord Baltimore's authority, commenced a rebellion against the governor of Maryland; but he was defeated and compelled to flee from the province. In 1645 Clayborne returned and began another rebellion; and for a time the rebels held the reins of power, and Governor Calvert was obliged to flee to Virginia; but the rebellion was suppressed in 1646, and the governor returned to Maryland and resumed his authority.

Toleration Act. In 1649 the Maryland assembly passed the *Toleration Act*, which granted religious freedom to all sects in Maryland; and this induced many Protestants who were persecuted elsewhere to settle in this Roman Catholic province. At length the influx of Protestants was so great that they outnumbered the Catholics; and after obtaining a majority in the assembly they questioned the rights of the proprietor, and, with the meanest ingratitude, they disfranchised the Catholics and declared them not entitled to the protection of the laws. This outrageous proceeding led to a civil war in Maryland between the Catholics and the Protestants, which ended in the defeat of the Catholics and the overthrow of the proprietary government; but when monarchy was restored in England, in 1660, Lord Baltimore recovered his rights.

Maryland, a Royal Province. The Maryland colony now prospered until 1689, when a Protestant insurrection overthrew the proprietary government. In 1691 King William III. of England deprived Lord Baltimore of his rights, made Maryland a royal province, and established the Church of England in the colony; and Roman Catholics were disfranchised in a province which they had founded. In 1716 Maryland was restored to the heirs of Lord Baltimore, and it remained a proprietary province until the Revolution of 1775.

Settlement of New Sweden. Under the auspices of the *Swedish West India Company*, a company of Swedish emigrants, under Peter Minuit, the first governor of New Netherland, made a settlement on Christiana Creek, near the site of Wilmington, in the present State of Delaware, in 1638, and named the territory *New Sweden*. Swedish settlements were also made on the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, in the present Pennsylvania.

Dutch Conquest of New Sweden. The Dutch at New Amsterdam claimed the territory of New Sweden; and in 1655 Governor Stuyvesant of New Netherlands conquered the Swedish settlements on the Delaware, and annexed New Sweden to New Netherlands. The domain of New Sweden was granted to William Penn in 1682, and it became a part of Pennsylvania. The territory now known as Delaware became a separate province in 1702, with a legislature of its own; but it was united with Pennsylvania under one governor until 1776, when Delaware became an independent State.

New Sweden as Part of Pennsylvania.

The Dutch established a trading-post at Bergen in 1618, and another at Fort Nassau, below the site of Camden, in 1623. The Swedes and Finns also made settlements on the Delaware. In 1664, when New Netherlands was conquered by the English, King Charles II. of England granted the territory between the Hudson and Delaware rivers to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, and named the province *New Jersey*; and in the same year (1664) some English Puritans settled Elizabeth. Philip Carteret, brother of Sir George, was made governor; and representative government was established. When, in 1670, the proprietors of New Jersey demanded the payment of quit-rents the colonists rose in rebellion and drove the governor from the colony.

Dutch
Settle-
ments
on the
Delaware.

New
Jersey
Grant.

English
Settle-
ment.

In 1674 Lord Berkeley sold his interest in New Jersey to some Quakers, who founded Salem; and in 1676 the province was divided, the Quakers obtaining West Jersey, and Carteret receiving East Jersey. In 1682 William Penn and other Quakers purchased East Jersey from Carteret's heirs, and made Robert Barclay governor.

East
and West
Jersey.

In 1688 King James II. made the tyrant Andros governor of the Jerseys, from which time great confusion prevailed until 1702, when East and West Jersey were united as one royal province, being placed under the governor of New York, but having its own legislature. In 1738 New Jersey was entirely separated from New York, and Lewis Morris became governor.

New
Jersey
and New
York.

In 1643 the Swedes made a settlement on Tinicum Island, below the site of Philadelphia. In 1677 Swedish settlements were made on the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers. In 1681 King Charles II. of England granted a vast region west of the Delaware to William Penn, a Quaker, son of Admiral Sir William Penn, as a home for his persecuted Quaker brethren. The province was named *Pennsylvania*, which signifies "Penn's woods." In 1682 the territory of the present State of Delaware was added to Penn's grant. In 1682 a large company of Quakers from England arrived in Pennsylvania, founded the town of Chester, the oldest English settlement in the colony, and organized a liberal form of government.

William
Penn and
the Penn-
sylvania
Grant.

Settle-
ment of
Chester.

In the fall of 1682 William Penn arrived in Pennsylvania, having come over in the ship *Welcome*, and was joyfully received by the Swedes and the English Quakers. He met the assembly of Pennsylvania at Chester, when he established a permanent government for the colony. Under a large elm tree, at the Indian town of Shackamaxon, on the site of Philadelphia, Penn made a treaty of friendship with the Indians, who were treated with the greatest kindness by the Quakers. The Indians who were present exclaimed: "We will live in peace with William Penn and his children as long as the sun and

William
Penn in
Pennsyl-
vania.

His
Treaty
with the
Indians.

the moon shall endure!" They were true to their word. Not a drop of Quaker blood was ever shed by an Indian. This treaty was never sworn to and never broken.

Founding
of Phila-
delphia.

The same year (1682) Penn laid out a capital for his new province between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, and named the place *Philadelphia*, a name which means "brotherly love." Within a year a hundred houses were built. In 1683 the colonial assembly met at Philadelphia and adopted a *Charter of Liberties*.

Charter of
Liberties.

German
and
Swiss
Mennon-
ites.

Before coming to Pennsylvania, William Penn had visited Continental Europe to encourage persecuted sects, such as the French Huguenots and the German and Swiss Mennonites who had settled in the Palatinate of the Rhine and in Holland, to emigrate to Pennsylvania. He very much desired the Mennonites as colonists, as their doctrines of simplicity of dress and manners and of aversion to oaths, to the use of law and to war were similar to those of the Quakers. A party of these German Mennonites under the learned Francis Daniel Pastorius founded Germantown in 1683, the first German settlement in America.

Settle-
ment of
German-
town.

Penn's
Loss and
Recovery
of His
Province.

In 1684 William Penn returned to England; and in 1689 he was deprived of his province by King William III., who suspected Penn of being disloyal to his government. Penn's province was restored to him in 1694, and in 1699 he visited Pennsylvania a second time. He granted the colonists greater privileges, and allowed Delaware to have a separate legislature. Both colonies had the same governor until the American Revolution. William Penn died in London in 1718.

His
Heirs.

His province was inherited by his sons, John, Thomas and Richard Penn, who administered the provincial government either themselves or by deputy governors as long as Pennsylvania was in the possession of the Penn heirs.

Penn's
Peace
Policy
and
Land
Pur-
chases.

Penn's just and humane policy toward the Indians secured their love and esteem, and kept the colony free from Indian wars for three-quarters of a century. At various times, from 1682 to 1784, large sections of the domain of the province were purchased from the Indian tribes, such as the Delawares, the Susquehannocks, the Shawanese, the Six Nations and others.

John
Harris
and His
Son.

Among the early Quaker pioneers and Indian traders of Pennsylvania was John Harris, who located at Harris's Ferry, the site of Harrisburg, as early in 1704, and whom some drunken Indians threatened to burn alive because he refused to give them rum, tying him to a mulberry-tree for that purpose, when he was finally released by friendly Indians who came to his rescue. At his request he was buried under the shadow of that mulberry-tree, after his death in 1748, the spot being in the family burial-ground. His son, Colonel John

Harris: an American Revolutionary soldier, founded Harrisburg in 1785.

In 1723 a number of German settlers migrated from Schoharie county, New York, to Pennsylvania, locating on the Swatara and Tulpehocken creeks. At various times during the colonial period there were large immigrations of German and Swiss into Pennsylvania, and the descendants of these early settlers still retain the prominent characteristics of their thrifty ancestors. These German and Swiss immigrants were of various religious sects and denominations—Lutheran, German Reformed, Moravian, and the plain, non-resistant sects of the Mennonites, the Amish, the Schwenkfelders and the German Baptist Brethren, or Dunkers. The Mennonites had suffered many years of persecution in Switzerland and the Palatinate of the Rhine before their emigration to America, whither they had been induced to come by the exertions of William Penn.

The Pennsylvania Germans had some noted men. The first of these was Francis Daniel Pastorius, the leader of the Mennonites who founded Germantown in 1683 and who signed the first protest against slavery in America, which protest formed the subject of Whittier's *Pennsylvania Pilgrim*. He was a scholar, author, teacher, lawyer, bailiff and Assemblyman. He was born in Germany in 1651 and died in Germantown in 1719.

Among the notable Pennsylvania Germans of the first half of the eighteenth century was the Rev. Heinrich Melchior Muhlenberg, the patriarch and founder of the Lutheran Church in America, and the father of three distinguished sons: John Peter Gabriel Muhlenberg, an American Revolutionary general; Frederick Augustus Conrad Muhlenberg, the Speaker of the House of Representatives of the First and Third Congresses; and the Rev. Gotthilf Heinrich Ernest Muhlenberg, distinguished as a divine and a botanist. Other distinguished Pennsylvania Germans of the first half of the eighteenth century were Conrad Weiser, the famous Indian interpreter and a Pennsylvania colonel in the French and Indian War; and the Rev. Michael Schlatter, the leader and organizer of the German Reformed Church in America.

A peculiar Pennsylvania German settlement was the monastic community of the Seventh Day Baptists at Ephrata, whose members lived like the monks and nuns of the Roman Catholic Church, the males in a brothers' house and the females in a sisters' house; who observed Saturday, the seventh day of the week, as the Sabbath, whence their name; and who founded the first Sabbath-school in the world, though not the first Sunday-school. They had a printing-house, a school-house, a bake-house, a paper-mill and other buildings, one with a town-clock. They printed German religious books, *Fox's Book of*

German
and
Swiss
Colonists
in Penn-
sylvania.

Pastorius
and Ger-
mantown.

Muhlen-
berg,
Weiser
and
Schlatter.

Seventh
Day
Baptist
Communi-
ty.

Martyrs and others, and the sisters' rooms were decorated with ink paintings, many of them with scriptural texts.

Zinzen-
dorf and
Moravian
Com-
munities
and
Mission-
aries.

The Moravian sect, under their distinguished leader, Nicholas Louis Count Zinzendorf, founded the communistic settlements of Bethlehem, Nazareth and Lititz, at which places they established educational institutions which still exist. Three worthy Moravian missionaries labored for the Christianization of the Indians. The first of these was Count Zinzendorf, who passed the middle part of the eighteenth century in Pennsylvania and preached to the Indians of the Wyoming Valley. The other two were David Zeisberger and John Heckewelder, who passed the last half of the eighteenth century in missionary labors among the Indians of Pennsylvania and the wild West.

Baron
Stiegel.

Another peculiar German settlement was that of Baron Heinrich Wilhelm Stiegel, named Manheim, in honor of his native city in Germany. After being a baron in Germany, he was an iron master and a glass manufacturer, a preacher and a teacher, rich and poor, at liberty and imprisoned, in Pennsylvania, where he ended his life as a school-master.

*"Baron Stiegel ist der mann
Der die Efen giesen kann."*

"Baron Stiegel is the man
Who can cast stoves."

Scotch-
Irish,
Welsh
and
Huguenot
French.

During the first half of the eighteenth century large numbers of Scotch-Irish Presbyterians, from the North of Ireland, settled in Pennsylvania, occupying the frontier sections, where their hardy character and rugged disposition rendered them very efficient guards and protectors for the settlements of the peaceable and non-resistant Germans and Quaker English against hostile Indian attacks during the French and Indian War. The posterity of these Scotch-Irish settlers include a very substantial part of the present population of Pennsylvania. Welsh Episcopalians and Huguenot French were also among the Pennsylvania colonists, and have left a respected posterity.

Bound-
ary
Disputes
with
Mary-
land.

The Lords Baltimore claimed all of Southern Pennsylvania as far north as the present Columbia as a part of Maryland, and between 1730 and 1738 many collisions occurred between Pennsylvania and Maryland settlers and militia and officials of the two colonies in what is now York county, Pennsylvania, during *Cresap's War*; so named from Colonel Thomas Cresap, the leader of the Maryland border raiders. Arrests and imprisonments were made on both sides, Cresap being taken to the Philadelphia jail, and Pennsylvanians being imprisoned at Baltimore and Annapolis, Maryland. Marylanders were also jailed at Lancaster, but were forcibly released by other Maryland

raiders who broke open the Lancaster jail. Finally, the boundary line between Pennsylvania and Maryland, which so long had been a subject of dispute, was settled as at present, in 1767, by Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, surveyors appointed for the purpose by the British government; and the line established by them has ever since been called *Mason and Dixon's Line*, being celebrated during the ante-Civil War period of the United States as the line between freedom and slavery.

Mason
and
Dixon's
Line.

The south-western part of Pennsylvania as far north as Pittsburg and the Ohio river was claimed by Virginia, and in 1774 occurred *Lord Dunmore's War*, brought about by the action of Lord Dunmore, the royal governor of Virginia, who attempted to forcibly seize that region, employing for that purpose Dr. John Connelly, a renegade Pennsylvanian; but this pliant tool was arrested by Arthur St. Clair, a Pennsylvania magistrate and subsequent American Revolutionary general, but Connelly was still defiant. Finally, in 1779, during the American Revolution, Virginia and Pennsylvania settled their boundary dispute by establishing the lines which now separate Pennsylvania from West Virginia.

Boundary
Dispute
with
Virginia.

Adjust-
ment.

The north-eastern part of Pennsylvania was claimed by Connecticut, whose charter extended the domain of that colony westward to the Pacific Ocean. In 1762 a party of Connecticut settlers occupied the Wyoming Valley, and the next year they founded Wilkes-Barre, Kingston, Plymouth and Hanover, but in October of the same year, 1763, occurred the *First Massacre of Wyoming*, in which about twenty of these Connecticut settlers were slaughtered by the Delaware Indians. Pennsylvania settlers entered the Wyoming Valley in 1768, and fresh Connecticut settlers came in 1769, thus giving rise to the *Pennamite and Yankee War*. The Connecticut settlers were led by Zebulon Butler, and forty of them built the *Forty Fort*, but were arrested and jailed at Easton. Forts and blockhouses were erected, and many sieges and skirmishes followed. Both parties imprisoned men, drove away women and children, and committed other outrages. The American Revolution ended this colonial civil war for a time, but in 1782 the trouble was renewed, and only settled in 1799, the Connecticut settlers being left in possession of their lands on condition of acknowledging the jurisdiction of Pennsylvania.

Dispute
with
Connect-
icut
Settlers.

Adjust-
ment.

End of
Proprie-
tary
Pennsyl-
vania.

Pennsylvania was owned by the Penn heirs until 1776, when their claims and interests were purchased by the colonists and the province became an independent commonwealth.

Between the years 1640 and 1650 emigrants from Virginia settled near the mouth of the Chowan river. In 1663 King Charles II. of England granted to the Earl of Clarendon and seven associates the

The
Carolina
Grant.

extensive region between Virginia and Florida, under the general name of *Carolina*.

Albe-
marle
County
Colony

In 1663 a number of emigrants from Virginia, with William Drummond as governor, founded Edenton, on the Chowan river. This settlement was the *Albemarle County Colony*. A representative government was adopted, and the first legislative assembly in Carolina convened at Edenton in 1668. In 1665 some planters from the Barbadoes Islands, with Sir John Yeamans as governor, established on the Cape Fear River a settlement known as the *Clarendon County Colony*. This colony was broken up several years afterward.

Claren-
don
County
Colony.

Funda-
mental
Constitu-
tions, or
Grand
Model.

Ashley Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury, and the philosopher John Locke prepared a constitution of government for the Carolinas. This instrument, known as the *Fundamental Constitutions*, or the *Grand Model*, was extremely aristocratic in spirit, and utterly repugnant to the wishes of the freedom-loving settlers of the Carolinas. It could never be enforced, as every attempt to do so produced a rebellion; and, after a struggle of a quarter of a century between the colonists and the proprietors, this absurd scheme of government was finally abandoned by the proprietors in 1695, and the cause of republicanism was triumphant in Carolina.

Rebellion.

The attempt to enforce the Fundamental Constitutions in the Albemarle Colony (North Carolina) produced a rebellion, which resulted in the imprisonment of the governor, and the temporary subversion of the proprietary government. In 1683 Seth Sothel, one of the proprietors, became governor of North Carolina; but, after a tyrannical and corrupt administration of five years, he was banished from the colony. In 1695 the good Quaker, John Archdale, became governor of both the Carolinas; and under his administration both colonies greatly prospered.

Governor
Seth
Sothel.

Governor
John
Archdale.

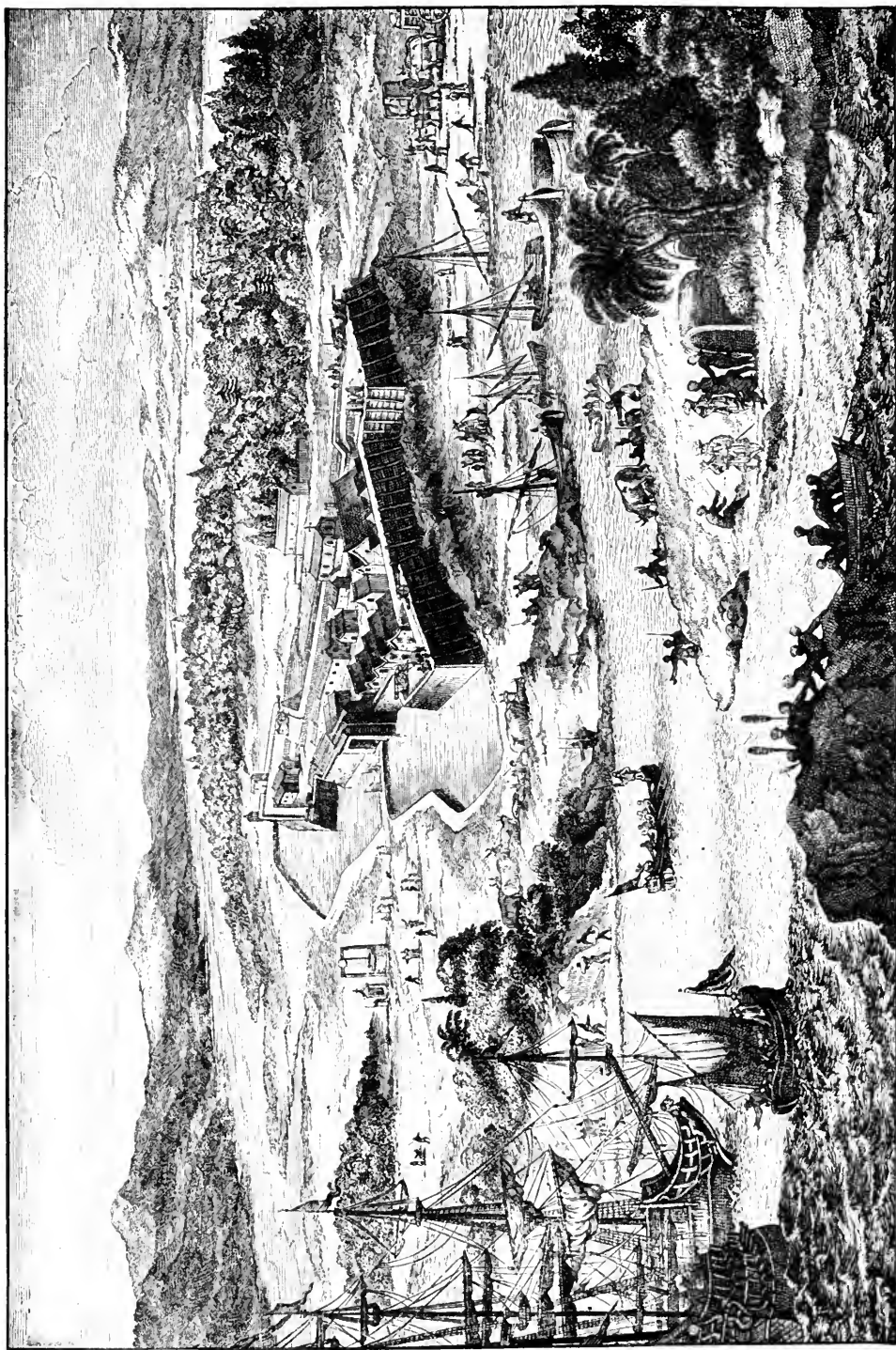
War
with the
Tusca-
rora
Indians.

Quakers, Huguenots and German Protestants settled in North Carolina. In 1711 a frightful war broke out between the North Carolina settlers and the Tuscarora Indians. The Indians massacred many of the German settlers, but the Tuscaroras were finally subdued. Twelve hundred of them were captured; and the remainder joined the Five Nations in New York, thus forming the powerful Indian league of the *Six Nations*.

Carteret
County
Colony.

In 1670 a company of emigrants from England, with William Sayle as their governor, settled Old Charleston, on the Ashley river. This is known as the *Carteret County Colony*; so called in honor of Sir George Carteret, one of the proprietors of the Carolinas. In 1680 the inhabitants of Old Charleston removed to a point between the Ashley and Cooper rivers, where they laid the foundations of the present city of Charleston. A representative government was estab-

Charles-
ton
Founded.



THE OLD FORTIFIED SETTLEMENT AT CHARLESTON

From a Print published at Amsterdam, 1673

lished, and the first legislative assembly in the Carteret Colony convened at Charleston in 1682.

Dutch emigrants, Puritans and Huguenots settled in the Carteret Colony (South Carolina). An effort to enforce the Fundamental Constitutions led to a rebellion in South Carolina, which resulted in the banishment of the governor, James Colleton. In 1690 the famous Seth Sothel came to South Carolina, of which colony he became governor; but, after oppressing and plundering the colonists for two years, he was banished. Under the wise administration of John Archdale prosperity attended the colony.

Rebellion.

Governor
Seth
Sothel.

Governor
John
Archdale.

In 1702 hostilities commenced between the South Carolinians and the Spaniards of Florida. South Carolina sent an unsuccessful expedition against the Spaniards; but the Apalachian Indians, the allies of the Spaniards, were subjugated; eight hundred of the Apalachians being captured, and their country taken possession of. In 1706 a combined French and Spanish fleet failed in an attack upon Charleston. In 1715 the South Carolina colonists became involved in a dangerous war with the Yamasee Indians. Governor Craven with twelve hundred men subdued the Yamasees, and drove them into Florida.

War
with the
Span-
iards of
Florida.

War
with the
Yamasee
Indians.

In 1719 the people of South Carolina rebelled against the proprietary government; and in 1729 the proprietors, wearied of the perpetual opposition, surrendered their claims to the crown, whereupon North and South Carolina became distinct royal provinces, and so remained until the great Revolution of 1775, which swept away feudalism and royalty.

North and
South
Carolina,
Royal
Prov-
inces.

Georgia was not settled until the eighteenth century. In 1743 King George II. of England granted to the philanthropic James Edward Oglethorpe, a member of the English Parliament, and other benevolent individuals, "in trust for the poor," all the territory between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers. Oglethorpe's plan was to offer an asylum in America to virtuous persons imprisoned for debt, and to other poor. Near the close of 1732 one hundred and twenty of these unfortunate persons sailed from England, with Oglethorpe as their governor; and in February, 1733, they arrived in America and founded the city of Savannah. Oglethorpe met fifty Indian chiefs, with the Creek sachem, Tomochichi, at their head, and concluded a friendly treaty with them, obtaining a large tract of territory, which was named *Georgia*, in honor of King George II.

James
Edward
Ogle-
thorpe
and the
Georgia
Grant.

Savannah
Founded.

Indian
Treaty.

In 1739 a war broke out between England and Spain; and in 1740 Oglethorpe, with two thousand Georgians, invaded the Spanish province of Florida; but after an unsuccessful siege of St. Augustine he returned to Georgia. In 1742 the Spaniards invaded Georgia, but they were defeated and driven back. Oglethorpe left Georgia forever

War
with the
Span-
iards of
Florida.

**Georgia,
a Royal
Province.**

in 1743; and in 1752 the trustees of the colony, wearied of their troublesome charge, sold their interests to the crown, whereupon Georgia became a royal province, and so continued until 1776, when it became an independent State.

**Nation-
alities
in the
Anglo-
American
Colonies.**

England's thirteen colonies on the Atlantic coast of North America rapidly increased in population. The great body of the colonists were of English descent, though there was a mixture of different European nationalities. The New England colonies and Maryland and Virginia were wholly English. The people of New York and New Jersey were English and Dutch; those of Pennsylvania, English, Scotch-Irish, Welsh, Germans and Swiss; those of Delaware, English and Swedish; those of the Carolinas, English, Dutch, Germans and Scotch-Irish; and those of Georgia, English and Scotch-Irish.

**Religious
Classifi-
cation
of the
Colonists.**

Most of the colonists of New England, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, and many in the Carolinas, as we have seen, were religious exiles, who settled in the New World to seek a refuge from religious persecution. The Puritans of Massachusetts, who sought refuge in America against religious persecution, themselves persecuted those who did not agree with them. They were remarkable for their austerity. Their laws and customs were rigid, and frivolous amusements were not tolerated; while education was fostered, and habits of reading were encouraged. The people of New England were Puritans; the Church of England prevailed in New York, Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia; the Quakers were chiefly found in New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware; and the Roman Catholics were most numerous in Maryland.

**Educa-
tion
in the
Colonies.**

Education received early and special attention in the colonies, especially in New England. As early as 1621 schools for the education of both white and Indian children were established in Virginia; and in 1692 William and Mary College, named after King William III. and his wife Mary II., was established at Williamsburg, Virginia. The Dutch Reformed Church established a school at New Amsterdam in 1633. Harvard College, at Cambridge, Massachusetts, was founded in 1637, and named after the Rev. John Harvard. Yale College, in Connecticut, was established at Saybrook in 1701, and was named after Elihu Yale, President of the English East India Company, one of its most liberal benefactors; and in 1717 it was removed to New Haven. The College of New Jersey, at Princeton, was incorporated in 1738; and its third president was the distinguished divine and metaphysician, Jonathan Edwards.

**Forms of
Colonial
Govern-
ments.**

Three forms of government prevailed among the Anglo-American colonists—charter, proprietary and royal. The charter governments gave the supreme power to the people, who elected their governors, as



COLONIAL GOVERNORS AND PROPRIETORS

well as their legislative assemblies. The proprietary colonies were owned by individuals or companies, who appointed the governors, but allowed the people to elect their legislative assemblies. The royal provinces were owned and controlled wholly by the king, who appointed the governors, but allowed the people to choose their own legislative assemblies. It will thus be seen that all the colonies had their popular legislative assemblies. At the opening of the American Revolution, in 1775, the charter governments existed in Rhode Island and Connecticut; the proprietary colonies were Pennsylvania, Delaware and Maryland; and the rest of the colonies were royal provinces.

Most of the colonies had to contend against Indian hostilities, and most of the colonists in all the provinces resisted every royal and proprietary encroachment upon their rights. Religious and civil dissensions at times disturbed some of them; as in the case of Massachusetts, Maryland, Virginia and the Carolinas. New England and New York had to contend against the hostilities of the French from Canada, while the Carolinas and Georgia had to confront the Spaniards of Florida.

Though the colonists were of different European nationalities, a common bond of interest knit all the colonies together; their democratic institutions tended to educate them for self-government; the colonists were actuated by a common desire for the greatest civil, political and religious freedom; and all the colonies were semi-republican and semi-independent from the beginning. Negro-slavery became fixed in the Southern colonies. The colonists, whose pursuits were chiefly agricultural, prospered wonderfully; and when the American Revolution broke out, in 1775, the Anglo-American colonies had a population of three millions.

The early English colonists named the towns and counties in America after their home counties and cities in England, using such names as Hampshire, Kent, Essex, Sussex, Middlesex, Gloucester, Bucks, Berks, Reading, Chester, Lancaster, York, Bedford, Somerset, Huntingdon, Carlisle, Cumberland, Northumberland, Westmoreland, Northampton, Southampton, Portsmouth, Plymouth, Worcester, Bath, Newcastle, Exeter, Manchester, Boston, Barnstable, Norfolk, Suffolk, Rochester, Winchester, Richmond, Shrewsbury, Dover, Portland, Falmouth, New Haven, Cambridge, Oxford, Nottingham, Salisbury, Bristol, Rutland, Bradford, Birmingham, Berwick, Windsor, Warwick and many other such English county and city names.

The whites generally assigned the Indian names to mountains and rivers, creeks and lakes, as Adirondack, Allegheny, Connecticut, Merrimac, Penobscot, Kennebec, Androscoggin, Hoosatic, Mohawk, Lehigh, Schuylkill, Susquehanna, Conestoga, Potomac, Roanoke, Ohio,

Internal
and
External
Difficulties
of the
Colonies.

Bond of
Union
among
the
Colonists.

Their
Progress.

English
County
and City
Names.

Indian
Names
for
Mount-
ains,
Lakes,
Streams,
Etc.

Mississippi, Missouri, Illinois, Wabash, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, Kentucky, Tennessee, Miami, Kanawha, Muskingum, Kansas, Arkansas, Nebraska, Sioux, Alabama, Tombigbee, Altamaha, Ogeechee, Chattahoochee, Savannah, Combahee, Ocmulgee, Cheraw, Tippecanoe, Athabasca, Maumee, Ontario, Erie, Huron, Michigan, Oneida, Onondaga, Cayuga, Canandaigua, Winnipiseogee, Winnipeg and many others.





CHAPTER XXXV.

FRANCE AND THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV.

SECTION I.—FIRST TWO BOURBONS AND CARDINAL RICHELIEU (A. D. 1598-1642).

AFTER freeing France from civil and foreign war, Henry IV. was enabled to devote his energies to the task of arranging the internal affairs of the kingdom upon a secure basis. The finances were in a deplorable condition. The national debt exceeded three hundred million francs—a sum equivalent to about one hundred and sixty million dollars in United States money. The Farmers-General—the officials who collected this revenue—defrauded the government to such an extent that only thirty million francs reached the national treasury out of the two hundred million which the French people paid annually as taxes.

**Henry IV.
and the
French
Finances.**

In 1698 Henry IV. assigned the management of the finances to Maximilian de Bethune, Baron de Rosny, whom he had created Duke of Sully. This Minister was one of the ablest statesmen that France ever produced, and was a man of the most sterling integrity. His vigorous measures soon redounded to the financial benefit of France. The frauds which had deprived the government of the greater part of its revenue were sternly checked, and the levying of arbitrary taxes was stopped, while unnecessary and expensive offices and titles were abolished. There was a reduction in taxation to twenty-six million francs per annum, twenty million of which were paid into the national treasury. The national debt was reduced almost one-half, and a reserve fund of more than twenty-six million livres was accumulated.

**The
Duke of
Sully's
Able
Adminis-
tration.**

Henry IV. gave a cordial and unswerving support to his great Minister, and the kingdom soon felt the good results of the new policy. The king and the Minister encouraged agriculture, commerce, manufactures and all branches of industry. Commercial treaties were negotiated with England, Holland, Spain and Turkey; and French colonies were planted in America, where De Monts founded Acadia, afterward Nova Scotia, in 1605, and where Samuel Champlain founded the city

**French
Industry
and
Material
Great-
ness.**

of Quebec in 1608. Marshes were drained; roads, bridges and canals were constructed; and measures were adopted for the preservation of the forests of France. Everything connected with the welfare and prosperity of the kingdom received the personal care and attention of Henry IV. and the Duke of Sully; and the unrivaled fame of the French for the production of fine and curious fabrics dates from this reign.

Moderation of
Henry IV.

In his own dress and equipage, Henry IV. presented an example of moderation; and the French nobles were recommended to live upon their estates, in order to avoid the extravagance and frivolous rivalries of a court. At the close of the sixteenth century France was the greatest, wealthiest and most populous state of Europe; and Paris was the largest European capital, excepting Moscow.

France's
Great-
ness.

Domestic
Troubles
of Henry
IV.

Although Henry IV. was so successful in his public life, he was very unfortunate in his family affairs. The unmitigated vices of his wife, Margaret of Valois, had led to his separation from her many years previously; and, as he had no legitimate heir, he now seriously thought of procuring a divorce from his dissolute wife in order to marry his mistress, Gabrielle d'Estrées, with whom he had several children, and whom he had created Duchess of Beaufort. Many of the leading nobles of France favored the proposed marriage, but the Duke of Sully prevented it. The duchess unwisely demanded that the king should disgrace his great Minister, but Henry IV. bluntly replied that if it were necessary to part with either herself or the Duke of Sully he would stand by the Minister. This decisive blow to her hopes threw her into a violent illness which ended her life in April, 1599.

Divorce
and
Second
Marriage
of Henry
IV.

At the request of Henry IV., Pope Clement VIII. granted him a divorce from Margaret of Valois in December, 1599. The king now gave a written promise to his new mistress, the beautiful Henriette d'Entragues, whom he created Marchioness of Verneuil. When this paper was shown to the Duke of Sully the great Minister tore it to pieces, and exerted himself to find a suitable partner for the king. Henry IV. chose Mary de Medici, daughter of the late Grand Duke of Tuscany, and the marriage took place in October, 1600. The fruit of this marriage were several children, the eldest of whom was born September 27, 1601, and was the immediate and prospective heir to his father's throne.

Plot of
the Duke
of Savoy
against
Henry IV.

The Peace of Vervins in 1598 required the Duke of Savoy to cede the marquisate of Saluces to France; but that prince retained that small territory in violation of the treaty, and in 1600 he proceeded to Paris to negotiate with King Henry IV. concerning it. The Duke of Savoy embraced the opportunity afforded by this visit to organize a

conspiracy against the French king, and induced many of the old members of the Catholic League to join in the plot.

The most prominent conspirator was Marshal de Biron, the king's old comrade in arms, and whom Henry IV. had esteemed as his most devoted friend. But Biron was ambitious and exceedingly vain. As Charles Emmanuel, Duke of Savoy, was satisfied with his work he returned to his duchy and refused to surrender the territory required by treaty. He hoped that the plot which he had instigated in Paris, and which aimed at the dismemberment of the French kingdom into feudal states under the suzerainty of King Philip III. of Spain, was in a fair way to become successful; and he was also anxious for war.

His Hope
and
Desire.

Unconscious of the conspiracy at home, Henry IV. declared war against the Duke of Savoy, invaded his territory with an army in which Marshal de Biron held an important command, quickly overran the duchy of Savoy, and occupied Chamberry, its capital, August 21, 1600. Duke Charles Emmanuel was obliged to solicit peace, which he obtained only by surrendering the district of La Bresse, between Lyons and Geneva, in return for Saluces.

French
Invasion
of Savoy
and Its
Result.

Upon his return to France, Henry IV. was informed of the conspiracy against him, and of Biron's share in the plot; and Biron, struck with dismay, made a full confession of his treason. The king generously pardoned him, and sent him on a diplomatic mission to England. But Biron failed to profit by the king's magnanimity, and renewed his treasonable designs and his intrigues with the enemies of France. His plots were discovered; and the king offered him an opportunity to confess his guilt, with the intention of granting him a pardon if he manifested any remorse; but Biron haughtily refused to acknowledge his treason, and was tried, convicted and sentenced by the Parliament of Paris, and beheaded July 31, 1602. This measure was as wise as it was severe, as it put an end to the plots against Henry IV., and secured the internal tranquillity of France. Henry IV. devoted the three years of unbroken peace which ensued to the improvement of his kingdom.

Marshal
de Biron's
Plots
against
Henry IV.

His Exe-
cution.

By his recall of the Jesuits in 1603, and by his manifest desire to stand well with the Pope, Henry IV. alienated the Huguenots, whose leader, the Duke of Bouillon, even made overtures to King Philip III. of Spain. Thereupon that nobleman's capital, Sedan, was seized by the royal forces, which occupied it for four years; after which Henry IV. pardoned him and reinstated him in all his offices and honors, either through his natural leniency or through fear of offending the Protestant princes of Germany.

Treason
and
Pardon
of the
Duke of
Bouillon.

A favorite scheme of Henry IV. was the union of all the states of Christendom into a great Christian confederacy, in which the Lutheran,

Scheme
of Henry
IV. for a
Christian
Union.

Calvinistic and Catholic faiths should be tolerated and stand upon a footing of perfect equality, all disputes to be settled by arbitration in a diet or federal council in which all the states of the league would be represented, while commerce was to be freed from the restrictions which then paralyzed enterprise in the southern countries of Europe. Each of the states comprising the league was to be guaranteed the free and full enjoyment of its own political institutions.

The
States
of this
Union.

This great Christian confederation was to consist of fifteen states, classified in three groups—six elective monarchies, embracing the Germano-Roman Empire, the Papal States, Venice, Bohemia, Hungary and Poland; six hereditary monarchies, comprising France, Spain, England with Scotland, Denmark with Norway, Sweden, and Savoy with Milan; and three federal republics, namely, the Dutch Republic, Switzerland, and a confederation of Italian republics consisting of Genoa, Lucca and the other small Italian states. The Czar of Russia was regarded as the ruler of a state more Asiatic than European, but was to be admitted to the league on his own application.

Its Effect
on the
Spanish
and
Austrian
Haps-
burgs.

An equilibrium between the great powers of Europe would have been established by the acceptance of this scheme, which would have weakened both branches of the princely House of Hapsburg—that of Spain by the loss of the Netherlands, Franche-Comté and Lombardy, and that of Austria by the loss of Bohemia, Hungary and the Tyrol; thus carrying out the desire of Henry IV. for weakening Spain and humbling Austria, both of which powers were too strong for the welfare of Europe. Henry IV. also hoped thus to put an end to the religious wars and disputes, and to establish a system of international law which should be binding upon all Europe. This grand scheme was cut short by its author's assassination, as we shall soon see.

Efforts of
Henry IV.
against
the
Haps-
burgs.

As a preliminary part of his design, Henry IV. sought the humiliation of both branches of the House of Hapsburg. It was with this view that he aided the Protestants of Germany and Holland, and recommended the Pope to annex Naples and Sicily to the Papal States, thus severing Southern Italy from the dominion of the King of Spain. He also renounced the French claims upon Italy, thus seeking to deliver that country from all foreign dominion. He also intrigued with the oppressed Moriscos of Spain; but the edict of King Philip III., expelling those Christianized Moors from Spain, frustrated the French king's efforts in their behalf.

Alliance
of Henry
IV.
with the
German
Protest-
ants.

For the purpose of humbling the Austrian House of Hapsburg, Henry IV. interfered in a dispute which broke out in Germany between the Protestant Union and the Catholic League in 1609. The death of Duke William of Cleves, Berg and Jülich in that year without heirs was followed by the seizure of those duchies by the Elector of

Bradenburg and the Count Palatine of Neuburg. By the Treaty of Halle, in January, 1610, Henry IV. agreed to support them with a French army of ten thousand men, thus arraying himself distinctly as the enemy of the Austrian Hapsburg, as the Emperor Rudolf II. claimed the hereditary territorial estates of the deceased Duke William as a lapsed fief.

Henry IV. commenced his military preparations on a vast scale. He collected an army of thirty thousand men for the invasion of Germany, one of fourteen thousand men to join the Duke of Savoy and attack Lombardy, and one of twenty-five thousand men along the Pyrenees to invade Spain. Henry IV. postponed his departure for the seat of war, in order to celebrate the coronation of his queen, Mary de Medici, whom he had already appointed regent during his absence from Paris. She was crowned with great splendor at St. Denis, May 13, 1610.

**His
Projected
Invasion
of
Germany
and
Spain.**

In the midst of the festivities which enlivened Paris on the occasion of his queen's coronation, King Henry IV. wore a countenance of dejection, and seemed to take no pleasure in the festivities, his mind being distracted by the most gloomy forebodings, in fearful anticipation of a sudden and violent death.

**His
Gloomy
Fore-
bodings.**

The next day the good king's apprehensions were fatally realized. In reply to an expression of affection from one of his attendants, he said: "You do not know me now; but when you have lost me you will know my worth, and the difference between me and other men." Bassompierre then said to him: "Sire, will you never cease afflicting us by saying that you will soon die? You will live, if it p'ease God, long and happy years. There is no felicity in the world equal to yours. You are in the flower of your age; in perfect health and strength of body, full of honor beyond any other mortal; in the tranquil enjoyment of the most flourishing kingdom, adored by your subjects, possessed of wealth, of fine, beautiful palaces, a handsome wife and fine children. What can you desire more?" The king only sighed, and said in reply: "All these I must quit!"

**His
Conver-
sation
with
Bassom-
pierre.**

In the afternoon of that day, May 14, 1610, he was driven in his coach in company with six noblemen to visit the Duke of Sully, who was then ill at his residence, the arsenal. While the coach became entangled in a crowd, a Jesuit named François Ravailac jumped upon one of the hind wheels of the vehicle, reached over and stabbed the good king twice in the breast while he was reading a letter. The coach was driven back to the Louvre, to which it might be tracked all the way by the blood which flowed from it. The wounded monarch was at once laid upon a bed, surrounded by weeping officers, and soon breathed his last, dying in the fifty-eighth year of his age and the twenty-first

**Assassi-
nation of
Henry
IV. by
François
Ravail-
lac.**

of his reign. His widowed queen, Mary de Medici, was proclaimed regent for his little son and successor, Louis XIII.

Grief
of the
French
People.

The consternation and the public grief were universal throughout France, and never was the death of any other king so lamented by his subjects. The French people almost went wild with sorrow and mourning. The assassin Ravallac was put to the torture to make him reveal his motives for the regicide and the names of his accomplices. But he made no revelations, and was executed with the most shocking cruelties, amid the curses of the enraged and excited populace, May 27, 1610.

Good
Character
of Henry
IV.

Henry IV. was one of the greatest and best of France's kings. He was a brilliant and successful warrior, a profound statesman and a wise and vigorous ruler. France was rapidly increasing in power and prosperity under his enlightened and firm rule, and his death was a great misfortune to his kingdom. His memory as a sovereign has been justly hallowed by the admiration of posterity, and among all the Kings of France there is none whose name is so cherished to this day as that of Henry IV. His reign, like those of St. Louis and Louis XII., might serve as a model to all monarchs who love their subjects. He will always be honored for the clemency which he showed to his inveterate foes, the wisdom with which he tranquillized a kingdom distracted by civil wars for thirty-six years, and the enlightened toleration of which he gave a bright example himself and recommended the practice to his successors.

Good
Rule of
Henry
IV. and
the Duke
of Sully.

Though much of the glory of the public works of Henry IV. undoubtedly belongs to the Duke of Sully, the good king deserves praise for selecting so good and great a statesman for his Minister, and for patiently bearing the reproofs which the Duke of Sully so frequently administered to him with almost republican boldness. The king was happy in having such a Minister, and the Minister was happy in having such a king; while the French nation was still more fortunate in enjoying so rare a combination as a wise and good sovereign and an able and patriotic administration of the government. The virtues of Henry IV. as a sovereign have caused posterity to throw the mantle of charity over the few serious vices and follies which marred his private character.

Louis
XIII.,
A. D.
1610-
1643.

The
Regency.

As Louis XIII. was only eight years of age at the time of the assassination of his father, Henry IV., in 1610, the Dukes of Sully and Epemon at once took measures to secure the regency to the widowed queen, Mary de Medici, during the minority of her son. This action was not strictly lawful, but all parties in France acquiesced in it, as the necessity for a peaceful adjustment of the government was urgent,

The queen-regent, Mary de Medici, was a weak woman, of narrow understanding, and in no way adapted to the difficult and perilous situation which had been conferred upon her. She commenced her regency by retaining all the Ministers of her murdered husband, and confirming the Duke of Sully in the power and influence which he had exercised during the reign of Henry IV. The troops promised by Henry IV. were sent to the assistance of the German Protestants, and the Edict of Nantes was solemnly confirmed and renewed.

Mary de Medici and Her Policy.

But in the course of time the queen-regent surrendered herself entirely to the influence of her Italian favorites, especially to her foster-sister, Leonora Galigai, and her husband, Concino Concini, an obscure Florentine adventurer. Concini's wife was the first lady of the queen-mother's bed chamber; and Concini himself was rapidly raised from one post to another until he was created Marquis d'Ancre, and finally Marshal of France. Under the guidance of this Italian favorite and his wife, Mary de Medici organized a secret council or cabinet, consisting of Concini, the Jesuit Cotton, the Pope's Nuncio in France, and the Spanish ambassador at Paris, surrendering herself wholly to this clique.

Her Italian Favorites.

Mary de Medici was induced by her new favorites and councilors to establish the most friendly relations with the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs, thus reversing the entire policy of her murdered husband. To strengthen this new alliance with Spain and Austria, a marriage was contracted between the youthful King Louis XIII. and the Infanta Anne of Austria; while the young French king's sister, the Princess Elizabeth, was betrothed to Philip, Prince of Asturias, the eldest son and heir of King Philip III. of Spain.

Her Alliance with the Spanish and Austrian Hapsburgs.

The Duke of Sully viewed the queen-regent's foreign policy with deep regret, as he could not sanction such an overwhelming overthrow of the designs of Henry IV. for the humiliation of the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs. He vainly remonstrated with the queen-regent for making this alliance with the old enemies of France, and thus making the interests of France subservient to her new allies. As Mary de Medici persisted in her new foreign policy, the Duke of Sully resigned his office of Prince Minister in disgust and retired to his estate, in 1611, taking no further part in public affairs, though he was frequently consulted by the queen-regent during the rest of his life. He died in 1641, at the age of eighty-two.

Resignation of the Duke of Sully.

The alliance of the leading Catholic powers of Europe—France, Spain and Austria—occasioned a closer consolidation of the Protestant influence, thus hastening the inevitable conflict in Germany between Catholicism and Protestantism. The policy of the French court was to intimidate the Huguenots, who were too numerous to be won over

Protestant Consolidation.

Intimidation of the Huguenots. by gifts and pensions. They possessed two hundred fortified towns, had four thousand nobles in their ranks, and were able to muster an army of twenty-five thousand men.

Louis XIII. attained his majority September 27, 1614, at the ripe age of thirteen, and the next day he assumed the nominal charge of the government of France; though his mother, Mary de Medici, continued to exercise the real power in the kingdom. Just before the expiration of the regency she had granted one demand of the Prince of Condé by summoning the States-General, and that assembly convened at Paris, October 14, 1614. The three orders of France were

States-General Convened.

Richelieu.

numerously represented; and among the deputies of the clergy was Armand Duplessis de Richelieu, the young Bishop of Luçon, who was destined to achieve a world-wide fame as the greatest of the cardinal-statesmen of France. At the end of the session this young clerical summed up the demands of the nobility and the clergy in an eloquent address which attracted universal attention.

The Dissensions and Dissolution of the States-General.

The session of the States-General was passed in wrangling, and the dissensions of the various orders enabled the government to put them off with promises which it never intended to fulfill. Their quarrels filled the entire French nation with disgust, and the young king rejoiced at seeing the national legislature of his realm give so complete a spectacle of its incapacity to discharge its duties. The Third Estate, or commons, having offended the queen, King Louis XIII. suddenly dissolved the States-General and forbade them ever to assemble again, March 24, 1615. This great national legislature was not again convoked untill 1789, one hundred and seventy-four years later, on the eve of the great French Revolution, as we shall see in a subsequent volume of this work.

Marriage of Louis XIII. with Anne of Austria.

Louis XIII. was married to Anne of Austria late in the year 1615. The Prince of Condé, who had twice taken up arms to force the French court to put an end to its intimate relations with Austria and Spain and to renew the alliances of Henry IV. against the two branches of the House of Hapsburg, bitterly opposed this royal marriage. He and his party were supported by the Parliament of Paris, which refused to register the decrees which the court issued to destroy that powerful leader and his partisans; and Mary de Medici was obliged to make lavish grants to him in order to silence his opposition.

Condé and the Opposition to Marshal d'Ancre.

The Prince of Condé was especially hostile to the queen-mother's Italian favorite, Marshal d'Ancre; and the marshal felt himself so unsafe at court that he took refuge in Normandy. It was believed that the Prince of Condé contemplated to remove the queen-mother from power by force; but in this design he encountered a formidable opponent in Richelieu, who had risen rapidly since the meeting of the

States General, and who now occupied a seat in the Council of State. This ambitious prelate supported the interests of Mary de Medici with great vigor; and Marshal d'Ancre, who had perceived Richelieu's talents, thought that he had now secured a useful instrument in the promotion of the ambitious bishop.

Conde
Opposed
by
Richelieu

Richelieu soon took the decisive step of advising the queen-mother to arrest the Prince of Condé, who was accordingly taken into custody in August, 1616, as he was leaving the council chamber, and he was imprisoned in the Bastile. The other leaders of his party fled from Paris; but their adherents made an effort to excite an insurrection in the city, and plundered and destroyed Marshal d'Ancre's elegant mansion. The riot was soon quelled, and Marshal d'Ancre returned to the capital, but his insolence soon made him detested by all but the queen-mother. Richelieu was rewarded for his services against the Prince of Condé by being made Secretary of State, in November, 1616, through the influence of Marshal d'Ancre, who still congratulated himself on using the ambitious prelate as his instrument.

Arrest
of Conde.

Riot
Quelled.

Richelieu
Made
Secretary
of
State.

In 1616 Louis XIII. was sixteen years of age, and he was beginning to chafe under the restraints which his mother and her Italian favorite were imposing upon him. The young king thoroughly despised Marshal d'Ancre, and chose the Sieur de Luines, a young man of pleasing manners and great ambition, as his confidant. This man, who became the king's falconer, had an unbounded influence over Louis XIII., and sought to advance his own fortunes by prejudicing the young king against Marshal d'Ancre, who had also quarreled with Richelieu, who now felt sufficiently powerful to separate himself from the party of the queen and her Italian favorite. Thus there were two parties at the French court, led by the respective favorites of the king and his mother.

Louis
XIII.
and
Sieur de
Luines.

Marshal
d'Ancre
Opposed
by Louis
XIII. and
Richelieu.

The Sieur de Luines succeeded so well in his machinations against Marshal d'Ancre that the young king had the marshal arrested, April 24, 1617. The marshal having made a slight movement which was supposed to be an effort at resistance, he was shot down by the royal guard while on his way to the Louvre. The young king, who beheld the tragic scene from a window of the Louvre, cried aloud: "Thank you, good friends! I am now a king!"

Assassi-
nation of
Marshal
d'Ancre.

The populace of Paris hailed the assassination of Marshal d'Ancre with the greatest delight, and they disinterred his body, dragged it through the streets and burned it. The murdered marshal's wife was tried on a frivolous charge of sorcery, and was executed on the Place de Grève. The property of both the marshal and his wife was confiscated and conferred upon the young king's favorite. The queen-mother, Mary de Medici, was arrested on the day of the assassination

Indigni-
ties to
His Body.

His Wife
Executed.

Mary de
Medici
Exiled.

of her favorite, and was afterward exiled to Blois; while Richelieu was dismissed to his bishopric of Luçon.

**Elevation
of the
Sieur de
Luines**

The Sieur de Luines was now at the head of affairs in France. The new Council of State, like the old, favored the House of Hapsburg; and its policy hastened the Thirty Years' War in Germany. The king's favorite sought to enrich himself and his family. He was created a duke and a peer of France, was appointed Governor of the Isle de France and of Picardy, and received the daughter of the Duke de Montbazou in marriage. Two of his brothers likewise were made dukes. His rapacity soon made him universally unpopular, and the discontented French nobles gathered at the queen-mother's court at Blois, which became the seat of a most formidable and resolute opposition to King Louis XIII. and his favorite. The Duke d'Epemon rescued Mary de Medici from the Castle of Blois, February 22, 1619, and conducted her safely into the province of Angoulême.

**Opposi-
tion to
Him and
Louis
XIII.**

**Rescue of
Mary de
Medici.**

**Recon-
ciliation
Effected
by
Richelieu.**

Louis XIII. and his favorite were seriously alarmed at the imminence of civil war. Conscious of his inability to confront the impending storm, the Sieur de Luines appealed to Richelieu, who had remained in quiet retirement, awaiting what he was aware of would be the consequence of the kingly favorite's effort at government. Richelieu hastened to the queen-mother's court, and succeeded in effecting a reconciliation between her and her son, thus averting the danger of civil war. The Prince of Condé was liberated from the Bastille, and joined the party of the king and the Sieur de Luines, who hoped that the released prince would prove a valuable ally against the queen-mother and her party.

**Conde's
Release.**

**Rise
of the
Valtelline
against
the Swiss.**

In 1620 a dispute arose between France and Spain concerning the Valtelline territory in Northern Italy. This long and narrow valley, watered by the river Adda, and extending from Lake Como to the frontiers of the Tyrol, had formerly been under the dominion of the Dukes of Milan; but the last of the Sforzas had ceded it to the Swiss canton of Grisons. It was very important to the Spaniards during the wars in Germany, as it afforded a passage into that country from Milan. As the inhabitants of the Valtelline were Catholics they resisted the dominion of the Protestant Swiss. In July, 1620, they rose against their Swiss rulers, massacred all whom they got into their power, and solicited protection from the neighboring Spaniards. The Spaniards sent troops to seize all the fortresses in the valley. The French government made a demand upon the Spanish court that the Spanish troops evacuate the Valtelline, and a treaty to that effect was signed in the spring of 1621, but was never carried into execution.

**Spanish
Occupation
of the
Valtelline
Ended by
France.**

**Bearn
Annexed
by Louis
XIII.**

King Louis XIII. now proceeded to annex the little Protestant province of Bearn, on the north side of the Pyrenees, to the crown of

France, and ordered the Roman Catholic religion to be reëstablished therein. This action of the king produced a revolt of the inhabitants of the province, whose cause was quickly espoused by the Huguenots throughout France. The king mustered an army to reduce the Huguenots to submission, and disgusted the entire kingdom by appointing the Sieur de Luines to the important and responsible office of Constable of France.

Huguenot
Revolt.

The new religious war in France commenced in the spring of 1621. The Constable de Luines was utterly incompetent for the execution of the task imposed upon him. After some insignificant successes in Poitou, he besieged Montauban, the chief fortress of the Huguenots in the province of Languedoc, where his incapacity was completely manifested. Notwithstanding the efforts of the royal army, the advance of a Huguenot force under the Duke de Rohan forced King Louis XIII. to raise the siege, after he had lost eight thousand of his troops. The Constable de Luines died soon after this humiliation, December 14, 1621, from the effects of a malignant fever; his death being regretted by none, not even by the king.

Failure
of Louis
XIII. in
the Siege
of Mon-
tauban.

Death of
the Con-
stable de
Luines.

The civil and religious war continued with vigor after the death of the incompetent Constable de Luines; and in 1622 the Huguenots experienced a great loss in the defection of Marshal Lesdiguières, one of the ablest soldiers of the time, who deserted the Huguenot cause, embraced the Catholic faith, and was made Constable of France by King Louis XIII. The revolt was crushed in the provinces of Languedoc and Guienne, and the city of Montpellier was finally compelled to surrender to the royal army. By the Peace of Montpellier, October 19, 1622, the Huguenots surrendered all the fortified towns guaranteed to them by the previous treaties, excepting the strongholds of Montauban and La Rochelle.

Desertion
of a Hu-
guenot
Leader.

Capture
of Mont-
pellier.

Peace of
Mont-
pellier.

The office of Prime Minister had been made vacant by the death of the Constable de Luines; and it was for some time warmly contested by the queen-mother, Mary de Medici, and the Prince of Condé. Richelieu zealously supported the queen-mother, thus enabling her to triumph over her rival. Richelieu's genius had already commenced making itself felt in the royal councils, and his ambition became manifest to all. Men of all parties in France felt instinctively that he would make himself master of France when the opportunity presented itself, and all united in an effort to exclude the ambitious prelate from the Council of State. Louis XIII. personally disliked Richelieu, and long refused to admit him to any share of power; but the young king finally yielded to his mother's solicitations by fulfilling the promise which he had made to Richelieu long before, and accordingly asked the Pope to confer a cardinal's hat upon Richelieu.

The
Prime
Ministry
and
Richelieu.

His
Genius
and
Ambition.

Richelieu
Made a
Cardinal.

His Holiness, Pope Gregory XV., created Richelieu a cardinal of the Holy Roman Church, September 5, 1622. This was only a step to the triumph of the great churchman and statesman. The weakness of the royal government was becoming more apparent daily, and the ambitious designs of Spain and Austria under the Hapsburgs were causing serious alarm in France. Louis XIII. changed his Ministers repeatedly, but none was found sufficiently competent to conduct France safely through the perplexities in which she was involved; and the young king was finally obliged to heed the urgent solicitations of his mother by summoning Cardinal Richelieu to a place in the Council of State, which was accordingly done April 26, 1624.

Called
into the
Council
of State.

Cardinal
Richelieu
Made
Prime
Minister.

Louis XIII. had intended that Cardinal Richelieu should hold only a subordinate position in the Council of State, but the king was unable to prevent the genius of the great cardinal-statesman whom he had so reluctantly summoned to his aid from asserting itself. Before Richelieu had been in the council six months he was the real ruler of France; and the king, the court and the entire nation acknowledged his supremacy. He infused his indomitable energy into every branch of the public service, and the French government suddenly acquired a strength which was felt throughout the entire kingdom.

His Able
Rule.

His
Remark
as to the
Condition
of France.

Cardinal Richelieu himself alluded to the condition of France when he came into power as follows: "I may say with truth that at the time of my entrance upon office the Huguenots divided the power of the state with Your Majesty; that the great nobles conducted themselves as if they were not your subjects, and the governors of provinces as if they were independent subjects in their own dominions. Foreign alliances were depreciated and misunderstood; private interests preferred to those of the state; and, in a word, the majesty of the crown was degraded to such a depth of abasement that it was scarcely to be recognized at all."

His
Three
Great
Objects.

From the moment that Richelieu entered upon the office of Prime Minister of France he pursued a consistent and undeviating policy, the principal objects of which were the destruction of the Huguenots as a political party, the firm establishment of the royal authority over the nobility of France, and the reestablishment of French ascendancy in Europe by the systematic humiliation of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

His Prot-
estant
Alliances.

Royal
Inter-
marriage
with
England.

In pursuance of his policy, Cardinal Richelieu endeavored to weaken the German Empire and Spain by forming an alliance between France and the Protestant powers of Northern Europe. His first step was the negotiation of a marriage between Charles, Prince of Wales, son of King James I. of England, and the Princess Henrietta Maria, a sister of King Louis XIII. A match which had previously been ar-



LOUIS XIII AND RICHELIEU

From the Painting by V. Brožík

ranged between this British prince and a Spanish infanta was broken off, and the marriage arranged by Richelieu occurred in May, 1625.

Cardinal Richelieu furnished the German Protestants with funds, and permitted them to enlist troops in France; while a French army was sent into the Valtelline, which was held by the Austrians and the Spaniards, and which furnished them a direct communication between Northern Italy and the Tyrol. A campaign of several weeks ended in the complete expulsion of the Austrian forces from the Valtelline, all the fortresses of which were occupied by French troops. Pope Urban VIII. looked with open disfavor upon Cardinal Richelieu's attacks upon the principal Catholic powers of Europe, and protested against his course; but Richelieu told the Pope very plainly that, while he acknowledged his duties as a prince of the Roman Catholic Church, his first allegiance was due to France, whose interests and dignity were his first objects under any and all circumstances.

Cardinal Richelieu was obliged to suspend the operation of his plans against Austria, in consequence of an unexpected revolt of the Huguenots under the Dukes de Rohan and Soubise in the summer of 1625. Richelieu proceeded with vigor against the Huguenot rebels; and, with the aid of a fleet furnished by Protestant England and Protestant Holland, he defeated the Huguenot fleet off La Rochelle, and reduced that Huguenot stronghold to great extremities.

Richelieu was obliged to make peace with the Huguenots in consequence of the existence of a formidable conspiracy against his power and his life; and in February, 1626, the Huguenots were granted favorable terms. In March of the same year a treaty was made with Spain, France restoring the Valtelline to the Swiss canton of the Grisons, from which it had been wrested by Spain and Austria in 1620. Richelieu was subjected to severe censure and ridicule for his leniency to the Huguenots on this occasion, but he was well aware that the time had not yet come for the success of his plans.

The plot against Cardinal Richelieu's power had been skillfully organized by Gaston, Duke of Anjou, the only brother of King Louis XIII., and included many of the leading nobles of France. The young queen was also a party to it. The conspirators intended to assassinate the cardinal-statesman, at his country seat, and to make Gaston his successor in power. Richelieu discovered the plot. Gaston betrayed his confederates, and threw himself upon the mercy of his brother, the king, who rewarded Gaston's treachery by making him Duke of Orleans, with the immense revenues of that duchy; but the other conspirators were beheaded or exiled. The young queen was summoned before the Council of State, and was severely reprimanded for her share in the conspiracy, thus increasing the coldness which

French
Aid to the
German
Protestants and
Occupation
of the
Valtelline.

Richelieu
and Pope
Urban
VIII.

Huguenot
Revolt
and
Defeat.

Peace
with the
Huguenots and
Treaty
with
Spain.

Plot of
Gaston,
Duke of
Anjou,
against
Richelieu.

Gaston
Betrays
His
Accomplices
and Is
Made
Duke of
Orleans.

for some time had existed between herself and her royal husband. Thenceforth the queen and the cardinal-statesman were avowed enemies. In consequence of this conspiracy, Richelieu's power became more firmly established than ever.

Royal
Edict
against
Dueling.

In 1627 Cardinal Richelieu gave a startling evidence of the vigor with which he intended to humble the French nobles by bringing them to the foot of the throne. A royal ordinance was issued against dueling, which had become a serious evil among the gallants of the French court. In defiance of this royal ordinance, the Counts de Bouteville and Des Chapelles engaged in a desperate encounter in the Place Royale at Paris. They were arrested by Richelieu's order, tried, convicted, and beheaded with a grim firmness which filled the entire French nobility with terror.

Execution
of Two
Duelists.

Another
Huguenot
Revolt
at La
Rochelle.

In 1627 the Huguenots of La Rochelle again revolted, and this time England sided with the Huguenots against King Louis XIII. The Duke of Buckingham, the Prime Minister of King Charles I. of England, had conceived a foolish feeling for the queen of Louis XIII.; and Richelieu exposed and ridiculed this. For the purpose of obtaining revenge upon the cardinal-statesman of France, the Duke of Buckingham induced the English king to aid the Huguenots. The Huguenot cause was popular in England, and the Huguenots might have derived some advantage from this alliance had a more popular leader than the Duke of Buckingham been chosen to lead the English fleet of one hundred vessels and the English land force sent to the relief of La Rochelle in July, 1627.

English
Aid to
the Hu-
guenots.

Siege
of La
Rochelle
by
Richelieu.

Cardinal Richelieu in the meantime had made extraordinary exertions for the reduction of La Rochelle. With a splendidly-equipped and powerful army he laid siege to the Huguenot stronghold, and proved himself an able general as well as a great statesman. The Huguenots made a heroic defense, but the English fleet which attempted to relieve the beleaguered stronghold was defeated with great loss. The Duke of Buckingham then sailed back to England, thus leaving the Huguenots to defend their stronghold single-handed against the royal forces of France.

English
Fleet
Defeated.

Two
English
Fleets
Obliged
to Retire.

Richelieu closely invested La Rochelle by land, and constructed a mole across the mouth of the harbor, which he fortified, thus cutting off relief for the city by sea. Two English fleets sent to the relief of the starving Huguenots of La Rochelle were unable to enter the harbor on account of the barrier which Richelieu had erected there, and consequently retired. After a siege of fifteen months, during which half of the inhabitants perished from famine, and during which the Huguenot garrison was reduced to less than two hundred men, La Rochelle surrendered to Richelieu, October 28, 1628.

Fall
of La
Rochelle.

The triumphant cardinal-statesman used his victory with moderation. He declared that the age of persecution for conscience sake had gone by, and that the king had waged war upon the people of La Rochelle not as Huguenots but as rebels. He confirmed the people of the conquered town in the exercise of their religion, but punished them for their rebellion by depriving them of their political rights and destroying the fortifications of the city. Montauban, the last Huguenot stronghold, surrendered in August, 1629; and the Huguenots ceased to exist as a political party.

Richelieu's Moderation and Toleration.

Fall of Montauban.

Spain took advantage of Richelieu's civil war with the Huguenots to try to injure France in Italy by driving the Duke de Nevers, a French nobleman, from the duchies of Mantua and Montferrat, to which he had just succeeded. After the capture of La Rochelle, Cardinal Richelieu induced King Louis XIII. to lead a French army of thirty-six thousand men across the Alps into Italy, in March, 1629, to aid the Duke of Mantua and Montferrat. Charles Emmanuel the Great, Duke of Savoy, who was an enemy of France, was forced to make a treaty of peace; and the Spaniards were compelled to relinquish their designs upon Mantua and Montferrat.

Spanish Designs in Italy Foiled by Richelieu.

No sooner had the French recrossed the Alps than the Spaniards and the Austrians again invaded Mantua and occupied the territory of the Grisons. The Duke of Savoy entered into a secret alliance with the Spaniards and the Austrians, and prepared to prevent the French army from passing through his territory into Italy. Cardinal Richelieu received the chief command of the French army, and appointed Marshals Bassompierre and Schomberg as his lieutenants. He marched rapidly into Savoy, took Pignerol after a siege of three days, and also captured a number of other fortresses in the duchy. The French forces soon overran Savoy and the marquisate of Saluces, so that the allies were obliged to make peace.

The Duke of Savoy's Alliance with Spain and Austria.

French Occupation of Savoy.

By the Treaty of Cherasco, in April, 1631, the Austrians evacuated Mantua, and the Emperor Ferdinand II. of Germany invested the Duke de Nevers with the duchy. Victor Amadeus I., Duke of Savoy, was forced to cede Pignerol and two other fortresses to France. One of the most prominent negotiators of this treaty was Giulio Mazarini, then an agent of Pope Urban VIII. at the ducal court of Savoy, and afterward so famous in French history as Cardinal Mazarin.

Treaty of Cherasco.

Giulio Mazarini.

Though Richelieu was successful against the enemies of France, he now found himself surrounded by personal enemies, and numerous plots were formed against him. King Louis XIII. was attacked with a dangerous illness at Lyons, while on his way to join the French army in Italy. The queen-mother, Mary de Medici, had become an enemy of Cardinal Richelieu, because she found that she could not rule him,

Plots against Richelieu

Mary de
Medici
Seeks
His Over-
throw.

as she before supposed that she could. She took advantage of the king's illness to extort a promise from him that he would dismiss the great cardinal-statesman from office. Louis XIII. consented on condition that no step should be taken against Richelieu until the termination of the war in Italy. When the king recovered his health he manifested a reluctance to deprive himself and his kingdom of the services of his great Prime Minister; but the clamors of his wife, his mother and his courtiers for the dismissal of the cardinal-statesman became louder daily.

Richelieu's
Quarrel
with
Mary de
Medici.

In the meantime Cardinal Richelieu returned to court, and finally he quarreled with the queen-mother in the king's presence. Louis XIII. ended the quarrel by leaving the palace and proceeding to Versailles. The entire court now considered the great Prime Minister's ruin inevitable, and his enemies openly manifested their exultation. The cardinal-statesman himself was confident that he would be disgraced, and was surprised when he received a summons to meet the king at Versailles. Louis XIII. received Richelieu very cordially, assuring him that he would not listen to any charges against him, and that he would remove from court all who were able or disposed to injure him or thwart his plans. The day upon which these events occurred—November 11, 1630—is still known in France as *The Day of Dupes*.

The
Day of
Dupes.

Richelieu's
Action.

Cardinal Richelieu now proceeded to take vigorous action against those who had sought to injure him, causing Marshal de Marillac to be executed on a charge of peculation, and banishing his brother, the keeper of the seals, to Chateaudun.

Banishment,
Exile and
Death of
Mary de
Medici.

Richelieu then tried to persuade King Louis XIII. that there could be no peace at court until the queen-mother was compelled to cease her plottings. The king was very much averse to adopt any stringent measures against his mother; but a fresh rebellion of his brother Gaston, Duke of Orleans, in 1631, said to have been instigated by Mary de Medici, induced Louis XIII. to take a decisive step against her. She was banished from court and sent to Compiègne. Several days afterward the king ordered her to retire to Moulins. She refused to obey her son's order, and fled across the north-eastern frontier of France to the Spanish rulers at Brussels. This step was fatal to her, as Louis XIII. sternly refused to permit her to return to France; and she died in exile at Cologne in 1642, the very year of Richelieu's death.

Rebellions and
Flight of
Gaston,
Duke of
Orleans.

The rebellion of Gaston, Duke of Orleans, was suppressed, his estates were confiscated, and he took refuge in Lorraine; but, as he was denied shelter in that province, he fled to Brussels. His followers were imprisoned or exiled. The king's brother continued his plottings at

Brussels, and induced a number of discontented French nobles to join in his schemes, among them the Duke de Montmorenci, one of the most illustrious men in France. Gaston invaded France with a small force in 1632, but his army was defeated by the royal troops, and he was again obliged to seek refuge in exile. The saddest result of this unhappy insurrection was the execution of Duke Henry de Montmorenci, who was beheaded at Toulouse, October 30, 1632.

**Execution
of Henry
de Mont-
morenci.**

The Thirty Years' War in Germany had now been in progress for more than a decade. In accordance with his policy for weakening the Austrian House of Hapsburg, Richelieu entered into an alliance with King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden in 1631, as already noticed; promising him an annual subsidy of four hundred thousand crowns, and thus openly taking sides with the German Protestants against their Emperor and the Catholic League of Germany.

**Franco-
Swedish
Alliance
in the
Thirty
Years'
War.**

After the death of Gustavus Adolphus in the moment of victory on the bloody field of Lutzen in 1632, Richelieu renewed his alliance with Sweden by a treaty with the Swedish Chancellor, Axel Oxenstiern. The victory of the German imperialists at Nördlingen in September, 1634, appeared to establish the success of the Emperor Ferdinand II.; but Richelieu went about vigorously to neutralize its effects. Accordingly, under her great Prime Minister's direction, France concluded treaties of alliance with Sweden, Holland, the Protestant princes of Germany, Switzerland, and the Duke of Savoy; France agreeing to put four large armies in the field, numbering in the aggregate one hundred and twenty thousand men.

**Richelieu's
Alliance
with
Oxen-
stiern.**

**France's
Other
Alliances.**

The events of the next three years were unfavorable to France. In 1636 the German imperial army advanced into the French province of Picardy and seriously menaced Paris, but the imperialists were finally obliged to retire with considerable loss. In 1638 the tide turned in favor of the French. Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, who had entered the service of France, captured several fortresses on the Upper Rhine, and defeated the German imperial army at Rheinfeld, March 3, 1638. In December, of the same year he captured the strong fortress of Breisach after a siege of six months. The events of 1639 were also favorable to the French; and, after the death of Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, Richelieu annexed Alsace to France. In Italy the French under the Count d'Harcourt defeated the German imperialists in Piedmont, overran that country, and captured Turin in September, 1640, after a siege of more than four months. In the same year the French drove the Spaniards from Artois and annexed that province to the crown of France.

**French
Victories
under
Bernhard
of Saxe-
Weimar.**

**Annexa-
tion of
Alsace.**

**French
Victories
in Italy.**

**Annexa-
tion of
Artois.**

In the meantime Cardinal Richelieu's good fortune did not desert him. He discovered a secret correspondence between the queen and the

**The
Queen's
Treason.**

Royal
Recon-
ciliation.

Spaniards at Brussels, and the queen was so terrified by the discovery of her offense that she confessed her fault to Richelieu and signed a solemn pledge never to commit a similar offense. The cardinal-statesman sought to bring about a reconciliation between Louis XIII. and his queen, in which he succeeded to the satisfaction of both husband and wife. The royal couple had been married for over twenty years, but thus far had no children. Anne now gave birth to a son at the palace of St. Germain, September 5, 1638, who became the heir to the French throne.

Birth of
an Heir.

Plot and
Execution
of Cinq-
Mars and
De Thou.

Richelieu had selected the gay and brilliant Marquis of Cinq-Mars as the king's companion; but when the cardinal-statesman endeavored to check this nobleman's ambitious schemes the marquis organized a formidable conspiracy against Richelieu, and began a treasonable correspondence with the Spaniards. Richelieu detected this conspiracy, and procured a copy of the treaty which the conspirators had made with Spain. The Marquis of Cinq-Mars was arrested, along with De Thou, another conspirator; and both were executed at Lyons, September 12, 1642.

Annexa-
tion of
Roussil-
lon and
Sedan.

In the same year the French took Perpignan from the Spaniards, thus completing the conquest of the province of Roussillon, which was annexed to France. The principality of Sedan also became one of the possessions of the French crown, having been confiscated as a penalty imposed on the Duke of Bouillon for his complicity in the plot of the Marquis of Cinq-Mars.

Richelieu's
Great-
ness.

Cardinal Richelieu was now at the height of his power and greatness. He was supreme in France, and had made his country great at home and feared abroad. He had given his king the first place in France, and had given France the first place in Europe. He had humbled the Huguenots and the French nobles at home, and had humiliated the proud House of Hapsburg and all the other foreign enemies of France; but all this time he was sinking under a mortal disease, and he died December 4, 1642, in the fifty-eighth year of his age.

His
Death.

French
Academy
Founded.

Richelieu was a great patron of science and literature, and many scientific and literary institutions in France date from his time. He founded the *French Academy* in 1635, for the purpose of improving the French language and the literary taste of the French people.

SECTION II.—ANNE OF AUSTRIA AND CARDINAL MAZARIN (A. D. 1642–1661).

Remark
of Louis
XIII.

LOUIS XIII., who owed his proud position in France and Europe entirely to Richelieu's able statesmanship and diplomacy, coldly re-

marked upon hearing of his great Prime Minister's death: "There is a great politician gone." The only change which the king made in the Ministry selected by Richelieu was to assign a seat in the Council of State to the Italian Cardinal Mazarin.

In less than six months King Louis XIII. followed his great Prime Minister to the grave, dying at the palace of St. Germain, May 14, 1643, on the anniversary of his illustrious father's assassination, having thus reigned exactly thirty-three years, A. D. 1610-1643. Louis XIII. left the regency for his little son and successor, Louis XIV., to his widow, Anne of Austria, and appointed his brother, Gaston, Duke of Orleans, to the office of Lieutenant-General of the kingdom. The king's will also appointed a Council of State, consisting of Cardinal Mazarin, the Prince of Condé, the Chancellor Seguier, and Chavigny and Bouthillier, Secretaries of State.

As soon as the queen-mother, Anne of Austria, was confirmed in the regency she dismissed the Council of Regency and made Mazarin her Prime Minister—a selection which surprised all parties, as Mazarin had been the faithful subordinate of Richelieu, her old enemy. But the choice was good, as Mazarin was a man of great genius; and, as Louis XIV. was not yet five years old, the queen-regent very well knew that she would need a competent adviser during her little son's long minority, and she therefore selected the one best adapted to the position.

Cardinal Mazarin's policy and aims were the same as those of his illustrious predecessor, Richelieu, and he prosecuted the war against Austria and Spain with great vigor. The German imperialists resumed hostilities immediately upon Richelieu's death; while the Spanish forces from the Netherlands laid siege to the fortress of Rocroi, but were decisively defeated by the French under the Duke d'Enghien in the battle of Rocroi, May 19, 1643.

The French arms in Germany, under Marshal Turenne and the Duke d'Enghien, defeated the imperialists at Nördlingen, August 7, 1645. The Duke d'Enghien, with the assistance of the Dutch fleet under Admiral Van Tromp, took the important sea-port of Dunkirk, on the North Sea, from the Spaniards, in October, 1646. The Duke d'Enghien returned to France in 1647, and succeeded to the title of Prince of Condé upon his father's death about the same time.

Cardinal Mazarin, who dreaded the new Prince of Condé's influence at court, sent the great general to Catalonia to aid the revolted Catalans against the Spaniards. The Prince of Condé laid siege to Lerida in May, 1647; but he was obliged to raise the siege, in spite of his great genius; whereupon he returned to France in utter disgust, and bitterly reproached Mazarin for failing to sustain him. Mazarin

**Cardinal
Mazarin.**

**Death of
Louis
XIII.**

**Louis
XIV.
A. D.
1643-
1715.**

**Regency
of Anne
of
Austria.**

**Cardinal
Mazarin,
Prime
Minister.**

**His
Policy.**

**Battle of
Rocroi.**

**Second
Battle of
Nörd-
lingen.**

**Capture
of
Dunkirk**

**Mazarin
and
Conde.**

**Siege of
Lerida.**

was profuse in his excuses, and immediately appointed the Prince of Condé to the command of the French army in Flanders. The great general took the town of Ypres in May, 1648, drove the German imperial troops out of the French province of Picardy, and defeated the imperial army under Archduke Leopold at Lens, in Artois, August, 1648.

Conde's New Victories. In the meantime the French arms under Marshal Turenne also triumphed in Germany. In 1648 Turenne, in conjunction with the Swedes, defeated the German imperial army under the Italian general Montecuculi near Augsburg, and would have marched upon Vienna had he not been prevented by a sudden rise of the river Inn.

Success of Turenne in Germany. The successes of the French arms, particularly the victory at Lens, hastened the peace negotiations, which had been in progress for five years, to a conclusion; and the Treaty of Westphalia, October 24, 1648, ended the Thirty Years' War, as already noticed. This famous treaty was highly advantageous to France, which received all of Alsace except Strasburg, thus extending her eastern frontier to the Rhine. The town of Breisach, on the east side of the Rhine, was ceded to France; while the fortress of Philipsburg was to be garrisoned by French troops. The three bishoprics of Toul, Verdun and Metz were confirmed to France, in whose possession they now had been for almost a century; and the duchy of Lorraine was also virtually ceded to France by being left to her until an amicable arrangement could be effected with its dispossessed duke. France also obtained the fortress of Pignerol, in Piedmont.

Peace of Westphalia. Thus the Thirty Years' War had been, on the whole, favorable to France. The power of the Austrian House of Hapsburg had been humbled, and the Germano-Roman Empire was practically destroyed, while France had become the leading power of Europe. France and Spain, however, did not come to terms; and the war between them lasted eleven years longer.

France's Prestige Raised. In the very year that the Thirty Years' War closed, France began to be distracted by serious internal troubles. Cardinal Mazarin's rapacity and misgovernment, which had full sway in consequence of his complete influence over the queen-regent, Anne of Austria, was rapidly involving the French kingdom in serious financial embarrassments, which eventually brought on a disastrous civil war. Richelieu had left a full treasury, but the resources which he had so carefully husbanded were soon squandered by Mazarin, and recourse was had to the most oppressive and obnoxious expedients in order to meet the enormous expenses of the war and the extravagance of the court.

France's Internal Troubles. An impost levied upon all merchandise brought into Paris for sale by land or water, and levied upon all classes indiscriminately, en-

countered serious opposition on the part of the Parliament of Paris, thus arraying that tribunal in direct antagonism to the French crown. The quarrel increased in bitterness daily; and finally the court was guilty of a serious error in taking advantage of the rejoicings which greeted the intelligence of the great French victory at Lens, to arrest three of the chief leaders of the opposition in the Parliament of Paris—Blancmesnil, Broussel and Charton.

Collision between the French Crown and the Parliament of Paris.

The populace of Paris had sided with the Parliament from the very beginning of the troubles, and when the three popular leaders were arrested the Parisians rose in open revolt against the government and barricaded the principal streets; while an angry mob surrounded the Palais Royal, demanding the release of Broussel, who was extremely popular. The Cardinal de Retz, Archbishop Coadjutor of Paris, represented to the queen-mother, Anne of Austria, the danger of the situation, and urged her to comply with the popular demand by releasing Broussel; but the queen-mother refused to release the popular leader, and troops were marched into the Palais Royal to protect the court.

Popular Revolt in Paris.

The Queen-regent's Obstinacy.

Cardinal de Retz joined the rebels when the queen-regent refused to take his advice, and became one of the chief leaders of the insurrection. The next day, August 27, 1648, the outbreak showed such vigor and such alarming signs of spreading that the queen-regent released the arrested members of the Parliament of Paris; and they returned to the city the next day, amid the rejoicings of the populace. The affair appeared settled for the time, but the trouble had only really commenced, so that August 27, 1648, may be considered the date of the beginning of the four years' civil war known as the *War of the Fronde*.

Imprisoned Popular Leaders Released.

Civil Wars of the Fronde.

Order appeared to be restored outwardly; but the Parliament of Paris proved so insolent and unmanageable that the queen-regent retired from Paris with the boy king and Cardinal Mazarin, and went to Rueil. The intervention of the Prince of Condé brought about a reconciliation between the queen-regent and the Parliament of Paris in October, 1648, Anne of Austria granting the demands of the Parliament unconditionally. The queen-regent shed tears while signing this document, which she declared to be the suicide of the royal authority in France.

The Queen-regent's Submission to the Parliament of Paris.

Soon afterward the Prince of Condé became disgusted with the arrogance and insubordination of the Perisian populace, and offered his services to the court to reduce them to submission. He collected an army of eight thousand men near Paris; and the queen-regent, the boy king and the rest of the royal family, accompanied by Cardinal Mazarin, secretly retired from Paris to St. Germains, January 6, 1649. At the same time a royal order was issued commanding the

Condé's Support of the Queen-regent.

Fresh
Trouble
with the
Parlia-
ment of
Paris.

Parliament of Paris to transfer its sittings to Montargis. The Parliament refused to obey this command, at the same time denouncing Cardinal Mazarin as a public enemy and demanding his banishment from France.

The
Fronde
Sup-
ported by
Nobles
and
Marshal
Turenne.

Many of the leading nobles of France espoused the cause of the Fronde, which was likewise sustained by most of the provincial parliaments of the kingdom. There was fighting between the troops of the Prince of Condé and the forces of the Parliament of Paris near that city, but the cause of the Fronde gained strength daily. Marshal Turenne joined the Fronde, thus furnishing the popular party with a great military leader able to cope with the Prince of Condé on the royal side. The rebels were also promised assistance by the Archduke Leopold, the Governor of the Spanish Netherlands.

Treaty
of Rueil
and
Cardinal
Mazarin's
Triumph.

The court now desired peace, and Mazarin negotiated a treaty with a deputation from the Parliament of Paris headed by the president, Molé, at Rueil, March 11, 1649. The conditions of the treaty were not as favorable as the Parliament had desired, and that body at first refused to register it. The infuriated mob of Paris threatened to assassinate Molé and the other members of the Parliamentary deputation which had negotiated the treaty. By modifying some of the most objectionable provisions of the treaty, Cardinal Mazarin secured its acceptance by the Parliament of Paris. He likewise gained over the leading officers of Marshal Turenne's army, who deserted the marshal and espoused the cause of the court. Thereupon Marshal Turenne retired into Holland, thus leaving the Fronde without a competent military leader. The court returned to Paris in August, 1649.

Condé's
Arrest
and
Impris-
onment.

The Prince of Condé, who presumed upon the great services which he had rendered the state, now endeavored to secure control of the entire power of the government. His insolence and insubordination became so intolerable that the queen-regent and Cardinal Mazarin resolved to arrest him. The Prince of Condé, and also his brother, the Prince of Conti, and his brother-in-law, the Duke de Longueville, were arrested in the council chamber January 18, 1650, and were imprisoned in the Castle of Vincennes. The partisans of the Prince of Condé thereupon rose in arms against the court. The province of Burgundy, of which he was governor, openly revolted; and the Duchess de Longueville excited outbreaks in Normandy, of which province her husband was governor. The city of Bordeaux took up arms for the Prince of Condé, placing itself under the orders of the fearless and devoted Princess of Condé, the niece of Cardinal Richelieu.

Revolts
of His
Parti-
sans.

The
Revolts
Sup-
pressed.

The royal troops soon restored tranquillity in Normandy, and soon also reduced Burgundy to submission. Bordeaux was forced to surrender, after a siege, during which the Princess of Condé displayed

the greatest heroism. The princess and her partisans were permitted to retire peaceably to their estates, but the court resolutely refused her petition for the release of her husband and his fellow-captives. Marshal Turenne, who had been joined by a Spanish force, won some important successes in the province of Picardy; but he was thoroughly defeated near Rhetel by the Marshal du Plessis-Praslin, December 15, 1650, whereupon he fled into the province of Lorraine with a few followers.

**Flight of
Marshal
Turenne.**

The triumph of the court now appeared complete; but a reaction set in at Paris in favor of the imprisoned princes, and the leaders of the original Fronde headed a coalition against Cardinal Mazarin. The Parliament of Paris demanded the banishment of the cardinal-statesman, who became so terrified by the strength of the opposition that he fled secretly to Havre, February 8, 1651. The queen-regent prepared to follow him with the boy king; but she was prevented from doing so by the leaders of the Fronde, who insisted upon entering the palace to satisfy themselves of the presence of the court.

**New
Outbreak
in Paris
and
Flight of
Mazarin.**

In the meantime Cardinal Mazarin hastened to Havre and ordered the release of the captive princes, hoping to gain their support by his promptness; but they treated him coldly, and hastened to Paris after their liberation. The cardinal-statesman retired to Bruhl, in the territory of Cologne, whence he maintained a correspondence with the queen-regent, by which he continued to direct the affairs of state in France.

**Release
of Condé.**

**Mazarin's
Self
Exile.**

The Prince of Condé expected to find himself supreme in power when he returned to Paris; but he discovered that the queen-regent was still bitterly hostile to him, and that the leaders of the Fronde were disinclined to acknowledge his authority. The queen-regent finally brought matters to a crisis by accusing him before the Parliament of Paris of being guilty of a treasonable correspondence with the Spaniards. The Prince of Condé was so enraged by this accusation that he hastened to his province of Guienne, where he headed an open armed rebellion against the court.

**Condé's
New
Revolt
against
the
Queen-
regent.**

The queen-regent now declared her son of age, and accordingly young Louis XIV. took his place at the head of the army designed to take the field against the Prince of Condé. Cardinal Mazarin now boldly returned to Paris and rejoined the court; and Marshal Turenne, who had made his peace with the court, was assigned a command in the royal army.

**Young
King
Louis
XIV.
Mazarin's
Return.**

A desultory warfare followed without any decisive result for either party; and late in the spring of 1652 both armies—the royalists under Marshal Turenne, and the Frondeurs under the Prince of Condé—marched to Paris, which had not yet pronounced for either party. A

**Battle
of St
Antoine,
in Paris.**

**Conde's
Victory
over
Turenne.**

desperate battle was fought in the Faubourg St. Antoine, July 2, 1652, which was decided by Mademoiselle de Montpensier, the daughter of the Duke of Orleans, who caused the cannon of the Bastile to open fire upon the royal forces at the critical moment. Thereupon the citizens threw open the Porte St. Antoine, thus allowing the army of the Prince of Condé to enter the city. Marshal Turenne, who had felt confident of victory, then retreated to St. Denis.

**Fickle-
ness of
the Pa-
risians.**

The Prince of Condé was master of Paris for some time, and it appeared that the capital was about to fully espouse the cause of the Fronde; but the fickle Parisians suddenly changed sides and commenced treating with the youthful king. The Prince of Condé found his influence wholly destroyed by the trickery of the Cardinal de Retz; and he accordingly retired from Paris in utter disgust, in October, 1652, and joined the Spanish army under the Duke of Lorraine.

**Conde's
Flight.**

**Triumph
of the
Royal
Family.**

Louis XIV. and his mother, escorted by Marshal Turenne's army, entered Paris several days afterward, amid the rejoicings of the populace, and occupied the Louvre. The young king granted a general amnesty, from which the Prince of Condé, the Duke of Beaufort and several other leaders of the Fronde were especially excepted. The Prince of Condé was condemned to death as a traitor. The Duke of Orleans was ordered to retire to Blois, where he died in 1660. The Cardinal de Retz, who had been the most active man in France in fomenting the troubles, was imprisoned in Vincennes. He was afterward liberated from prison, but the rest of his life was passed in obscurity.

**Punish-
ment
of the
Fronde
Leaders.**

**Absolute
Royal
Power in
France.**

Thus ended the civil war of the Fronde, which had agitated France for four years, A. D. 1648-1652. It was the final struggle of the feudal nobility of France against absolute royal power. It had produced the greatest discomfort and even actual privation upon the royal family of France, and its effect was to confirm Louis XIV. in his ideas of despotic rule. The French nobles utterly failed in their efforts to limit the royal power, and the failure of the revolt enabled the young king to erect an absolute monarchy in France.

**Spanish
Successes.**

As the civil war of the Fronde was now ended, Cardinal Mazarin was able to direct his attention to the war with Spain. The Spaniards had profited greatly by the internal troubles of France; having recovered Dunkirk, Ypres and Gravelines in the Netherlands, Barcelona and Catalonia in Spain, and Casale in Northern Italy. The Spanish army on the frontier of Picardy was now under the command of the Prince of Condé, and that able general ravaged the French territory as far as the Somme during the summer of 1653. The French army under Marshal Turenne, though inferior in numbers, was able to hold his great adversary in check during the entire campaign.

**Spanish
Armies
Led by
Conde.**

In 1654 the Prince of Condé and the Archduke Leopo'd, at the head of twenty-five thousand Spanish troops, laid siege to Arras, the capital of the valuable province of Artois. Though the siege was conducted with great ability, Marshal Turenne forced the Prince of Condé to raise it and to retreat, leaving three thousand prisoners in the hands of the victorious French. The campaign of 1656 was remarkable for one of the Prince of Condé's most brilliant exploits. He attacked the French division under Marshal de la Ferté, which was separated from Turenne's main army, then engaged in the siege of Valenciennes; almost annihilated it, and took the marshal himself, with nearly all his officers and four thousand of his troops, prisoners.

Condé's
Failure
in the
Siege of
Arras.

Spanish
Victory
under
Coudé.

Cardinal Mazarin now induced the Commonwealth of Eng'and, then under the iron rule of its famous Lord Protector, Oliver Cromwell, to enter into an alliance with France against Spain. An English force of six thousand infantry under General Reynolds reinforced Marshal Turenne, who captured Montmedy, St. Venant and Mardyke in 1656; the last fortress being turned over to the English, by whom it was at once garrisoned.

England's
Alliance
with
France.

The allied French and English forces then laid siege to Dunkirk. A Spanish army under the Prince of Condé and Don John of Austria marched to the relief of the beleaguered fortress, but was defeated with heavy loss by Marshal Turenne in the battle of the Dunes, June 14, 1658. The immediate result of this French victory was the surrender of Dunkirk, which France ceded to England in accordance with the treaty of alliance. Marshal Turenne then proceeded to the reduction of Gravelines, and overran Flanders, advancing to within two days' march of Brussels.

Siege of
Dunkirk.

Battle
of the
Dunes
and
Fall of
Dunkirk.

Spain was so dispirited by her reverses that she now desired peace; her anxiety on the point being increased by the formation of a coalition between France and the German states to uphold the Treaty of Westphalia—a league which virtually isolated Spain from the rest of Europe.

Spain
and the
Franco-
German
Alliance.

Ever since the Peace of Westphalia the Emperor Ferdinand III., though nominally at peace with France, had been indirectly supplying the Spaniards with money and troops. Duke Charles of Lorraine, who had been driven from his duchy by the French, gladly enlisted German imperial troops under his own banners, and gained many advantages in Flanders and on the frontiers of Germany. To resist his ravages, the Elector-Palatine, the Archbishop-Electors of Cologne, Mayence and Treves and the Bishop of Münster formed a *Catholic League*, for the avowed purpose of enforcing the Treaty of Westphalia. A *Protestant League* was formed in Northern Germany with the same design. Intimidated by these coalitions, the Emperor Ferdinand III.

Previous
German
Aid to
Spain.

Catholic
and Prot-
estant
Leagues.

caused the Treaty of Westphalia to be confirmed by the Imperial Diet at Ratisbon in 1654.

Mazarin's
Futile
Opposi-
tion
to the
Election
of
Emperor
Leopold I.

Upon the death of Ferdinand III., in 1657, Cardinal Mazarin, with all the German princes who were in the interest of France, sought to prevent the election of another prince of the Austrian House of Hapsburg to the imperial throne of Germany. Mazarin would have gladly obtained the imperial crown for King Louis XIV.; but, as this was impossible, the French interest was exerted in behalf of the young Elector of Bavaria. The eldest son of Ferdinand III. had died before his father; and his second son, Leopold, had been educated only for the Church. But Leopold I. was elected Emperor of Germany about sixteen months after his father's death, in spite of the opposition of the French and their German allies, who, however, imposed the most rigorous conditions upon him concerning the war then in progress between France and Spain. Leopold I. solemnly pledged himself not to render any secret or open aid to the enemies of France, and not to interfere in Italy or in the Spanish Netherlands. The fulfillment of this treaty was insured by the consolidation of the Catholic and Protestant Leagues into the *Rhenish League*, under the protection of Louis XIV. The military forces of the Rhenish League were styled "The army of His Most Christian Majesty and of the Allied Electors and Princes."

The
Rhenish
League.

Proposed
Franco-
Spanish
Royal
Inter-
marriage.

In October, 1658, King Philip IV. of Spain commenced negotiations for peace with France by proposing that Louis XIV. should marry the Infanta Maria Theresa, the daughter of the Spanish king. Louis XIV. was deeply in love with the beautiful Maria Mancini, Cardinal Mazarin's niece; but Mazarin removed her from court and induced Louis XIV. to accept the Spanish king's offer.

Peace
of the
Pyrenees.

Cardinal Mazarin proceeded to the Pyrenees and met the Spanish Prime Minister, Don Luis de Haro, on the Isle of Pheasants, in the Bidassoa, a small stream which forms part of the boundary between France and Spain. Negotiations for peace and for the royal marriage were successfully consummated. Spain insisted positively that the Prince of Condé should receive a full and free pardon, be reconciled to the French court and be restored to all his honors and possessions. For a long time Mazarin refused this demand, but finally yielded when the Spanish Prime Minister threatened to form a principality for the Prince of Condé in Flanders. The Prince of Condé was pardoned for his treason and was restored to the government of Burgundy; and the Peace of the Pyrenees was signed November 7, 1659.

By the terms of the treaty the Spanish Infanta Maria Theresa was contracted in marriage to Louis XIV., and was promised a dowry of half a million crowns by her father, in consideration of her renunciation of all claims to the succession to the Spanish crown. All the children

of this marriage and their descendants were likewise solemnly excluded from the succession to the Spanish crown. Spain ceded to France the county of Artois and the towns of Gravelines, Landrecies, Thionville, Montmedy, Avesnes and a few others, as well as the counties of Roussillon and Cerdagne. Lorraine was nominally restored to its duke, but really remained annexed to the crown of France. As France had succeeded against the Austrian Hapsburgs in the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648, so she succeeded against the Spanish Hapsburgs in the Treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659, and secured for herself the proud position of being the leading power of Europe—a position which she held for a century and a half.

Louis XIV. repaired to St. Jean de Luz, in May, 1660; and, after a magnificent interview with King Philip IV. of Spain at the Isle of Pheasants, he married the Infanta Maria Theresa in the Church of St. Jean de Luz, June 9, 1660.

The two Treaties of Westphalia and the Pyrenees secured the supremacy of France in European diplomacy, and, in connection with the marriage of Louis XIV., placed Cardinal Mazarin at the height of his power. Like Richelieu, Mazarin did not long survive this realization of his hopes, but he died March 8, 1661, at the age of fifty-nine. Mazarin was one of the ablest and most unscrupulous of the statesmen who have swayed the destinies of France, and would have left a more honorable name to posterity had it not been for his inordinate and insatiable love of money. Like Richelieu, Mazarin patronized art, literature and education, and founded many colleges and academies in France.

Marriage of Louis XIV. with the Spanish Infanta Maria Theresa Negotiated.

France's Triumph.

Marriage Consummated.

France's Supremacy in Europe.

Death of Mazarin.

His Character.

SECTION III.—LOUIS XIV. AND HIS WAR WITH SPAIN (A. D. 1661–1638).

THE next day after Cardinal Mazarin's death, King Louis XIV., whose ambition was beginning to make him impatient of restraint, made this important announcement to his Council: "For the future I shall be my own Prime Minister." He was well qualified for the task which he assumed. Mazarin was in the habit of saying of the young king: "There is enough in him to make four kings and one honest man."

Louis XIV. was a man of good judgment, of a firm, determined will, of great sagacity and penetration, of the most indomitable energy and perseverance. He possessed great powers of application, and throughout his reign he was occupied eight hours daily with the cares of state. He had imbibed the most exalted ideas of his "divine right" as a king, and considered himself the absolute master of the lives, liberties and

Louis XIV. Assumes the Government.

His Abilities and His Ideas of Kingly Divine Right.

property of his subjects, which he became in reality. Thus believing that his royal authority was conferred upon him directly from Heaven, Louis XIV. regarded himself as the author and the source, as well as the dispenser, of all law and justice in his kingdom. He intended that his will should be the law of France, and considered himself responsible only to God for his conduct. The essence of his theory of government was expressed in his celebrated saying: "I am the state." He faithfully adhered to his principles throughout his reign, and succeeded in making France one of the most perfect examples of an absolute and irresponsible despotism in all history.

**His
Long and
Brilliant
Reign.**

**His
Absolute
Personal
Rule.**

The reign of Louis XIV. lasted seventy-two years, A. D. 1643–1715; the first eighteen of which embraced the regency of his mother, Anne of Austria, when the government was administered by Cardinal Mazarin. After taking the government into his own hands and appointing no Prime Minister, Louis XIV. ruled in the most absolute and despotic manner for fifty-four years, A. D. 1661–1715; his Ministers being but passive instruments for the execution of his will. Louis XIV. was the greatest monarch of the seventeenth century and was the greatest of French kings. His reign was one of the most brilliant in French history; and his great generals—Condé, Turenne and Luxembourg—surpassed the generals of all other countries.

**Dishon-
esty and
Imprison-
ment of
Fouquet.**

The disordered exchequer of France soon felt the master-hand of the able but despotic king. The brilliant but dishonest Finance Minister, Nicholas Fouquet, who had enormously enriched himself by his embezzlements and his falsification of the public accounts, was arrested, tried and convicted in September, 1661, and imprisoned for life in the Bastille. Louis XIV. then appointed the celebrated Jean Baptiste Colbert, a man of stainless integrity and of marked ability as a financier, in Fouquet's place.

Colbert.

**Colbert's
Ability as
Finance
Minister.**

Colbert found the public finances in about as wretched a condition as the Duke of Sully had found them during the reign of Henry IV., and he at once set to work with energy and skill to reform them. In the course of a few years he placed the national finances on a secure and stable footing, and raised the gross income of the state to over one hundred million francs, of which over ninety millions reached the national treasury. He introduced a rigid economy into the administration of his departments, thus saving vast sums for the pleasure-loving and war-loving king to squander. Colbert was able to provide funds for the most costly wars and for the king's extravagance, without increasing the rate of taxation.

**Material
Prosper-
ity of
France
under
Colbert.**

Besides being Minister of Finance, Colbert had charge of the departments of commerce, agriculture and public works. He wisely fostered every species of industry which could contribute to the wealth



LOUIS XIV AND MOLIERE

From the Painting by J. L. Gerôme

of France, thus making the royal demands easily to be borne; and throughout this brilliant reign France was as much celebrated for her manufactures as for the feats of her arms.

The Minister of War, Louvois, also possessed talents necessary for the direction of great exploits. The great engineer, Vauban, strengthened the fortresses on the French frontiers. Magnificent works—such as the Palace of Versailles, the Louvre, the Hotel des Invalides and the Canal of Languedoc—are standing monuments of the glory of this reign. French fashions, tastes, language, habits, and modes of thought began to be adopted by the cultured and higher circles of Europe. Louis XIV. was a great patron of literature and the arts; and the period of his reign—known as the *Augustan Age of French Literature*—was adorned by the genius of the dramatists Corneille, Moliere and Racine, the poet Boileau, the fabulist La Fontaine, and the divines Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Massillon, Bayle and Fenelon.

Louis XIV. soon gave a characteristic proof of his determination to assert and maintain his royal dignity. The Spanish ambassador at London having offended him by taking precedence of the French ambassador, Louis XIV. demanded satisfaction of King Philip IV. of Spain, threatening war in case of the Spanish king's refusal to make amends for the affront of his ambassador. Philip IV. was obliged to make a most humble apology and to send to the French court a special envoy, who promised, in the presence of the entire diplomatic body and in the name of his sovereign, never again to give a similar cause of complaint by infringing the claims of His Most Christian Majesty, the King of France.

During the same year Louis XIV. inflicted a similar humiliation upon His Holiness, Pope Alexander VII. Some of the Pope's Corsican guard having insulted the French ambassador at Rome, the Pope was obliged to send messengers to France to beg the great king's pardon in the most humble terms; to disband his Corsican guard, and to erect an obelisk at Rome bearing an inscription relating the offense and the expiation therefor, as a memorial and a warning for the future.

Louis XIV. began the active part of his reign with designs upon the integrity of the Spanish dominions, by annexing the Spanish-Netherlands and Franche-Comté to the crown of France; and every act of the early years of his reign was directed to the consummation of this result. He encouraged the Portuguese, who had achieved their independence of Spain; and he brought about the alliance of Portugal with England by the marriage of Charles II. of England with the Princess Catharine of Braganza, the daughter of King Alfonso VI. of Portugal. Louis XIV. secured the good will of Charles II. of England by purchasing Dunkirk from him by the payment of five million livres,

Louvois
as War
Minister.

Great
Public
Works.

French
Social
Influence.
Augustan
Age of
French
Litera-
ture.

Louis
XIV.
Extorts
an
Humble
Apology
from
Philip
IV. of
Spain.

He Also
Forces an
Humble
Apology
from
Pope
Alexander
VII.

His
Aggres-
sive
Designs
against
Spain.

His
Alliance
with
England
and the
Dutch
Republic.

in November, 1662. Louis XIV. also contracted an offensive and defensive alliance with the Dutch Republic, thus preventing Holland from espousing the cause of Spain against him.

His Alliance with the Dutch Republic in Her War with England.

The operations of Louis XIV. were delayed by a war between his English and Dutch allies, which broke out in 1664. Holland appealed to the French king as her ally for aid against England. The King of France was reluctant to go to war with the King of England, and sought to mediate between the belligerent powers. When Louis XIV. found it impossible to accomplish anything in the way of mediation he sent six thousand French troops to assist the Dutch, and declared war against England in January, 1666, as noticed in the preceding chapter. The Bishop of Münster, England's subsidized German ally, ravaged Holland on the east, until the French king and the German allies of the Dutch Republic forced him to lay down his arms. The war was mainly fought at sea between the English and Dutch fleets, and was ended by the Peace of Breda, July 31, 1667, England restoring to France all the places in North America and the West Indies which she had wrested from her during the struggle.

Peace of Breda.

Claim of Louis XIV. to Franche-Comté and the Spanish Netherlands.

Before the close of the war just mentioned, Louis XIV. had astonished all Europe by a sudden march into the Spanish Netherlands. King Philip IV. of Spain had died in September, 1665, and had been succeeded on the Spanish throne by his only son, Charles II., the issue of a second marriage. Louis XIV. at once claimed the whole Spanish Netherlands and Franche-Comté, on the plea that his wife, Maria Theresa, who was the child of the first marriage of Philip IV. of Spain, had a superior claim to that of Charles II. of Spain, who was the issue of his father's second marriage.

Spain's Resistance and Louis's Assertion.

The Spanish court, under the regency of the widow of Philip IV., the mother of Charles II., refused to acknowledge the French king's claim, and reminded Louis XIV. of his wife's relinquishment of all her pretensions to the Spanish dominions at the time of her marriage. Louis XIV. replied that this relinquishment on his wife's part was conditional upon her dowry, and that, as this dowry had never been paid, her surrender of her claims was null and void.

French Conquest of the Spanish Netherlands.

The French king cut short the argument by marching his army under Marshal Turenne into the Spanish Netherlands, May 24, 1667. This French army overran the province of Flanders with very little opposition. Most of the towns submitted to the invaders upon the first demand, though Lille only surrendered August 28, 1667. Louis XIV. made a sudden pause in his career of conquest by concluding a truce of three months with the Spaniards, and returned to Paris.

The ambitious designs and the rapid success of the King of France excited alarm throughout all Europe; and England and Holland,

after ending their own war with each other, resolved to put an end to his territorial aggrandizement. Accordingly, a treaty known as the *Triple Alliance* was signed at The Hague between England, Holland and Sweden, January 23, 1668. These three Protestant powers agreed to mediate a peace between Roman Catholic France and Roman Catholic Spain, and to force a settlement between them by threatening war in case of their refusal. They engaged to induce Spain to cede all the places which the French had already conquered, on condition that Louis XIV. should promise to relinquish his claim upon the Spanish dominions in right of his wife.

Triple Alliance of England, Holland and Sweden.

Before Louis XIV. had been officially informed of the conclusion of the Triple Alliance he had sent an army of twenty thousand men under the Prince of Condé into Franche-Comté, and this French army overran that Spanish province in fifteen days. Well satisfied with this brilliant military exploit of the Prince of Condé, Louis XIV. consented to the Peace of Aix la Chapelle, which was signed May 2, 1668; Louis XIV. retaining all his conquests in the Spanish Netherlands, but restoring Franche-Comté after all its fortresses had been dismantled by the French troops; while the three powers which had concluded the Triple Alliance, along with the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and the German princes, guaranteed the integrity of the remainder of the Spanish dominions.

French Conquest of Franche-Comté.

Peace of Aix la Chapelle.

SECTION IV.—WAR OF LOUIS XIV. WITH HOLLAND AND HER ALLIES (A. D. 1672-1679).

THOUGH the Triple Alliance ended one war, it led to another of far greater dimensions. The Dutch Republic was now at the height of her power and glory; being the protectress of the power which by her heroic struggle for independence she had contributed most to humble, while being also the successful rival of England in the dominion of the seas, as well as the deliverer of Denmark from the ambitious grasp of Sweden. Holland was thus able to interpose a formidable barrier to the ambitious career of Louis XIV. himself; but the "Grand Monarch" was resolved upon revenge upon the powerful little republic which had originated that Triple Alliance which had so suddenly cut short his conquest of the entire Spanish dominion in the Netherlands. As the champion of absolute royal power, Louis XIV. cherished a special hatred toward the Dutch Republic because she afforded a generous asylum to all exiles from civil or religious tyranny.

Grievances of Louis XIV. against the Dutch Republic.

Louis's Ministers, Louvois and Colbert, encouraged their king's design by telling him that he could never reduce the Spanish Netherlands

**His
Secret
Treaty
with
Charles
II. of
England.**

until he had humbled and subdued Holland. He accordingly proceeded to break up the Triple Alliance, and succeeded in buying off the unprincipled Charles II. of England, who agreed to desert his allies in consideration of an annual subsidy of three million francs, the possession of the island of Walcheren and two fortresses on the Scheldt in case of the conquest of Holland. The unscrupulous King of England also agreed to aid the King of France with a force of six thousand men and fifty ships of war, and to become a Roman Catholic and to do all in his power to restore that faith as the state religion of England; Louis XIV. promising to aid him with French troops and French money.

**German
Allies
and
Enemies
of Louis
XIV.**

By bribery, Louis XIV. also secured the neutrality of Sweden and the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, and the active alliance of the Archbishop-Elector of Cologne and the Bishop of Münster. But Frederick William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, was the faithful ally of Holland; while the Archbishop-Electors of Mayence and Treves, the Elector of Saxony and the Margrave of Baireuth entered into a league to oppose the ambitious designs of the French king and to defend the independence of the German Empire.

**Alliance
of Spain
with the
Dutch
Republic.**

Holland stood almost alone against the rest of Christendom; but in December, 1671, Spain, after being delivered from the corrupt and incompetent Jesuit Prime Minister, Niethard, and anxious to check the alarming increase of the French power, concluded an alliance with the Dutch Republic, which had reduced her to such deplorable weakness, but which had so recently saved her from the ambitious grasp of the King of France. William, Prince of Orange, then twenty-one years of age, was created Captain-General of the forces of the Dutch Republic for the first campaign.

**France
and
England
at War
with the
Dutch
Republic.**

France and England declared war against Holland at very nearly the same time in the spring of 1672, and equally without honorable cause. In April of that year Louis XIV., with an army of two hundred thousand men, directed by the great genius of the Prince of Condé and Marshal Turenne, crossed the Lower Rhine at three points, and in the course of a few weeks overran the territories of the Dutch Republic, occupying the provinces of Guelders, Utrecht and Overysse and part of the province of Holland. At the head of the main division, the French king was attended by Louvois, his Minister of War, and by Vauban, his famous military engineer. For the first time the bayonet, so terrible a weapon in French hands, and named from the city of Bayonne, where it was first made, was affixed to the end of the musket.

**French
Invasion
of
Holland.**

**Dutch
Alarm.**

The Dutch, who could at most raise an army of only thirty thousand men, were for the moment paralyzed with dismay at this gigantic invasion. So utterly helpless were they rendered by terror that it was

said that "every man seemed to have received sentence of death." In the forlorn hope of securing what yet remained of the Dutch Republic, the Grand Pensionary, or Prime Minister of Holland, offered the most abject terms of peace. But Louvois induced his king to reject these terms; and so haughty and insulting was the reply of Louis XIV. that it aroused a storm of indignation against the Grand Pensionary, John De Witt, and his brother, the Admiral Cornelius De Witt, that both were assassinated by a furious mob in the streets of the Dutch capital, thus bringing about a revolution which resulted in elevating the young Prince William of Orange to the head of the Dutch Republic with the offices of Stadtholder, Captain-General and Admiral for life with dictatorial powers.

Assassination of the De Witts.

William of Orange.

Prince William of Orange proceeded vigorously to arouse his countrymen to a more determined spirit of resistance. He proposed to the States-General that, rather than yield to the insolent demands of the French king, the entire Dutch nation—men, women and children—should abandon their country, embark on board their fleet, with such movable property as they could take with them, and sail to their possessions in the East Indies, where they should seek new homes; so that the Dutch Republic thenceforth would have existed in tropical regions on the other side of the globe.

His Scheme of Migration to the East Indies.

But, through the genius and determination of Prince William of Orange, the tide soon turned in favor of the Dutch, whose navy was able to hold its own in struggles with the united fleets of France and England. The advance of the French army in the Dutch territories was arrested by opening the dykes around Amsterdam by the orders of William of Orange, thus laying the country under water and enabling the Dutch fleet to approach the capital and to assist in its defense. Thus the Dutch gained valuable time to prepare for defense against the invaders.

Amsterdam Saved by Opening the Dykes.

The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany offered to aid the imperilled Republic on certain conditions, notwithstanding his promised neutrality; and Frederick William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, also entered into an alliance with the Dutch. A German imperial army of forty thousand men under the Italian general Montecuculi marched to the Rhine; but the masterly movements of the French under Marshal Turenne prevented this imperial army from effecting a junction with the Dutch forces under the Prince of Orange. The Great Elector of Brandenburg lost patience and retreated to his own dominions, pursued by Marshal Turenne as far as the Elbe. The diversion afforded the Dutch some relief, though it did no more for them.

Emperor Leopold I and the Great Elector of Brandenburg Come to Holland's Rescue.

The freezing of the canals early in 1673 enabled a French army of thirty thousand men under the Duke of Luxemburg to invade Holland,

French
Opera-
tions in
Holland
and in
Alsace.

but a sudden thaw forced this army to retreat without accomplishing anything. The French took Maestricht and Treves in 1673; and during the same year Louis XIV. in person occupied the ten imperial cities of Alsace, the prefecture of which had been granted to him by the Peace of Westphalia, and reduced them to absolute subjection, compelling them to renounce the privileges guaranteed to them by that treaty.

Allied
Successes
and
French
Evacua-
tion of
Holland.

A closer alliance between the Dutch Republic, the German Empire and Spain now threatened France with a general European war. The Prince of Orange captured Naarden after a siege of twelve days, and effected a junction with the German imperial army under Montecuculi, notwithstanding Marshal Turenne's effort to prevent it. The capture of Bonn by the allies, after a short siege, gave them command of the Rhine, and forced the French to evacuate Holland early in 1674, thus rescuing the Dutch Republic from the ambition of the "Grand Monarch," who, of all his conquests, retained only Grave and Maestricht.

Peace of
West-
minster
between
England
and
Holland.

For some time the English people and Parliament had been anxious to put an end to the degrading alliance which King Charles II. had entered into with Louis XIV., and they finally forced their king to make peace with the Dutch Republic. By the Peace of Westminster, in February, 1674, England and Holland restored the conquests which they had made from each other during the war. Sweden now remained as the only ally of the King of France.

French
Conquest
of
Franche-
Comte.

The seat of war was now entirely changed. In May, 1674, Louis XIV. invaded Franche-Comté, and reconquered that Spanish province by the 1st of July. This time he intended to hold on to his conquests in that region.

First
French
Desola-
tion
of the
Palat-
inate.

With an inferior French force, Marshal Turenne drove the German imperial army from Alsace, and ravaged the Palatinate of the Rhine with fire and sword. At one time the Elector-Palatine beheld from his castle windows at Mannheim two cities and twenty-five villages on fire. He was so incensed at the sight that he challenged Marshal Turenne to fight a duel, but the marshal declined the challenge by his king's command. Later in the year 1674 the imperialists gained some advantages in Alsace, but Marshal Turenne again drove them across the Rhine and secured Alsace permanently for France. The English colonel, John Churchill—afterward so famous as the Duke of Marlborough—served under Marshal Turenne in this campaign.

French
Conquest
of Alsace.

Battle of
Seneffe.

In Flanders the French under the Prince of Condé fought a severe but indecisive battle with the Prince of Orange at Seneffe, August 11, 1674; but the campaign in that quarter closed to the general advantage of the allies.

In 1675 Louis XIV. again crossed the Rhine with a powerful army under Marshal Turenne; but that great French general was killed by a cannon-ball at Salzbach, July 27, 1675, while reconnoitering for a battle which was never to take place. After a bloody battle at Altenheim, the French army was driven back across the Rhine. Turenne's remains were honored with a magnificent funeral, and were buried in the Abbey at St. Denis amid those of the Kings of France.

The Prince of Condé succeeded to Marshal Turenne's command, as the only man in France capable of executing the dead hero's plans with credit. The Prince of Condé found that the German imperial army under Montecuculi had crossed the Rhine at Strassburg and were besieging Haguenau. He compelled them to raise the siege and arrested their progress, but he followed Turenne's tactics by refusing to be drawn into a general engagement. The imperialists under Montecuculi finally evacuated Alsace and retired into winter-quarters at Spires. The Prince of Condé and Montecuculi, enfeebled by age and disease, resigned their respective commands, and both retired to private life.

In 1676 the war was chiefly fought at sea; and the French fleet under Admiral Duquesne defeated the Dutch fleet in the Mediterranean in three naval battles off the coast of Sicily, in the second of which the heroic Dutch Admiral De Ruyter was mortally wounded. He had risen from the humble condition of a cabin boy to be one of the greatest admirals in Europe. The ungrateful and bigoted French king reproached the heroic Duquesne for being a Protestant. The blunt admiral replied: "When I fought for Your Majesty I never thought of what might be your religion." His son, being driven in exile for being a Huguenot, carried his father's bones with him, as he was resolved not to leave them in an ungrateful country.

In 1677 the French army under the Duke of Luxemburg laid siege to Valenciennes, and the town was speedily taken through the skillful operations of the great engineer Vauban. The towns of Cambray and St. Omer were soon afterward taken also; and the Duke of Luxemburg defeated Prince William of Orange, who was marching to the relief of St. Omer, at Cassel, April 11, 1677. On the Rhine during the same year the French under Marshal de Créquy defeated the German imperial troops under the Duke of Lorraine at Kochersberg, near Strassburg, and took the city of Freiburg, November 16, 1677.

Prince William of Orange, the Stadtholder of the Dutch Republic, was the consistent, lifelong opponent of Louis XIV.; and their relative positions in the European States-System were almost the same as those of Queen Elizabeth of England and King Philip II. of Spain a century before. The English Parliament was ardently in favor of the Prince of Orange; but King Charles II. had just sold himself afresh to

**Death of
Marshal
Turenne.**

**Battle of
Alten-
heim.**

**German
Imperial
Invasion
of Alsace
and
Retreat.**

**Retire-
ment of
Conde
and
Monte-
cuculi.**

**Admiral
Du-
quesne's
Three
Victories
over the
Dutch
Fleet.**

**His
King's
Ingrati-
tude.**

**The
Duke of
Luxem-
burg's
Victories.**

**French
Victories
on the
Rhine.**

**William
of Orange
and Louis
XIV.**

England's
Alliance
with the
Dutch
Republic.

the King of France for a pension of two hundred thousand livres, and promised not to enter into any alliance without that king's consent. Nevertheless, the King of England was forced, by the voice of his Parliament and people, to declare war against France and to confirm his alliance with Holland by the marriage of his niece Mary, daughter of his brother James, Duke of York, with William of Orange. This marriage took place October 23, 1677, William having gone to England to secure the alliance of that country; and an offensive and defensive alliance was concluded between England and Holland in December of the same year, 1677.

England and Holland agreed to force Louis XIV. to accept terms of peace. While the negotiations which had been going on at Nimeguen, in Holland, since 1675 were still in progress the French king seized the cities of Ghent and Ypres, thus gaining the power to dictate his own terms. At the same time the Prince of Orange obtained conclusive evidence that King Charles II. of England was still in secret alliance with the King of France. Thereupon the Dutch envoys resolved to accept the terms of peace offered by Louis XIV. and to conclude a separate treaty with him regardless of their allies, although these allies had come to Holland's rescue in her distress.

Peace of
Nime-
guen.

Spain's
Cessions
to France.

Accordingly the Peace of Nimeguen was concluded between France and Holland, August 14, 1678; France retaining the Dutch settlements in Senegal, in Africa, and Guiana, in South America, which had been conquered by her arms during the war. Spain signed the treaty September 17, 1678; ceding to France the province of Franche-Comté and that part of Flanders afterward known as French Flanders, containing eleven towns, among which were the four fortresses of Valenciennes, Cambray, Ypres and St. Omer; so that Spain was the chief loser by the war. The Emperor Leopold I. signed the treaty February 5, 1679, thus restoring peace between France and the German Empire and finally ending this bloody war.

Louis
XIV. and
Lorraine.

Louis XIV. offered to restore Lorraine to its duke only on condition of granting to the French king four military roads, each half a league wide, from France into Germany; but the duke chose voluntary exile for life from his hereditary estates in preference to such humiliating terms.

Power
and
Glory of
Louis
XIV.

The Peace of Nimeguen was the culminating point of the power and glory of Louis XIV. The citizens of Paris solemnly conferred upon him the title of *the Great*, and erected the triumphal arches of the Porte St. Martin and the Porte St. Denis in his honor. He was the most powerful monarch in Europe; and he was very much elated by his triumphs, imagining that they were due to his merits. He considered himself the master of Europe as well as of France.

In September, 1681, Louis XIV. seized the imperial free city of Strassburg and annexed it to the French crown; and the engineering skill of Vauban soon made it an impregnable fortress. So important was this acquisition considered as a bulwark of France on her eastern frontier that a medal was struck to commemorate the completion of the work, bearing the inscription: "Clausæ Germaniæ Gallia." Strassburg remained in the possession of France until 1870, when it was reconquered by Germany.

Seizure of Strassburg by Louis XIV.

Encouraged by his success, Louis XIV. continued his aggressions upon Germany and also upon Spain. Twenty other towns were wrested from the neighboring German princes; and regular *Courts of Reunion* were instituted in France to ascertain what territories had previously been dependent upon the annexed dominions. The French king's aggressions excited the most intense indignation in Germany, which was increased by his intrigues to secure a promise of the imperial crown at the next election.

His Seizure of Twenty Other German Towns.

Under the influence of Prince William of Orange, Holland, Sweden, Spain and the German Empire jointly protested against the siege of Luxemburg by the French army, and insisted upon a faithful execution of the Treaties of Westphalia and Nimeguen. This powerful coalition had the effect of inducing Louis XIV. to desist from his aggressions, and he found a pretext for his apparent moderation in the siege of Vienna by the Turks in 1683. He declared that he would not pursue his personal designs so long as Christendom was menaced by the forces of Islam, but he secretly encouraged the Sultan in his attacks on the territories of the Austrian House of Hapsburg.

Coalition against Louis XIV.

His Instigation of the Turkish Siege of Vienna.

The least insult offered to French ambassadors, or neglect of etiquette, was certain to bring down signal vengeance upon the party so offending. In 1682 and 1683 a French fleet bombarded Algiers—a more justifiable action—and forced the pirates to beg for mercy and to liberate their French and other Christian captives. In 1684 Genoa was also bombarded by the French navy for refusing to permit Louis XIV. to establish a depot within its territory.

French Naval Bombardments of Algiers and Genoa.

After the retreat of the Turks from Vienna in 1683, Louis XIV. marched his troops into the Spanish Netherlands and siezed Courtray and Dixmude. In the spring and summer of 1684 the French army took Oudenarde and Luxemburg, dismantled Treves and menaced Mons and Brussels. On August 15, 1684, France and Holland concluded a truce for twenty years, and the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and King Charles II. of Spain acceded to this truce in the course of a few weeks. By this truce Louis XIV. was permitted to retain the free city of Strassburg, the province of Luxemburg and all the towns which he had seized before August, 1681, but was forbidden

Seizure of Towns in the Spanish Netherlands by Louis XIV.

Truce Treaty.

to advance any additional claim upon the territories of the German Empire.

**Temporary
Truce.**

This was merely a temporary settlement, as the powers which the French king had despoiled of their territories were thoroughly resolved to make another effort to crush him. Though he was at the zenith of his power and greatness, he had incurred the enmity of all Europe, and had laid the foundation for the numberless troubles and mortifications which clouded his later years.

SECTION V.—LOUIS XIV. AND PERSECUTION OF THE HUGUENOTS (A. D. 1683–1685).

**Louis
XIV. and
His Mis-
tresses.**

DURING the earlier years of his reign Louis XIV. had abandoned himself to the unrestrained indulgence of his licentious passions. He openly insulted his queen by retaining mistress after mistress at his court, and bestowing upon these dissolute women his affections for the time. His first mistress was the beautiful and unfortunate Louise de la Vallière, who bore him two children, after which she retired to a convent, heart-broken and penitent, in 1674. The king's next mistress was the Marchioness de Montespan, who held her place in the king's affections for many years, bearing him eight children, all of whom he legitimated.

**Madame
de Main-
tenon.**

Madame de Montespan selected Françoise D'Aubigné, the widow of the comic poet Scarron, as governess for her children. Françoise D'Aubigné was handsome and highly accomplished, attractive in manner and endowed with great tact. Louis XIV. frequently saw her while she was in charge of his children, and she acquired over him an influence which she retained during the rest of his life. She afterward became Madame de Maintenon, and acted a conspicuous part in the latter part of this king's reign, as we shall presently see. She had many good qualities, but was a relentless bigot in religious matters, and this quality made her the evil genius of France.

**Her
Influence
over
Louis
XIV.**

Madame de Maintenon professed to be shocked by the king's evil ways, and proceeded to reform him. Louis XIV. was as superstitious as he was licentious, and as cruel as he was superstitious. Madame de Maintenon made use of these traits in the king's character to persuade him that the best atonement he could make for his evil life was to destroy heresy in his kingdom.

**The
Hugue-
nots and
Their
Industry.**

At this time France contained about a million Huguenots, who had become wealthy and prosperous under the wise protection of the Edict of Nantes. They were sober, earnest and faithful, and had almost monopolized the productive industry of France. Their silks, paper,

velvet and other manufactured articles were the boast of the kingdom; and their efforts seemed about to make France the leading manufacturing country of the world. They were skilled farmers and vine-dressers, and wherever the land showed signs of the most skillful culture the owner was certain to be a Huguenot.

The Huguenots were as celebrated for their integrity as for their industry. A Huguenot's word was as good as his bond, and to be "honest as a Huguenot" became a proverb. This characteristic of integrity—an essential in a merchant who deals with foreigners whom he never sees—was so conspicuous in the business transactions of the Huguenots that they got the foreign trade of France almost exclusively into their hands. The English and the Dutch were always more willing to begin a correspondence with the Huguenot than with the Roman Catholic merchants. Thus the foreign business of France came almost wholly into the hands of Huguenot merchants at Bordeaux, at Rouen, at Caen, at Metz, at Nismes and at the other great centers of commerce in France. Colbert had fostered the industries of the Huguenots, and had encouraged them to prosecute those industries in every possible quarter.

**Their
Commer-
cial
Enter-
prise.**

The Jesuits and the Roman Catholic Church had always regarded the tolerance shown to the Huguenots with great disfavor, and the Jesuits had succeeded to some extent in renewing the persecutions of the sixteenth century. The Huguenots had been treated with great rigor for twenty years, and the king had been induced to look upon them with open hostility, in spite of their great usefulness to the state. The Jesuits now made use of the king's infatuation for Madame de Maintenon, and obtained her aid by offering to favor the scheme upon which her heart had been set.

**Jesuit
Instiga-
tion of
Religious
Persecu-
tion.**

Maria Theresa, the Spanish wife of Louis XIV., died in 1683; and Madame de Maintenon resolved to marry the king. She carefully got him under her influence, and accordingly proceeded to persuade him that by extirpating heresy in his kingdom he could render adequate satisfaction to Heaven for his past sins. The ill health of her royal paramour materially aided her, and the king during his fits of illness was anxious to quiet the remorse of conscience from which he suffered because of the past sins of his dissolute life. Penance must be performed, but not by himself. Says Sismondi: "Those who boasted of having converted him had never represented to him more than two duties—that of renouncing his incontinence, and that of extirpating heresy in his dominions."

**Louis
XIV.
Insti-
gated to
Persecu-
tion by
Madame
de Main-
tenon.**

The king's confessor, the Jesuit Père la Chaise, well seconded Madame de Maintenon's efforts with the king. Under their influence, Louis XIV. inflicted upon his Huguenot subjects all the horrors that

Dreadful
Persecu-
tion
of the
Hugue-
nots.

bigotry could devise or that a fiendish cruelty could execute. In the year of Colbert's death, 1683, the military executions commenced. Life was rendered intolerable to the Huguenots. Every avocation was closed against them, and they were given the alternative of abjuring their religion or starving. Their churches were closed or destroyed. Their pastors were forbidden to preach. Entire congregations of Huguenots were massacred by the royal dragoons. Cruelty had full sway from Grenoble to Bordeaux. In the Viverrais and the Cevennes the unfortunate Protestants were put to the sword, multitudes of them being brutally massacred.

The
Dragon-
nades.

It was generally understood that a Huguenot was outside the protection of the laws, and that any one was at perfect liberty to maltreat him at pleasure. Children were torn from their parents that they might be educated in the Roman Catholic faith. The fiercest and most brutal of the royal soldiery were let loose upon the defenseless Huguenot communities. The horrors of the *Dragonnades*, as these persecutions were called, are indescribable. Those who refused to abjure Protestantism were put to death or imprisoned. Many yielded and were "converted." In September, 1685, Louvois, the Minister of War, wrote to King Louis XIV.: "Sixty thousand conversions have been made in the district of Bordeaux, and twenty thousand in that of Montauban. So rapid is the progress that before the end of the month ten thousand Protestants will not be left in the district of Bordeaux, where there were one hundred and fifty thousand on the fifteenth of last month."

Smiles's
State-
ment.

Says Smiles: "The farce of Louis's conversion went on. In August, 1684, Madame de Maintenon wrote thus, 'The king is prepared to do everything that shall be judged useful for the welfare of religion. This undertaking will cover him with glory before God and man.' The *Dragonnades* were then in full career throughout the southern provinces, and a long wail of anguish was rising from the persecuted all over France. In 1685 the king's sufferings increased, and his conversion became imminent. His miserable body was beginning to decay, but he was willing to make a sacrifice to God of what the devil had left of it."

Marriage
of Louis
XIV.
with
Madame
de Main-
tenon.

The Jesuits now made an agreement with Madame de Maintenon to advise King Louis XIV. to marry her on condition that she should induce him to revoke the Edict of Nantes. The infamous bargain was carried out. Père la Chaise counseled a secret marriage, and the ceremony was performed at Versailles by the Archbishop of Paris in the presence of the confessor and two other witnesses. As the marriage was never acknowledged, Madame de Maintenon's position at court remained anomalous and equivocal; but she exercised a supreme influence

over her royal husband, and immediately after her marriage she induced him to revoke the Edict of Nantes.

The Revocation of the Edict of Nantes occurred October 17, 1685, thus depriving the Huguenots of all the privileges which Henry IV. and Louis XIII. had granted them. The exercise of the Protestant religion was absolutely prohibited throughout France, except in Alsace. The Huguenot churches were ordered to be destroyed, and their pastors were commanded to leave the kingdom within fifteen days. The Huguenots themselves were forbidden to leave France on penalty of confiscation of their property and penal servitude in the galleys. They were required to embrace the Roman Catholic religion and to have their children educated in that faith.

Revoca-
tion
of the
Edict of
Nantes.

The Roman Catholic world greeted the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes with rejoicings, but the cruel measure inflicted a death-blow upon the prosperity of France. The fierce French soldiery and thousands of foreign mercenaries were let loose upon the Huguenots throughout France, and the most shocking atrocities were perpetrated. These brutal dragoons invaded every Huguenot dwelling, from the herdsman's hut to the noble's castle, and their occupants were subjected to the greatest outrages. Men and women were murdered at their own firesides. Little children were torn from the arms of their parents and butchered in their presence. Wives and maidens were outraged amid the ruins of their own homes.

Suffer-
ings and
Massa-
cres of
Hugue-
nots.

The Huguenots were forbidden to bury their dead or to comfort their dying. The bodies of those who died without the last offices of the Roman Catholic Church were removed from their dwellings by the public hangman, and cast into the common sewer. Those who refused the viaticum when sick were punished, in case of recovery, with the galleys or imprisonment for life and the confiscation of all their property.

Hugue-
nots
Denied
Religious
Ministra-
tion and
Sepul-
ture.

So severe was the persecution that hundreds and thousands of Huguenots fled from France, in spite of the cruel laws against emigration. Thousands who attempted to escape were shot down by the soldiers, and thousands of others were captured and sent to the galleys. The purest and gentlest men were sent there and chained beside the vilest criminals. Each galley had a Jesuit chaplain, who constantly offered pardon to each captive Huguenot if he would renounce the Protestant religion for the Roman Catholic faith. Notwithstanding the sufferings of the captives, most of them remained true to their religious convictions.

Whole-
sale
Exodus
of Hugue-
nots.

Altogether about two hundred thousand Huguenots fled from their native land, and many thousands were massacred in the Dragonnades. Among the exiles were some of the noblest names of France. Marshal

Distin-
guished
Exiles.

Schomberg, one of the talented commanders of Louis XIV., escaped into Holland and entered the service of Prince William of Orange. Among the exiles were many distinguished literary men; such as Basnage, Bayle, Jurieu, Lenfant, Beausobre, Saurin, Rapin and others. Most of the refugees belonged to the industrial, commercial and manufacturing classes.

Ruin of
French
Industry.

This Huguenot exodus well-nigh destroyed the industry of France. Lyons, Tours and Nantes were ruined. Lyons did not recover its former prosperity for a century. Nantes has not yet recovered from the losses which the bigotry of Louis XIV. thus inflicted upon it. This bigotry was a severer blow to the prosperity of his kingdom than all the costly wars which his ambition had kindled.

Huguenot
Industry
in Other
Lands.

The industry which France had thus lost was transplanted to Protestant countries; and thus England, Holland, Germany, Switzerland, and even the English colonies in North America, were enriched by the skill and labor of these Huguenot exiles. They established new branches of manufacture in those countries, and these have grown steadily until the present time. Thus those countries gained what France had lost, and that which is the most valuable source of wealth that any country can possess—an enlightened, industrious and skillful class of citizens.

Liberality
of the
Great
Elector
of Bran-
denburg.

Frederick William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, distinguished himself by his liberality to the twenty thousand Huguenot refugees who settled in his dominions. He provided them with land, with building materials and with capital for their manufactures; and their industry and diligence soon transformed the waste lands about Berlin into a well-cultivated garden.

SECTION VI.—WAR OF LOUIS XIV. WITH THE GRAND ALLIANCE (A. D. 1686-1697).

Louis
XIV. and
William
of Orange.

THE cruelties inflicted upon the Huguenots by their bigoted king aroused the most inveterate hatred of Louis XIV. in all Protestant Europe; and his great opponent, Prince William of Orange, soon perceived the blunder which the "Grand Monarque" had committed, and took full advantage of it. The position of William, who was universally considered the champion of the Protestant cause, as well as the implacable foe of Louis XIV., was vastly improved.

League
of Augs-
burg.

Through William's exertions the powerful *League of Augsburg* was formed in July, 1686, uniting the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, King Charles II. of Spain, King Charles XI. of Sweden and the leading German princes, such as the Elector-Palatine and the Electors

of Bavaria and Saxony, against the King of France. Holland did not immediately join the league, as William's interests did not demand that the illustrious Stadtholder should break with Louis XIV. just then. He was secretly preparing to drive his father-in-law, King James II., from the throne of England. He skillfully concealed his designs from the King of France until it was too late for that monarch to oppose them.

Designs of
William
of Orange.

The affairs of Cologne and the Palatinate soon furnished a pretext for hostilities. By means of French gold a partisan of Louis XIV. was elected Archbishop-Elector of Cologne, while Pope Innocent XI. and the League of Augsburg supported a Bavarian prince as a candidate for the office. The Duke of Orleans, the French king's brother, had married the sister of the last Elector-Palatine belonging to the House of Simmern. At her marriage this new Duchess of Orleans renounced all feudal rights in the Palatinate, but retained her hereditary claim to the movable property or allodial possessions of her family.

The
Cologne
and Pa-
latinate
Succes-
sions.

Louis XIV. now claimed all the artillery of the fortresses of the Palatinate as "movables," and his lawyers interpreted the allodial tenure so as to make it include almost the whole of the Palatinate. The new Elector-Palatine, Philip William of Neuburg, appealed to the Emperor Leopold I.; and the alarm which the arrogant assumptions of the King of France excited gave a new importance to the League of Augsburg.

Claims
of Louis
XIV. to
the Pa-
latinate
Artillery.

The War of the League of Augsburg commenced in September, 1688, when Louis XIV. hurled his forces against Germany. A French army of eighty thousand men under the command of the Dauphin and Marshals Duras and Vauban invaded the Palatinate of the Rhine, took Philipsburg after a month's siege, and captured Mannheim shortly afterward. A French division under the Marquis de Boufflers occupied the whole of the Palatinate of the Rhine west of that river; and another French detachment under Marshal d'Humières seized Dinant, in the bishopric of Liege.

French
Invasion
of the
Palat-
inate.

Prince William of Orange took advantage of the French movement against Germany by prosecuting his design against King James II. of England, who had become thoroughly estranged from his subjects by his arbitrary and illegal efforts to make Roman Catholicism the state religion of England. The English nobility, gentry, clergy and people turned their eyes toward the Prince of Orange, who, as we have seen, was invited to come to England to defend liberty and Protestantism, and with whom many of the most prominent men in England had been negotiating for some time.

William
of Orange
and
James
II. of
England.

Louis XIV., in great anger, warned the Prince of Orange that any attempt which he made against James II. would involve him in a war

William of Orange Made King of England by the Revolution of 1688. with France; but the League of Augsburg kept the French king so closely occupied that he was unable to interfere with William's movements against the King of England; and the Prince of Orange embarked unmolested in the expedition with which he landed in England, thus giving the signal for the Glorious Revolution of 1688, which hurled the usurping tyrant James II. from the English throne, and which made William and his wife Mary joint sovereigns of England. The deposed James II. and his queen and infant son found refuge in France, where they were generously received and maintained by Louis XIV.

William Congratulated by Catholic Sovereigns. So altered were the relations of European powers that such Catholic sovereigns as Pope Innocent XI., the Emperor Leopold I. and King Charles II. of Spain united in congratulating the Protestant Prince William of Orange on his accession to the thrones of England, Scotland and Ireland; and this event, by turning England, the former ally of Louis XIV., into an enemy, imposed a serious check upon the French king's extravagant ambition, which all Europe alike dreaded and prepared to curb.

Second French Desolation of the Palatinate. As Louis XIV. was unable to occupy the whole of the Palatinate of the Rhine, he hearkened to the advice of his brutal Minister of War, Louvois, and commanded his generals to ravage that beautiful district with fire and sword; and the Rhenish Palatinate accordingly suffered a desolation far more terrible than in the preceding war. More than forty cities and hundreds of flourishing villages were reduced to ashes, because the French could not garrison these towns. The important cities of Mannheim, Heidelberg, Spire, Worms, Frankenthal, Oppenheim and Bingen were thus burned; and the beautiful country became a blackened desert, as the farms, orchards and vineyards were likewise laid utterly waste.

Dreadful Sufferings in Consequence. Such of the unfortunate inhabitants as were able to emigrate took refuge in other countries; but over a hundred thousand peasantry wandered helpless amid the ruins of their dwellings, imploring the curse of Heaven upon the merciless French king who had been the cause of their sufferings. Their cruelties aroused the most intense hatred of the French in the hearts of the German people—a hatred which has not yet died out.

Grand Alliance against Louis XIV. The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany now declared war against Louis XIV., denouncing him as the enemy of Christendom; and such was the effect of the cruelties of the French that a *Grand Alliance* was formed against the King of France, consisting of England and Holland under William of Orange, Charles II. of Spain, Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and the German princes who had formed the League of Augsburg. England,

under the vigorous government of King William III., was the head of the Grand Alliance.

The generals on the side of France in this war were the Duke of Luxemburg, Marshal Catinat and the great engineer Vauban. The leading commanders of the forces of the allies were William III. of England and Holland, Prince Eugene of Savoy, the Earl of Marlborough and the Dutch engineer Cohorn. The Duke of Lorraine, the best general of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, died in 1690, and was succeeded in the command of the imperial armies by the Elector Maximilian Emanuel of Bavaria.

After the formation of the Grand Alliance the allies placed three armies in the field to oppose the French. The first of these armies, under the Prince of Waldeck, entered the Spanish Netherlands, and defeated the French under Marshal D'Humières at Walcourt and drove them back from the line of the Sambre. The second allied army, under the Duke of Lorraine, and the third, under the new Elector Frederick III. of Brandenburg, at once marched to the Rhine and took Mayence and Bonn; after which they retired into winter-quarters in the Palatinate, which still was able to furnish them subsistence in spite of the barbarous ravages to which it had been subjected by the French. In Italy the French under Marshal Catinat defeated the Duke of Savoy at Staffarda, August 18, 1690—a severe blow to Louis XIV. in that quarter.

In order to weaken England by aiding James II. in his efforts to recover his lost throne, Louis XIV. sent James to Ireland with a French force in March, 1689; and in the summer of 1690 a French fleet of seventy-eight ships-of-the-line under Admiral Tourville attempted to make a descent upon England in the interest of James II., and defeated the English and Dutch fleet under Admiral Herbert, Earl of Torrington, off Beachy Head, on the southern coast of England, June 30, 1690. The Dutch sustained the brunt of this engagement with great bravery, but the English admiral is said to have held aloof because he was disloyal to King William III. and secretly in the interest of James II.

The allied fleet was obliged to retire and to seek the shelter of the Thames, and for some time there were fears in England of a French invasion; but these fears were dispelled by King William's victory over the fallen James II. in the decisive battle of the Boyne, in Ireland, July 1, 1690, the day after the naval battle off Beachy Head. James II. returned to France; and when Ireland was reduced to submission in 1691 the French forces evacuated the island, many of the Irish going with them and afterward doing good service to King Louis XIV.

French
Generals.

Allied
Generals.

Allied
Armies
in the
Spanish
Nether-
lands, the
Palat-
inate and
Italy.

French
Army in
Ireland.

French
Naval
Victory off
Beachy
Head.

Battle
of the
Boyne and
French
Evacua-
tion of
Ireland.

**Marshal
Luxem-
bourg.**

**Battle of
Fleurus.**

**Capture
of Mons
by Louis
XIV.**

**Death of
Louvois.**

**At-
tempted
French
Invasion
of
England.**

**French
Naval
Defeat
off the
Isle of
Wight.**

**French
Naval
Defeat off
Cape La
Hogue.**

**Siege and
Capture
of Namur
by Louis
XIV.**

Early in 1690 Louis XIV. appointed the Duke of Luxemburg to the command of the French army in the Spanish Netherlands, and this commander became famous as Marshal Luxembourg. He forced a passage of the Sambre in spite of the resistance of the Prince of Waldeck, and defeated that general in the great battle of Fleurus, June 30, 1690, the very day of the French naval victory over the Anglo-Dutch fleet off Beachy Head.

In the spring of 1691 the French army under Louis XIV. in person captured Mons, one of the strongest fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands, after a siege of nine days. In the summer of the same year Louvois, the able but brutal French Minister of War, died; but none regretted his death, except King Louis XIV., who found himself at great loss to find one to fill his place.

In May, 1692, a French army of thirty thousand men, largely composed of British exiles, was assembled at various points on the coast of Normandy—at Havre, Cherbourg and Cape Le Hogue—to invade England and replace James II. on the throne of that kingdom. This force was commanded by James himself and Marshal Bellefonds, and was to be conveyed to the English coast by a French fleet of forty-four ships-of-the-line under Admiral Tourville.

No sooner was Admiral Tourville ready to embark the troops designed to make a descent on the English coast than he was ordered by his king to attack the English and Dutch fleet of ninety-nine ships-of-the-line under Admiral Russell, which had entered the English Channel. Though Admiral Tourville did not expect victory against such odds, he obeyed his king's order without the slightest hesitation, and thus attacked the Anglo-Dutch fleet off the Isle of Wight, May 19, 1692, but was defeated and forced to retire at night.

Most of Tourville's shattered fleet sought shelter in the roadstead of Cape La Hogue, where they were stranded with their broadsides to the victorious foe. There they were attacked by the pursuing English ships of Admiral Russell's victorious fleet and totally destroyed, May 23, 1692. James II. viewed the engagement from the neighboring cliffs, and could not refrain from expressing his admiration of the valor of the English sailors, though the result of the battle put an end to his hopes of recovering his lost crown. Louis XIV. was so disheartened by the loss of his fleet that he abandoned the cause of James II., who passed the remainder of his life in pious seclusion at the palace of St. Germain, near Paris.

While his navy was thus destroyed, the King of France was more fortunate on land. On May 25, 1692, he in person laid siege to Namur, the strongest fortress in the Spanish Netherlands. Vauban's engineering skill was irresistible, and the fortress surrendered June 5,

1692. William III. of England and Holland in the meantime had marched to the relief of the beleaguered fortress, at the head of an allied army of seventy thousand men, but was prevented from crossing the Sambre by the French army under Marshal Luxembourg. William attacked Marshal Luxembourg at Steinkirk, in the province of Hainault, July 24, 1692, but was repulsed with heavy loss after an obstinate battle, and forced to retreat to Brussels.

Battle of Steinkirk.

King William III. began the campaign of 1693 by endeavoring to draw the French army under King Louis XIV. in person into an engagement near Louvain; but the French king declined to meet his great adversary in the open field, and abruptly left his army and sent a portion of it into Germany—an act which so weakened his military prestige that he did not afterward appear in person at the head of an army.

Military Retirement of Louis XIV.

King William III. was defeated by the French army under Marshal Luxembourg in the bloody battle of Neerwinden, July 29, 1693, thus leaving the French in the ascendancy in the Spanish Netherlands; but William conducted his retreat with such skill that his antagonists said that he was more formidable in defeat than others in victory.

Battle of Neerwinden.

On October 4, 1693, the French army in Piedmont under Marshal Catinat defeated the Duke of Savoy in the battle of Marsaglia; and the French army in Spain under the Duke of Noailles captured Rosas, in the province of Catalonia.

French Victories in Italy and Spain.

The French fleet under Admiral Tourville attacked and defeated an English fleet under Admiral Sir George Rooke in Lagos Bay, on the southern coast of Portugal, June 27, 1693, thus capturing four English men-of-war and forty of the richly-laden English and Dutch merchantmen which the English fleet was convoying toward Smyrna. English commerce suffered greatly from the depredations of French privateers. In South America the French squadron under Commodore de Pointis surprised the rich city of Carthagena, inflicting a loss of thirty millions upon the Spaniards; while another French squadron under Duguay-Trouin captured a Dutch fleet on its way from Bilbao.

French Naval Victory in Lagos Bay.

Other French Naval Victories.

France had now been engaged for seven years in a constant and ruinous war with the Grand Alliance; and Louis XIV. was anxious for peace, being conscious of the fact that his resources were completely exhausted. "The people were perishing to the sound of *Te Deums*." In the language of Fenelon, Louis XIV. "had made France a vast hospital." The French finances had greatly fallen into disorder since Colbert's death, in 1683. The French peasantry had been largely drafted into the armies, and the lands were left uncultivated. Taxes upon industry had eaten up the very sources of revenue, while the kingdom was burdened with an enormous debt.

France's Exhaustion.

Louis XIV. and the Spanish Succession.

Louis XIV. had a still stronger motive for peace in his views concerning the Spanish succession, as the childless Charles II. of Spain was evidently near the end of his life. For a long time Louis XIV. had an understanding with the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, who, like himself, was a first cousin and a brother-in-law of the Spanish king. As the French king could not realize his hope respecting a partition of the Spanish dominions if the death of Charles II. should occur while all Europe was in arms against France, Louis XIV. sought the mediation of Pope Innocent XII. and of Kings Christian V. of Denmark and Charles XI. of Sweden; offering ample concessions for the sake of peace. William III. of England and Holland and the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany were well aware of the exhaustion of their great antagonist, and opposed and neutralized all his efforts, so that the war went on four years longer. French armies renewed their devastations in the Rhineland, while French privateers continued preying upon English and Dutch commerce.

Failure of His Efforts for Peace.

Recapture of Namur by William III. of England.

Marshal Luxembourg, the ablest of the French commanders in this war, died at Versailles, January 4, 1695, at the age of sixty-seven. He was succeeded by Marshal Villeroi, who began his military career by allowing King William III. to recapture the strong fortress of Namur, thus giving the allies the ascendancy in the Spanish Netherlands and producing a marked improvement in their fortunes. As this was the first conquest wrested from Louis XIV., the allies felt greatly encouraged.

The Duke of Savoy Detached from the Grand Alliance.

Louis XIV. still became more anxious for peace, and proceeded to break up the Grand Alliance. By restoring Pignerol, in Piedmont, and Nice and the other possessions which the French had wrested from the House of Savoy, the French king succeeded in inducing Victor Amadeus II., Duke of Savoy, to desert the Grand Alliance and to sign a treaty of peace and alliance with France, May 30, 1696, thus weakening the allies to that extent.

Peace of Ryswick.

Sweden offered her mediation for a peace. The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany was most averse to a treaty with the King of France, but when England and Holland intimated that they would conclude a separate treaty with Louis XIV. the Emperor finally consented to negotiate. The plenipotentiaries of all the belligerent powers met at the little village of Ryswick, in Holland, in May, 1697. After four months of negotiation, the Peace of Ryswick was concluded between France, England, Holland and Spain, September 30, 1697. Louis XIV. bound himself to acknowledge William III. as the rightful King of England, Scotland and Ireland, and to render no further assistance to the exiled James II. Louis XIV. also restored to Spain the French conquests in the Spanish province of Catalonia, and also some of

Its Concessions to England and Spain.

the French acquisitions in the Spanish Netherlands, such as the duchy of Luxemburg and the towns of Charleroi, Mons, Ath and Cambray.

The next month, October, 1697, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany acceded to the Peace of Ryswick by reluctantly signing a treaty with France, by which he recovered all the imperial territory which Louis XIV. had wrested from him since the Peace of Nimeguen, in 1678, except the city of Strassburg, which France still retained. Duke Leopold of Lorraine was restored to his parental inheritance; and the Duchess of Orleans renounced all her claim to the Palatinate upon the payment of a sum of money from the new Elector-Palatine; while Joseph Clement of Bavaria was confirmed in the dignity of Archbishop-Elector of Cologne.

Its Con-
cessions
to
Germany.

The terms of the Peace of Ryswick were humiliating to Louis XIV.; but the exhausted condition of his kingdom, and his anxiety to have his hands free upon the approaching vacancy of the Spanish throne, allowed him no other alternative than to accept them. This treaty released England forever from French influence and made her the chief counterpoise to France in the European States-System. The last war of Louis XIV. was that of the Spanish Succession, in the early part of the eighteenth century, which involved the great powers of Central and Western Europe, and which will be described in the next section.

Humilia-
tion of
Louis
XIV.
England's
Elevation.

SECTION VII.—WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION (A. D. 1701–1714).

FOR the next three years after the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, all Europe watched the declining health of the childless King Charles II. of Spain, the last of the dynasty of the Spanish Hapsburgs. His kingdom appeared almost as near dissolution as himself, suffering from a bankrupt treasury and the general neglect of public discipline; while famine, earthquakes, hurricanes and inundations were adding to the misery of the wretched country, which but a century before had been the leading power of Europe.

Charles
II. of
Spain
and the
Spanish
Succes-
sion.

In case of the death of Charles II. the throne would have been claimed by three princes, all of whom derived their claims from the daughters of Charles's father, King Philip IV. The elder daughter, Maria Theresa, as we have seen, was the first wife of Louis XIV. The younger daughter, Margarita, had married the Emperor Leopold I. According to the law of hereditary succession, the eldest daughter was clearly entitled to the Spanish dominions; but the Spaniards pleaded her renunciation of all her claims upon her marriage with the French king as debarring her issue from the inheritance of the Spanish

Three
Claim-
ants
for the
Spanish
Throne.

dominions. Louis XIV., however, asserted that this relinquishment had been rendered null and void because the dowry on which it depended had never been paid, and that therefore the claims of his first wife's children were valid.

Archduke
Charles
of Austria
and the
Electoral
Prince of
Bavaria.

The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany claimed the Spanish throne for his second son, the Archduke Charles of Austria, as the child of his wife, the younger daughter of Philip IV. of Spain. The third claimant to the Spanish inheritance was the little Electoral prince of Bavaria, whose mother was the daughter of the Emperor Leopold I. and his wife, the Empress Margarita. King Charles II. of Spain and his subjects considered the little Bavarian prince the rightful heir.

First
Partition
Treaty
of Louis
XIV. and
William
III.

Louis XIV. did not expect to secure the success of his claim without difficulty, but he hoped to obtain at least a part of the Spanish dominions by continuing his intrigues, and for this purpose he negotiated a treaty with William III. of England and Holland in October, 1698, for the partition of the Spanish dominions, upon the death of Charles II. of Spain; by which Spain and her possessions in America and the Netherlands were to be assigned to the Electoral prince of Bavaria; while France was to have the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily, certain specified sea-ports in Tuscany and the province of Guipuzcoa; and the Duchy of Milan was to be given to the Archduke Charles of Austria, the Emperor Leopold's son.

Bavarian
Electoral
Prince as
Spanish
Heir and
His Sus-
picious
Death.

Notwithstanding the precautions of the contracting parties, Charles II. of Spain received information of this insolent attempt for the partition of his dominions without consulting him; and, incensed at this action, he at once, by a solemn act of succession, declared the youthful Electoral prince of Bavaria the sole heir to the Spanish dominions; but that little prince soon afterward died suddenly at Brussels, February 6, 1699, not without suspicion of having been poisoned at the secret instigation of the Austrian Hapsburgs.

Second
Partition
Treaty
of Louis
XIV. and
William
III.

In 1700 Kings Louis XIV. and William III. signed a new partition treaty, assigning Lorraine and all the Spanish possessions in Italy except Milan to the Dauphin, while Spain itself was allotted to the Archduke Charles of Austria on condition that it should never be united with the German Empire. The Duke of Lorraine was to have Milan in exchange for his hereditary duchy. If the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany rejected this arrangement Spain was to be bestowed on a third party.

Will of
Charles
II. of
Spain
in Favor
of Philip
of Anjou.

Greatly irritated at the King of France, King Charles II. of Spain made a will acknowledging the Archduke Charles of Austria as his heir and successor to all the Spanish dominions; but the Spanish nobles, corrupted by the gold of Louis XIV., induced King Charles II. to make a new will, by which Duke Philip of Anjou, grandson of the

King of France, was appointed successor to the whole Spanish inheritance. Charles II. died November 1, 1700; and, after some hesitation, Louis XIV. adopted the last will. When the Duke of Anjou started for Madrid to take possession of the throne of Spain, with the title of PHILIP V., the French monarch said to him: "There are no more Pyrenees."

In December, 1700, Philip of Anjou was welcomed at the Spanish capital with acclamations, and most of the European powers hastened to acknowledge his title to the crown of Spain. The interference of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany was delayed by symptoms of a Hungarian rebellion and by disturbances in the North of Germany caused by the creation of the ninth Electorate—that of Hanover under the Guelfs, the House of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel.

All seemed for the time to favor the French king's interests, and by a conciliatory policy he perhaps might have secured the advantages which he had gained. The other European powers were greatly averse to a general European war, and did not appear disposed to support the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany in his efforts to place his son, the Archduke Charles of Austria, upon the Spanish throne. In England the Tories, who were opposed to war, came into power in place of the Whigs, who were ready to go to war with the French king to drive Philip of Anjou from the throne of Spain.

The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany opposed the last will of Charles II. of Spain, and listened to the advice of his great general, Prince Eugene of Savoy, who represented to him that the German Empire could never be secure while the French held entrances to it through Northern Italy on the south and the Spanish Netherlands on the west.

By the *Treaty of the Crown*, concluded at Vienna with the Elector Frederick III. of Brandenburg, who coveted the title of King of Prussia, the Emperor Leopold I. acquired a powerful ally without cost. The splendor-loving Elector Frederick III. considered the outward magnificence surrounding the court of Versailles the greatest triumph of earthly majesty, and attached the highest importance to a splendid court and magnificent feasts. He considered a royal crown the most inestimable of all worldly possessions, and therefore looked with envy upon the Elector of Saxony, who had been elected King of Poland, and upon the Elector of Hanover, who had become heir-apparent to the crown of England in accordance with the Act of Settlement passed by the English Parliament in 1701. Great was the joy of Frederick III. when the Emperor Leopold I. showed a disposition to confer upon him the royal title, in return for his assurances of vigorous support in the impending war.

Philip of
Anjou in
Madrid.

Electo-
rate of
Hanover.

Peaceful
Attitude
of the
European
Powers.

Prince
Eugene's
Advice to
Emperor
Leopold I.

Treaty
of the
Crown
between
Leopold I.
and the
Elector
of Bran-
denburg.

Frederick I., First King of Prussia, A. D. 1701-1713.

By the Treaty of the Crown, already alluded to, the Emperor Leopold I. engaged to recognize the royal dignity of the Elector of Brandenburg, in consideration of certain aids to be rendered in the field, the Imperial Diet and the Electoral Council; and the Elector Frederick III. hastened to Königsburg, where he was solemnly crowned the first *King of Prussia*, with the title of **FREDERICK I.**, January 18, 1701.

His Coronation.

In the magnificent ceremony of coronation, King Frederick I. placed the crown of Prussia upon his own head and upon the head of his wife; and, after a succession of splendid banquets, he held a magnificent entry into Berlin, which he made the capital of the new Kingdom of Prussia, and which he attempted to render a suitable residence for royalty by public buildings, pleasure grounds and monuments of art.

His Patronage of Art and Science.

The first King of Prussia encouraged the arts and sciences. In his country-seat of Charlottenberg, where his highly-accomplished queen, Sophia Charlotte, held her gracious rule, there was always an assemblage of distinguished and intellectual people. Societies for the cultivation of the arts and sciences were established at Berlin, under the auspices of the great philosopher Leibnitz; while a flourishing university arose at Halle.

Prussia's Military Character.

The new Kingdom of Prussia, from the necessity of its position, assumed from its very beginning that military character which has ever since distinguished it. In consequence of the energetic war policy of the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg—the father of the first King of Prussia—the new kingdom was raised by a progressive military organization to a rank among the great powers of Europe.

German Imperial Army under Prince Eugene of Savoy in Italy.

With such powerful aid, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany resolved upon war with the King of France, and accordingly sent a large army to Italy under his great general, Prince Eugene of Savoy, who, as we have already seen, was a Frenchman by birth and had gained great renown in the wars against the Ottoman Empire. After massing his army near Trent, Prince Eugene crossed the Tyrolese Alps and descended upon the plain of Lombardy, in May, 1701. He defeated the French army under Marshal Catinat, and the German imperial troops occupied the entire region between the Adige and the Adda. Prince Eugene defeated Marshal Villeroi, Catinat's successor, still more signally at Chiari and Cremona.

England Imperial Insulted by Louis XIV.

While this petty war between France and Germany was in progress, Louis XIV., by one imprudent act, provoked a powerful combination against himself. On the death of the exiled James II., in 1701, Louis recognized his son as King of England, with the title of James III.,

after having promised not to do so. This act of the French king was regarded by England as a national insult; and King William III. found his Parliament and people, who before had been averse to England's participation in a Continental war, ready to second all his views. The most earnest and extensive preparations for war were now made by England.

The English Parliament immediately voted liberal supplies for the war, with the petition that "no peace shall be made with France until His Majesty and the nation have made reparation for the great indignity offered by the French king." Several months afterward the English Parliament also passed an "Act for abjuring the pretended Prince of Wales."

England's
Warlike
Action.

The Dutch were also alarmed by the expulsion of their garrisons by the French from several towns in the Spanish Netherlands which had been guaranteed to Holland as a frontier on the side of France. Thus several great European nations were ready to combine against the King of France when the favorable moment should arrive.

Dutch
Alarmed
by Louis
XIV.

Accordingly a *Second Grand Alliance* was formed against Louis XIV. by the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, King Frederick I. of Prussia, the Elector-Palatine, England and Holland. As in the First Grand Alliance, William III., King of England, Scotland and Ireland, and Stadtholder of Holland, was the soul of the Second Grand Alliance against the French monarch. His death, March 8, 1702, made no change in this respect; as his successor on the throne of England, Queen Anne, declared her determination to adhere to her illustrious predecessor's war policy.

Second
Grand
Alliance
against
Louis
XIV

An English army under the famous general, John Churchill, Earl of Marlborough, was sent to Holland. By a peaceful revolution in the Dutch Republic, the office of Stadtholder was abolished, and was succeeded by a more purely republican government supported by the De Witts. Heinsius, Grand Pensionary of Holland, firmly adhered to the policy of the Prince of Orange, and had the chief voice in the affairs of the Dutch Republic. Heinsius along with the Earl of Marlborough and Prince Eugene constituted the *Triumvirate of the Second Grand Alliance*.

Constitu-
tional
Change
in the
Dutch
Republic.

The Elector of Bavaria and his brother, the Archbishop-Elector of Cologne, entered into an alliance with the King of France. England, Holland and the German Empire declared war against France and Spain in May, 1702. Thus began the *War of the Spanish Succession*, which for twelve years convulsed Southern and Western Europe. In his former wars Louis XIV. had generally triumphed over his enemies, but during the whole course of the War of the Spanish Succession he suffered a continuation of the most calamitous defeats. He

France's
Allies.
War
Declared.

French
Defeats.

no longer displayed the vigor and energy for which he had been before noted.

**Allied
Generals.**

The great generals on the side of the allies were the Earl of Marlborough, who was soon created Duke of Marlborough, the commander of the English forces, and Prince Eugene of Savoy, the famous commander of the German imperial troops. The ablest of the French generals was Marshal Villars. The other French commanders were Marshals Villeroy, Catinat, Boufflers, Marsin and Tallard, and the Dukes of Vendôme, Burgundy and Berwick—the last of whom was an illegitimate son of the ill-fated King James II. of England.

**The Earl
of Marl-
borough.**

The Earl of Marlborough was a great statesman as well as a great general, and was the most prominent political leader in England during the whole period of the War of the Spanish Succession, being the great upholder of the war policy. Both parties in England at first supported the war—the Tories because it was waged by a Tory general, and the Whigs because it was waged in the interest of a Whig policy.

**Parties in
England.**

**Victories
of the
Earl of
Marlbor-
ough in
1702.**

The English and Dutch made the territory of Cologne their first object of attack. In the campaign of 1702 the skillful maneuvers of the Earl of Marlborough forced the French army under Marshal Boufflers and the Duke of Burgundy to abandon the entire line of the Meuse, and compelled the towns of Kaiserswerth, Venloo, Stephanswerth and Ruremonde to surrender in succession. Finally, the Earl of Marlborough took Liege by storm, October 28, 1702. This brilliant campaign raised the Earl of Marlborough to the first rank among European generals and vastly increased England's influence in European affairs.

**Events in
Germany,
Italy and
Spain in
1702.**

On the Upper Rhine the German imperial army under Prince Louis of Baden took Landau in September, 1702. In Northern Italy, during the year 1702, a French force under the Duke of Vendôme gained the battle of Luzara over the Austrians. In Piedmont the German imperial army under Prince Eugene conducted a campaign against the French and Spanish forces under King Philip V. During the year 1702 the united fleets of England and Holland were repulsed in an attack upon the Spanish port of Cadiz; but they succeeded in destroying in the Bay of Vigo the entire Spanish West India fleet laden with the treasures of gold and silver from Spanish America, October 22, 1702.

**Earl, now
Duke of
Marlbor-
ough.**

As a reward for his brilliant services in the campaign of 1702, the Earl of Marlborough was created Duke of Marlborough. In 1703 he completed the conquest of the entire Electorate of Cologne, while the allied forces also took Limburg and Guelders. In Germany, during the same year, the French king's ally, the Elector of Bavaria, repulsed

a twofold invasion of his dominions and seized Ratisbon. A French army under Marshal Villars crossed the Rhine and effected a junction with the Elector of Bavaria in the valley of the Danube.

The Austrian forces were then diverted by Count George Ragotzky's formidable insurrection in Hungary, which continued until 1711; and the Elector of Bavaria might have taken Vienna had he not postponed his attack until the season was too far advanced. The Elector instead undertook the conquest of the Tyrol, and seized Innsbruck; but he was driven out of that mountain country by the brave Tyrolese, who rose *en masse* to resist his invasion. In the meantime the French on the Rhine had taken Breisach, defeated the German imperial army at Spirebach and recaptured Landau.

The German imperial army now invaded Bavaria in two columns and menaced Munich. By a skilful maneuver, the French army under Marshal Villars interposed between these two imperial columns, and defeated the column under Count Styrum at Hochstädt, September 20, 1703. Marshal Villars again urged the Elector of Bavaria to invade Austria, but the Elector refused to venture upon so bold a movement, whereupon Villars asked his king to relieve him of his command, and he was succeeded by Marshal Marsin. Soon afterward the Elector of Bavaria endeavored to carry out the plan of Marshal Villars; but it was too late, as the decisive moment had passed away and a golden opportunity was thus lost.

The advantages which Marshal Villars gained for France were lost by the defection of Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy, who, offended because he did not receive the command of the French and Spanish forces in Italy, now deserted the cause of his son-in-law, King Philip V. of Spain, and joined the Second Grand Alliance, October 25, 1703, thus cutting off the communication between France and Italy. King Pedro II. of Portugal was also induced to enter into a perpetual alliance with England and Holland, through the efforts of the Admiral of Castile, who considered himself slighted by King Philip V. of Spain. These accessions so emboldened the allies that they now not only pushed the claims of the Austrian Archduke Charles in Italy and the Spanish Netherlands, but resolved to substitute him for the Bourbon Philip of Anjou on the throne of Spain itself.

While the tyranny of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany had caused a rebellion of his Protestant Hungarian subjects under Count George Ragotzky in 1703, religious persecution drove the Huguenots of the region of the Cevennes to rebellion against the bigoted and tyrannical King Louis XIV. during the same year, 1703; and the rebellion was suppressed with difficulty in 1704 by Marshal Villars, who had been sent into that mountain region after his return from his

**Cam-
paign of
1703.**

**Unsuc-
cessful
Bavarian
Invasion
of the
Tyrol.**

**Opera-
tions in
Bavaria.**

**Marshal
Villars
and the
Elector of
Bavaria.**

**The
Grand
Alliance
Joined
by the
Duke of
Savoy
and the
King of
Portugal.**

**Protest-
ant
Rebell-
ions in
Hungary
and
France.**

campaign in Germany; but tranquillity was not fully restored until 1710.

Campaigns of 1704 in Italy and Portugal.

In 1704 the French regained their communication with Italy by reconquering the northern part of Piedmont, but they encountered serious reverses in every other quarter during the year. The Archduke Charles of Austria, with the assistance of an English and Dutch army under the Earl of Peterborough, landed in Portugal; but his advance into Spain was checked by the French army under the Duke of Berwick, the illegitimate son of the ill-fated James II. of England.

Capture of Gibraltar by Sir George Rooke.

The English fleet under Admiral Sir George Rooke accidentally gained possession of the strong rocky fortress of Gibraltar, in the South of Spain, August 4, 1704. It had been weakly garrisoned by the Spaniards, who considered it impregnable on account of its great natural strength. A party of English sailors from Rooke's fleet took advantage of a holiday, when the eastern side of the fortress had been left unguarded, by scaling that precipitous and almost inaccessible height, while another party stormed the South Mole; and Admiral Rooke took possession of the fortress in the name of the Queen of England. This achievement was by far the most important to England of any during the War of the Spanish Succession; as Gibraltar has ever since remained in her possession, and has been to her the key to the Mediterranean sea.

Its Permanent Importance to England.

The Duke of Marlborough's Invasion of Bavaria.

In 1704 the seat of war was transferred to Germany, and the forces of Austria and the German Empire were hard pressed by the French and the Bavarians. The allied English and Dutch army under the Duke of Marlborough was joined by the German imperial army under Prince Louis of Baden near Ulm, in the duchy of Wurtemberg, and took the heights of Schellenberg by storm, thus gaining an important control of the Danube.

His Junction with Prince Eugene.

The allied army under the Duke of Marlborough crossed the Neckar, June 4, 1704, and, forcing its way into Bavaria, succeeded in effecting a junction with the German imperial army under Prince Eugene, who had advanced from Italy. The united armies, numbering eighty thousand men, won a brilliant victory over the combined French and Bavarian army of eighty thousand men under Marshals Marsin and Tallard and the Elector of Bavaria, at the small village of Blenheim, near Höchstädt, August 13, 1704. The victorious English and German imperialists lost thirteen thousand men, while the vanquished French and Bavarians lost thirty thousand. Marshal Tallard was taken prisoner; and all the French artillery, baggage and camp-equipage fell into the hands of the victors.

Battle of Blenheim.

French Retreat from Germany.

The disastrous issue of this battle compelled the French to fall back to the west side of the Rhine and to evacuate Germany. They were

pursued across the Rhine by the victors; and the Duke of Marlborough took Treves and several other towns, and fixed his advanced posts upon the Saar. All the fortresses of Bavaria were surrendered to the German imperial troops, except Munich, which was dismantled; and the Elector of Bavaria retained only his appointment of Governor-General of the Spanish Netherlands, while his wife remained in Munich.

**Imperial
Occupation of
Bavaria.**

Thus the campaign of 1704 was favorable to the allies. The French had been driven from Germany; the English had gained possession of the key to the Mediterranean; and France was threatened with invasion by the allied army on the Moselle.

**French
Losses.**

The year 1705 was marked by the death of the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and the accession of his son JOSEPH I. to the hereditary Austrian territories and to the imperial throne of Germany by the choice of the Electors. The Hungarians under Count George Ragotzky were still in revolt against the House of Hapsburg, and all of Joseph's concessions did not induce them to cease their demand for a return to their former elective constitution.

**Emperor
Joseph I.,
A. D.
1705-
1711.**

**Hunga-
rian
Revolt.**

A rebellion in Bavaria was suppressed by force, and the Emperor Joseph I. resolved to blot out that Electorate from the map of Germany. Its territories were partitioned among several princes; the Upper Palatinate being restored to the Elector-Palatine, from whose dominions it had been separated since the Thirty Years' War.

**Projected
Partition
of
Bavaria.**

In Northern Italy, during 1705, the French under the command of the skillful Duke of Vendôme gained many advantages over the Austrians, and finally inflicted a severe defeat upon Prince Eugene at Cassano. In Spain, during the same year, the French were forced to raise the siege of Gibraltar; and the English under the Earl of Peterborough took Barcelona, thus securing the allegiance of the provinces of Catalonia and Valencia for the Archduke Charles of Austria, who himself was present at the surrender of Barcelona, and was hailed with acclamations as King of Spain.

**French
Victories
in Italy
in 1705.**

**English
Capture
of Bar-
celona.**

The campaign of 1706 was a glorious one for the allies, who acquired the supremacy in the Spanish Netherlands, in Italy and in Spain. In the Spanish Netherlands the allied English and Dutch armies under the Duke of Marlborough defeated the French army of eighty thousand men under Marshal Villeroi in the decisive battle of Ramillies, May 23, 1706, thus placing the provinces of Brabant and Flanders in the possession of the allies. The Duke of Marlborough also took the towns of Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent, Ostend, Menin, Den-dermonde and Ath; and the Archduke Charles was proclaimed at Brussels.

**The Duke
of Marl-
borough
in the
Spanish
Nether-
lands.**

**Battle of
Ramillies.**

In Italy, during 1706, the French under the Duke of Orleans, the nephew of Louis XIV., and Marshal Marsin laid siege to Turin; but

**Prince
Eugene
in Italy.**

Battle of Turin. the German imperial army under Prince Eugene, after being joined by the forces of that commander's cousin, Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy, advanced to the relief of the city, and defeated the French so disastrously before the walls of the city, September 7, 1706, that they were obliged to raise the siege and evacuate Italy. Thereupon the Archduke Charles was proclaimed in Milan, and all Lombardy was occupied by the victorious German imperialists.

Capture of Madrid by the Allies. In 1706 the province of Aragon also proclaimed the Archduke Charles; and the allied English, Dutch and Portuguese armies under Lord Galway advanced from Portugal and captured Madrid, after Philip V. had fled from the city. But the Spanish people preferred the Bourbon king to the Austrian Hapsburg, and rose against the invaders, drove out the allied garrisons, and compelled the two allied armies to retreat into Valencia. The English took Alicante and Cartagena, but the French under the Duke of Berwick recaptured the latter town. During the same year Pedro II. of Portugal died, and was succeeded by his son JOHN V.

Offers of Louis XIV. Humiliated by these reverses, Louis XIV. offered to abandon the whole Spanish inheritance, except the Italian possessions, to the Archduke Charles; but the allies demanded all, and so the war continued.

Battle of Almanza. Fortune now smiled on the French arms in Spain. In the meantime Philip V. reëntered Madrid in triumph amid the rejoicings of the populace. The allied English, Dutch and Portuguese army under Lord Galway was almost annihilated by the French army under the Duke of Berwick in the decisive battle of Almanza, April 25, 1707, in which the allies lost all their standards, baggage and artillery. Thereupon the provinces of Valencia and Aragon submitted to Philip V.; and the towns of Lerida and Ciudad Rodrigo—the former on the frontier of Catalonia, and the latter on that of Portugal—were recaptured by the victorious French and Spanish forces. But Barcelona gallantly resisted the arms of Philip V. until the end of the war.

Prince Eugene Forced to Raise the Siege of Toulon. The allies were almost as unsuccessful in Northern Italy and in their invasion of France. Prince Eugene and the Duke of Savoy led their united armies into Provence and laid siege to Toulon, while the English fleet under Sir Cloudesley Shovel blockaded that great French port by sea; but a French force under Marshal Tessé advanced to the relief of the beleaguered city, and forced the allies to raise the siege after they had lost ten thousand men.

Campaigns of 1707 in Italy, Germany and the Spanish Netherlands. In Southern Italy the whole Kingdom of Naples was conquered for the Archduke Charles by a small German imperial army under Marshal Daun during the same year, 1707. In the Spanish Netherlands during that year the Duke of Marlborough was held in check by the French army under the Duke of Vendôme. On the side of the Rhine

the French under Marshal Villars performed the brilliant exploit of forcing the lines of Stollhoffen, hitherto considered impregnable.

Though France was successful for the moment her situation was yearly becoming more critical. The kingdom was exhausted by the great expense of the struggle. Every means of raising funds had been resorted to—"loans at ruinous rates of interest, the creation of new and frivolous offices, assignments on the revenue of future years, vexatious taxes, immense issues of paper money." Fresh embarrassments followed each new expedient, and the French people were discontented, so that murmurs were heard on every side. Chamillart, Minister of Finance, was succeeded by Desmarte, Colbert's nephew; but the new Minister was unable to afford relief to the suffering nation. Louis XIV. had well-nigh ruined the industry of France to gratify his religious bigotry, and was now reaping the fruits of his unstatesman-like policy.

**France's
Exhaustion.**

Under political stress at home the Duke of Marlborough felt that his future interests depended upon a vigorous campaign, especially as the French under the Duke of Vendôme had by treachery gained possession of Ghent and Bruges, thus regaining some of their lost ground in the Spanish Netherlands. The Duke of Marlborough, at the head of the English and Dutch army in the Spanish Netherlands, was reinforced by the German imperial army under Prince Eugene; and the two great generals increased their military renown by their brilliant victory over the French army under the Dukes of Vendôme and Burgundy at Oudenarde, on the Scheldt, July 11, 1708. Soon afterward the allies took Lille from Marshal Boufflers after a long and difficult siege, October 22, 1708, thus opening the way to Paris. They also rescued Brussels from the Elector of Bavaria, and recovered Ghent and Bruges, thus regaining all of Spanish Flanders and occupying part of French Flanders.

Marlborough and Eugene in the Spanish Netherlands.

Battle of Oudenarde.

In the Mediterranean during 1708 the English fleet under Admiral Sir John Leake received the submission of the island of Sardinia to the Archduke Charles of Austria, and established a British garrison at Port Mahon. The islands of Majorca and Iviça had already declared for the Archduke Charles.

Allied Success in the Mediterranean.

These brilliant successes of the allies in the campaign of 1708 raised their confidence to the highest pitch; and Lord Godolphin and the Duke of Marlborough found the English Parliament willing to grant additional supplies for the war, while the Dutch agreed to augment their troops, and the German imperialists promised to show more activity.

Elation of the Allies.

King Louis XIV. was disheartened by defeat, his treasury was exhausted, and his counsels were distracted. In addition to her military

**Famine
and
Suffering
in France.**

reverses, France was beginning to suffer the horrors of famine, caused by the severity of the winter of 1708-'9, which froze the vineyards, orchards and the grain already sown. Whole families of poor were frozen to death in their miserable hovels. Even the Rhone was frozen over, and the Mediterranean seemed almost transformed into a polar sea. The misery of the French people produced a universal outcry for peace throughout the kingdom, and the popular discontent manifested itself in riots and other violent demonstrations.

**Insulting
Demands
of the
Allies.**

Humiliated and chagrined, Louis XIV. was obliged to heed the outcry of his subjects for peace; but the allies, doubting his sincerity, scornfully rejected his overtures, and demanded the most humiliating terms as the price of peace—terms which he could not accept without sacrificing his honor and dignity. They demanded that he himself should aid them in driving his grandson Philip V. from the throne of Spain. He refused to entertain such a proposition, and appealed to the patriotism of his subjects to sustain him in another effort.

**French
Patriot-
ism.**

The haughty and insolent demands of the allies aroused the pride of the French people, who, even in their distress, revolted at such indignity, and resolved to support their king in continuing the war rather than submit to such humiliation. The French king and many of his nobles sent their plate to the mint, and by a series of vigorous measures funds were raised for the expenses of the war during the ensuing year, while the sum of thirty-five millions was obtained from the Spanish West Indies.

**Marlbor-
ough and
Eugene
in the
Spanish-
Nether-
lands.**

In 1709 the able Marshal Villars was assigned to the command of the French army in the Spanish Netherlands. The allied English, Dutch and German imperial armies under the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene captured Tournay, and defeated the French army of eighty thousand men under Marshals Villars and Boufflers in the bloody battle of Malplaquet, September 11, 1709, in which Marshal Villars himself was wounded and borne from the field, and his army fled with the loss of ten thousand men, while the victorious allies lost twenty thousand. The vanquished French army retreated in good order to Valenciennes, and Marshal Villars wrote to his king that another such defeat would secure France against the efforts of the Second Grand Alliance. Mons surrendered to the allies immediately after the battle, and was occupied by them.

**Battle of
Mal-
plaquet.**

**Insolent
Demands
of the
Allies
again
Rejected
by Louis
XIV.**

In 1710 Louis XIV. again solicited peace, offering to make great concessions to the allies. He even offered to recognize the Archduke Charles as King of Spain, to furnish no more assistance to his grandson Philip V., and even to supply the allies with money to prosecute the war against him. But the allied powers demanded that Louis himself should send an army into Spain to assist in driving out his

grandson. This insulting demand Louis rejected with scorn, saying: "If I must continue the war, I should rather fight against my enemies than against my own grandson." The French people, who had clamored for peace, shared the indignation of their monarch, and were resolved not to submit to any such degrading and abjectly-humiliating conditions.

Louis XIV. was much encouraged by the successes of his arms in Spain during the year 1710. The campaign opened with the victories of the Austrians under Count Stahremberg in the battles of Almenara and Saragossa; but afterward the entire English corps under Stanhope was captured by the Duke of Vendôme, after a severe battle at Brihuega, December 9, 1710. The Duke of Vendôme defeated Stahremberg at Villaviciosa, after a bloody battle of two days, December 11, 1710. These two great victories secured Philip V. on the throne of Spain, and the Archduke Charles of Austria was driven from that country.

**French
Victories
in Spain
in 1710.**

Early in 1711 an event occurred which changed the views and situation of all parties. This was the death of the Emperor Joseph I. of Germany, and the accession of his brother, the Archduke Charles, the competitor of Philip of Anjou, to the thrones of Austria and the German Empire, with the title of CHARLES VI. The union of the crowns of Spain and Germany, in the person of a prince of the House of Hapsburg, was as alarming to the other powers of Europe as the union of the crowns of Spain and France, under a prince of the House of Bourbon.

**Death of
Emperor
Joseph I.**

**Emperor
Charles
VI., A. D.
1711-
1740**

Although both parties in England had at first supported the war—the Whigs because it was a Whig war, and the Tories because it was waged by a Tory general—the Tories gradually drifted away from the Duke of Marlborough's war policy, and the great general and political leaders was obliged to drift away gradually from the Tory party and become the leader of the Whigs, who upheld his policy. The English people gradually grew weary of the war on account of the heavy burden of taxation which it entailed, finding little compensation in a struggle in which they bore the chief burdens while reaping few advantages, the chief of which was the military prestige of the Duke of Marlborough's great victories.

**The Duke
of Marl-
borough
and War
Politics
in
England.**

The change of public opinion in England in opposition to the war ultimately grew so strong that the Whigs were driven from power in 1711 and were succeeded in office by the Tories, who were now thoroughly opposed to the war. The leaders of the new Tory Ministry were Robert Harley, Earl of Oxford, and Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke, who soon dissolved Parliament, and were sustained by the election of a Tory majority in the new House of Commons.

**Political
Change in
England.**

Disgrace
of the
Duke of
Marlbor-
ough.

The Duke of Marlborough, who had so nobly sustained the military honor of England in this war, fought his last campaign in 1711, during which he carried the intrenched camp of Marshal Villars at Arleux and captured the strongly-fortified town of Bouchain. Being accused of prolonging the war unnecessarily for his own personal and private benefit, and being charged with avarice and corruption in enriching himself in army contracts, he was censured by a vote of the House of Commons and deprived of his military command and of all his civil offices, and was succeeded in his command by the Duke of Ormond, who had secret orders not to fight. The disgraced general and political leader at once retired into voluntary exile from his native land.

Peace
Negotia-
tions.

The new Tory Ministry of England soon entered into secret peace negotiations with France, and a preliminary treaty between England and France was signed at London in October, 1711. Through the influence of England under her Tory Ministers, conferences for peace opened at Utrecht, in Holland, as early as January, 1712. Eighty plenipotentiaries of the allied powers met the three French envoys, but negotiations progressed very slowly, through the opposition of the Dutch and German imperial ambassadors.

Successes
of
Marshal
Villars.

The interests of France in the peace congress at Utrecht were materially improved by the brilliant successes of Marshal Villars, who, in the campaign of 1712, totally outgeneraled Prince Eugene, defeated and captured an allied force under the English Duke of Albemarle at Denain, July 24, 1712, and recovered Douay, Le Quesnoy and Bouchain in quick succession, thus wresting from the allies all their acquisitions in the North of France.

Domestic
Afflictions
of Louis
XIV.

In the meantime Louis XIV. met with many sad domestic afflictions. His only legitimate son, the Dauphin, died in April, 1711; leaving three sons—the Duke of Burgundy, King Philip V. of Spain and the Duke of Berry. The young Duke of Burgundy succeeded his father as heir to the crown of France. His wife, Adelaide of Savoy, who was greatly beloved by Louis XIV. and his court, died of a malignant fever in February, 1712; and her husband died of the same disease six days later. Their eldest child, the youthful Duke of Brittany, then became heir to the French throne, but also died three weeks later. His brother, the little Duke of Anjou, the next heir to the French crown, was a weak and sickly child; and in case of his death King Philip V. of Spain would have become heir to the throne of France.

Peace of
Utrecht.

This threatened union of the crowns of France and Spain alarmed the allied powers, and the Tory Ministers of England were obliged to threaten that they would renew the war unless Philip V. of Spain renounced his claim to the French crown, A. D. 1712. France and Spain conceded this point, thus facilitating the conclusion of a defini-

tive treaty of peace between France and England, to the great disgust of the Dutch and the German Emperor. Finally, April 11, 1713, the Peace of Utrecht was signed by the plenipotentiaries of France, England, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Prussia and Savoy.

By the Peace of Utrecht, England and the other allied powers recognized Philip V. as King of Spain on condition that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united; while Louis XIV. acknowledged Queen Anne as the rightful sovereign of England and the Elector George of Hanover as her rightful heir and successor. England received the fortress of Gibraltar and the island of Minorca from Spain, and Nova Scotia, Newfoundland and the Hudson's Bay Territory from France. The Dutch were allowed to garrison a line of frontier fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands, as a barrier against France. France recovered Lille and agreed to dismantle the fortifications of Dunkirk. Philip V. of Spain agreed to cede Milan, Naples, the island of Sardinia and the Spanish Netherlands to the Austrian Hapsburgs; and he also ceded the island of Sicily to Duke Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy with the title of king. The Duke of Savoy recovered his lost territories, which were divided from the dominions of France by the watershed of the Alps. The new Kingdom of Prussia was recognized; and Louis XIV. ceded to its king, as representative of the House of Orange, the principality of Neuchâtel, in Switzerland; while King Frederick I. of Prussia relinquished his claims to the principality of Orange.

Terms
of the
Treaty

The Emperor Charles VI. of Germany refused to accede to the Treaty of Utrecht, so that hostilities continued between France and the German Empire. In the campaign which followed, the French under Marshal Villars achieved brilliant successes in the Palatinate, defeating the German imperial forces and capturing Spire, Worms, Landau and Freiburg. These reverses of the imperial arms induced the Emperor Charles VI. to consent to peace, and a series of peace conferences were held by Marshal Villars and Prince Eugene. When the two great generals met in friendly conference for the first time, on this occasion, Prince Eugene said to Marshal Villars: "We are not enemies. Your enemies are at Versailles, and mine are at Vienna."

French
Successes
over the
German
Imperial
Armies.

Accordingly the Peace of Rastadt was concluded between France and Austria, March 7, 1714. By this treaty the Austrian Hapsburgs received the Spanish Netherlands, the Duchy of Milan, the Kingdom of Naples and the island of Sardinia—all of which were thus separated from the dominion of the King of Spain; while the Emperor Charles VI. recognized Philip V. as King of Spain. By this treaty the Emperor also allowed the exiled Electors of Bavaria and Cologne to return to their dominions; and Louis XIV. recognized the

Peace of
Rastadt.

**Peace of
Baden.**

new Kingdom of Prussia by acknowledging the royal title of **FREDERICK WILLIAM I.**, who became King of Prussia upon the death of his father Frederick I., in 1713. The Peace of Baden, between France and the German Empire, in September, 1714, finally ended the War of the Spanish Succession. Thus, after a war which had been, on the whole, disastrous to Louis XIV., that monarch obtained honorable terms of peace; and the allied powers were punished for their former unreasonable and insolent demands.

**France's
Deplo-
rable
Condi-
tion.**

Peace came none too soon for France, whose condition, in consequence of the long and expensive wars occasioned by the ambition of her warlike monarch, was at this time most deplorable. The public debt was enormous, the nation was almost financially ruined, and the resources of the kingdom were almost exhausted; and nothing but a long period of peace would enable the country to recuperate. The revenues were mortgaged for many years to come, as the national credit was almost destroyed. Agriculture, manufactures and all branches of industry were reduced to the lowest state of depression. Bankruptcy was general throughout France, while thousands of the laboring classes were perishing by famine and disease. Such was the dear price paid by Louis XIV. to seat a Bourbon on the throne of Spain, while that kingdom was deprived by treaty of some of its most valuable foreign possessions.

**Exhaus-
tion
of the
French
Treasury.**

The great talents of Louis XIV. and his rich inheritance would have given him a leading power among nations in any case; but his immoderate thirst for conquest made him the scourge of Europe, instead of its benefactor. He was obliged to replenish his treasury, so drained by his costly and ruinous wars, by resorting to the most oppressive measures to wring supplies from his starving subjects.

**Persecu-
tion
of the
Jansen-
ists.**

Conscious of his failures and the worthlessness of the military glory which he had cherished in his younger and more prosperous days, Louis XIV. sought refuge in an abject superstition which inflicted a final injury upon his kingdom. Influenced by his confessor, the Jesuit Le Tellier, he bitterly persecuted the new Catholic sect of *Jansenists*—the followers of Jansen—the steadfast opponents of the moral, political and doctrinal system of the Jesuits.

**Regency
and Suc-
cession.**

The assistance which Louis XIV. rendered the Pretender James Stuart in his invasion of Scotland in 1715, and the French king's evasion of several other articles of the Peace of Utrecht, would probably again have broken the peace of Europe had the life of the "Grand Monarque" been prolonged. But his health had been failing for some time. Feeling that his end was approaching, he appointed a Council of Regency under the presidency of the Duke of Orleans to conduct the government during the minority of his great-grandson, a

child of five years, who had become the heir to the French throne in consequence of the death of the king's legitimate children and grandchildren. In order to provide for the succession in case of the little prince's death, Louis XIV. caused his two sons by Madame de Montespan—the Duke of Maine and the Count of Toulouse—to be legitimated and placed in the line of succession.

Louis XIV. was soon seized with a violent fever; and on his death-bed he addressed to his great-grandson and heir the following admonition, which was a condemnation of his own lifelong policy: "Live at peace with your neighbors. Do not imitate me in my fondness for war, nor in my exorbitant expenditure. Endeavor to relieve the people at the earliest possible moment, and thus accomplish what, unfortunately, I myself am unable to do." Louis XIV. died at Versailles, September 1, 1715, at the age of seventy-seven years, and after a reign of seventy-two years, or fifty-four from the expiration of the regency. His great-grandson Louis XV. then began his long reign of fifty-nine years, A. D. 1715–1774.

**Illness
and Death
of Louis
XIV.**

SECTION VIII.—FRENCH COLONIES IN NORTH AMERICA (A. D. 1605–1763).

WHILE the English were colonizing the Atlantic coast of North America, from New England to Georgia, the French were exploring and settling the valley of the St. Lawrence, the shores of the Great Lakes and the valley of the Mississippi. In 1605 the Huguenot De Monts founded the first permanent French settlement in North America, at Port Royal, now Annapolis, in Nova Scotia; giving the territory, now known as Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, the name of *Acadia*.

**French
on the
St. Law-
rence,
Great
Lakes
and the
Missis-
sippi.
Acadia.**

In 1608 Samuel Champlain, a Frenchman, founded the city of Quebec, on the St. Lawrence river; and in the following year, 1609, he discovered the beautiful lake, between the present States of Vermont and New York, which bears his name. Champlain and his followers allied themselves with the Huron and Algonquin Indians, and defeated their foes, the Five Nations, of New York. Thenceforth the Five Nations were the firm friends of the English and the bitter enemies of the French.

**Quebec
Founded
by
Samuel
Cham-
plain.**

**Indian
Wars.**

In 1679 Jacques Marquette, a French Jesuit, and Louis Joliet, a French Canadian, entered the Mississippi river from the Wisconsin, and, in two birch-bark canoes, sailed down the great river to a point below the mouth of the Arkansas. In 1682 Robert de La Salle, a French Canadian officer, after exploring the shores of the Great Lakes, entered

**The Mis-
sissippi
Explored
by Joliet,
Mar-
quette
and
La Salle.**

the Mississippi from the Illinois, and sailed up the mighty stream almost to its source, and then down to its mouth, and, naming the entire Mississippi valley *Louisiana*, in honor of his king, Louis XIV., claimed that extensive and fertile region for France.

**French
Settle-
ments
in the
Missis-
sippi
Valley.**

In the latter part of the seventeenth century, and in the beginning of the eighteenth, the French made settlements on the banks of the Mississippi river, on the shores of the Great Lakes and on the coast of the Gulf of Mexico. Kaskaskia, in the present State of Illinois, was founded in 1683; Cahokia, also in the present Illinois, was founded about the year 1700 or 1701; Detroit, in Michigan, in 1701; and Vincennes, in Indiana, in 1705. In 1699 a company of French colonists, headed by Lemoine d'Iberville, a French Canadian, settled Biloxi, in the present State of Mississippi; and in 1702 most of the settlers of Biloxi founded the city of Mobile, in the present Alabama.

**Anthony
Crozat.**

**Missis-
sippi
Company.**

**New
Orleans.**

**Wars
with the
Natchez
and
Chick-
asaw
Indians.**

**French
Forts.**

**Jesuit
Mission
Stations.**

In 1712 Louisiana was leased for a stated period to Anthony Crozat, a wealthy French merchant, under whose auspices was built Fort Rosalie—the beginning of the present city of Natchez, in Mississippi. In 1767 Crozat relinquished his lease; and Louisiana was for fifteen years under the control of the Mississippi Company, which the Scotchman John Law had organized in France. Bienville, the governor sent to Louisiana by this Company, founded New Orleans in 1718.

In 1729 the Natchez Indians, exasperated at the threatened encroachments of the French, fell upon the French settlement at Fort Rosalie, massacred the men and carried the women into captivity. In revenge for this outrage, a body of French troops almost exterminated the Natchez the following year, 1730. A few years later the French made two unsuccessful attempts to subjugate the warlike Chickasaws, another powerful Indian tribe. The French built a chain of forts between Montreal and New Orleans, the most important of which were Detroit, erected in 1701; Niagara, in 1726, and Crown Point, in 1730.

The greater number of French settlements in the Mississippi Valley and on the shores of the Great Lakes were simply Jesuit mission stations and were widely scattered over a vast extent of country, and were not flourishing colonial establishments like those of the English on the Atlantic coast in the East. The Jesuits had great influence with the Indian tribes of the interior of the North American continent, and devoted their lives to the conversion of these savages to Roman Catholic Christianity. Even such settlements as Kaskaskia and Cahokia, on the Mississippi, within the domain of the present Illinois, were simply Jesuit mission stations. Others were Sault Ste. Marie, in the present Michigan, founded in 1668; St. Esprit, in the present Wisconsin, founded in 1666. Other French settlements or mission stations were those in the present Minnesota by Du Luth in 1678, by

Father Hennepin in 1680 and by Perrot at Lake Pepin in 1688; that on the site of Dubuque, in the present Iowa, in 1686; that of Arkansas Post, in the present Arkansas, in 1705; Green Bay, in the present Wisconsin, in 1745; two in the present Missouri, St. Genevieve in 1755, and St. Louis in 1764; and that by Julien Dubuque at Dubuque, in the present Iowa, in 1788.

SECTION IX.—SPAIN AND PORTUGAL IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

PHILIP III., who became King of Spain upon the death of his father Philip II., September 13, 1698, was an insignificant monarch. Spain had now entered fairly on her decline. The bigoted policy of Philip II. had robbed his kingdom of its power and glory, and had laid the foundations of its ruin. Still Spain was a great and formidable kingdom for some time longer, but she rapidly declined during the seventeenth century.

Philip III. continued his bigoted father's policy of ruin. In 1609 he issued an edict banishing the oppressed Moriscoes, or Christianized Moors, from Spain. As the export of gold from Spain was forbidden, the unfortunate Moriscoes were obliged to abandon most of their property, which was siezed by the Spanish government. The exile of the Moriscoes was conducted with the greatest cruelty. More than one hundred and thirty thousand embarked for Africa, but ninety-five thousand of these perished of hunger and exhaustion on the way. One hundred thousand others sought refuge in France, but were permitted to remain in that country only on condition of embracing Roman Catholic Christianity, which they had just rejected in Spain. They refused to do so, and were ordered to leave France. While waiting for transportation so many died in the French ports and were thrown into the sea that the fish were supposed to be poisoned.

By this cruel act Philip III. had dealt a fatal blow to the prosperity of his own kingdom. Miles of fertile fields that had been rich in the olive and the vine lay waste for want of tillage; and Spain has not yet recovered from the ruinous effects of the banishment of the Moriscoes, which was to her what the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes was to France.

Philip III. died in March, 1621, and was succeeded as King of Spain by his son PHILIP IV., who was then only sixteen years old, and who was superior to his father in many respects. Under Philip IV. the decay of Spain's greatness went on very rapidly. We have already alluded to the part which Spain took in the Thirty Years' War in

Philip
III., of
Spain,
A. D.
1598—
1621.

Banish-
ment
of the
Moors
from
Spain.

Its
Ruinous
Effect.

Philip
IV., A. D.
1621—
1665.

Spain
in the
Thirty
Years'
War.

Germany. She gained nothing by that struggle, all her earlier advantages having been wrested from her during the progress of the war. While the war was in progress Spain was confronted with revolts in Catalonia, Portugal and Naples.

Revolts
in Biscay
and Cat-
alonia.

The home forces of Spain were occupied for some time by the revolt of the provinces of Biscay and Catalonia. The intolerable outrages committed by a Spanish army quartered in those provinces during the campaign of 1639-'40 against the French exasperated the inhabitants. Bands of half-savage mountaineers, who were on their way to Barcelona to hire themselves out for labor in the fields, caught the fury; and by a sudden impulse all Castilians or foreigners in the city were massacred. The Catalanian insurgents sent to all the European powers a statement of their grievances against the Spanish government, and by a formal treaty Louis XIII. engaged to provide a military force to aid the Catalans. A Spanish army of twenty thousand men was already on its march to the frontier of Catalonia, marking its route by fire and blood; and the rebels soon transferred their allegiance to France.

French
Aid to
the Cat-
alonian
Rebels.

Success-
ful Revolt
of
Portugal
under the
Duke of
Braganza.

Spain suffered a more serious and permanent loss in the liberation of Portugal, in 1640. During her sixty years' union with Spain, Portugal had been oppressed, humiliated and impoverished by her Spanish conquerors. Portuguese commerce with the East and West Indies was crippled, the Portuguese navy was destroyed, and the Portuguese people were crushed with taxes which defrayed the cost of erecting unnecessary palaces for the Kings of Spain. When commanded to march against the revolted Catalans the Portuguese nobles and officers resolved to follow the example of those rebels. The Spanish guards of Lisbon and the vice-queen's palace were cut down. The Duke of Braganza, a descendant of the former Kings of Portugal, was proclaimed King of Portugal with the title of John IV., thus completing the revolution, A. D. 1640.

Portu-
guese
Declara-
tion of
Independ-
ence.

With the single exception of Ceuta, in North-western Africa, the Portuguese colonies overpowered their Spanish garrisons; and the Portuguese *Cortes* which assembled at Lisbon in 1641 declared the right of every nation to renounce the rule of a tyrant, even if he were a legitimate sovereign, and not a usurper like the King of Spain. This dynasty still reigns over Portugal, and a branch of it reigned over Brazil while that country was an empire.

Revolt of
Naples
under
Masaniello.

In 1647 Naples also revolted against Spain, the insurrection in that Italian dependency of the Spanish Hapsburgs being under the leadership of the fisherman Masaniello. Although Ferdinand the Catholic and the Emperor Charles V. had promised the Neapolitans that no taxes should be levied upon them without the consent of the Estates of

Naples, the Spanish kings were accustomed to disregard their promises, as they looked upon their Italian possessions simply as an inexhaustible source of revenue. The Spanish viceroy of Naples neglected to summon the Neapolitan Estates, and levied taxes at his own pleasure. All the simplest necessities of life were taxed heavily; and in 1647 an impost was levied upon fruit, the chief article of food that hitherto had escaped this burden. This caused the insurrection of the poor of Naples, who had already suffered severely from the oppressive taxes.

Under the leadership of the young Amalfi fisherman Masaniello, the insurgents of Naples obtained possession of the city of Naples, burned the custom-house and forced the viceroy to take refuge in the Castle of St. Elmo. About the same time the inhabitants of Palermo rose in arms against the Spanish viceroy of Sicily. The viceroy of Naples succeeded in gaining over many of the rebels by promises which he never intended to fulfill, and caused their leader Masaniello to be assassinated, thus ending the revolt.

Betrayal and Assassination of Masaniello.

Another revolt broke out at Naples in August, 1647. The rebels compelled Don John of Austria, the illegitimate son of King Philip IV. of Spain, to recall his army after several days of street-fighting; but they appeared utterly helpless since the assassination of Masaniello, in whom they reposed the most implicit faith. They selected Gennaro Annesi for their leader, and by his advice they invited the Duke of Guise to place himself at their head and to assist them in founding a republic.

Another Revolt in Naples under Gennaro Annesi.

The Duke of Guise came promptly, as he expected to recover the possessions of the House of Anjou, from which he was descended; but the Neapolitans soon saw through his design and became discontented. The duke mortally offended Gennaro Annesi, who gratified his revenge by betraying the city to the Spaniards, thus ending the revolt. The Spaniards executed Gennaro Annesi and many others of the popular party, and crushed the spirit of the Neapolitan people by a series of barbarous cruelties. The revolt in Sicily was ended more easily. The Spanish viceroy disarmed the rebels by a liberal proclamation of amnesty, and then shot down many of them in the streets.

Submission and Punishment of the Rebels.

The revolt of Naples, and the great strain put upon the resources of Philip IV. by the Thirty Years' War, reduced him to the necessity of concluding the Peace of Münster with the Dutch Republic, in January, 1648; thus acknowledging that vigorous young state as an independent power among the nations of the earth, and ceding to it the towns of Dutch Flanders and the Dutch conquests in the East Indies, in Africa and in the New World.

Independence of the Dutch Republic.

As we have seen, the Peace of Westphalia, October 24, 1648, which ended the Thirty Years' War, did not end hostilities between Spain and

Continued War with France.

Peace
of the
Pyrenees.

France, which continued eleven years longer, until ended by the Peace of the Pyrenees, November 7, 1659, by which Spain was obliged to cede to France the county of Roussillon, north of the Pyrenees, and the county of Artois, in the Spanish Netherlands. Spain retained the rest of the Spanish Netherlands, and also Franche-Comté, the Duchy of Milan and the Kingdom of Naples and Sicily. By the Treaty of the Pyrenees, Spain surrendered the last vestige of supremacy which she had exercised in Europe since the reign of Philip II.; and she rapidly sunk into insignificance.

Charles
II., A. D.
1665-
1700.

Philip IV. died in September, 1665, and was succeeded as King of Spain by his son CHARLES II., the child of a second marriage. Excepting the wars with Louis XIV. of France, the reign of Charles II. was uneventful. He was the last of the dynasty of the Spanish Hapsburgs, who had reigned over the Spanish dominions for almost two centuries, beginning with Charles I., the Emperor Charles V. of Germany, in 1516.

War
of the
Spanish
Succession
and
House of
Bourbon.

As Charles II. was childless, his death in 1700 gave rise to a contest for the Spanish dominions, which brought on the general European struggle known as the War of the Spanish Succession, A. D. 1702-1714, which placed the French House of Bourbon on the Spanish throne, in the person of Duke Philip of Anjou, who became PHILIP V. By the Peace of Utrecht, in 1713, Spain ceded the Spanish Netherlands, Milan, Naples and Sicily to the Emperor Charles VI. of Germany, the head of the Austrian House of Hapsburg and the competitor of Philip of Anjou for the Spanish throne; while Gibraltar and Minorca were ceded to England, and Spain and Portugal resumed their former boundaries.

Philip V.,
A. D.
1700-
1746.

Portugal
during
Her
Sixty
Years'
Union
with
Spain.

During the sixty years' subjection of Portugal to the Spanish crown the greatness of Portugal steadily declined. The Portuguese possessions in North-western Africa passed into the hands of Spain, and Ceuta was thus permanently lost to Portugal. The Dutch became formidable rivals of the Portuguese on the western coast of Africa, and deprived them of much of their commerce in that quarter. In the East Indies the Dutch also seized many of the Portuguese possessions and absorbed the Portuguese trade, thus giving the death-blow to the Portuguese supremacy in that part of the world, and placing the remaining Portuguese settlements in Southern and Eastern Asia in great peril. At the same time the English laid the foundations of their empire in India, which was destined eventually to overshadow both the Portuguese and Dutch dominions in that quarter.

Brazil
during
that
Period.

During the same period the European enemies of Spain also attacked Brazil, which Portuguese dependency also had fallen into the hands of Spain. The Portuguese settlements in Brazil were often at-

tacked and plundered by French, English and Dutch fleets. In 1612 the French seized Maranhao and founded the city of Sao Luiz do Maranhao, but in 1615 the Portuguese expelled the French from that town. In 1623 a Dutch fleet captured Bahia, but in 1625 the Dutch garrison in that town was forced to surrender to the Portuguese. In 1629 the Dutch captured Pernambuco; after which they rapidly extended their conquests in Brazil, so that by 1645 they had possession of all Brazil north of Pernambuco, except Para.

The Portuguese universally detested the Spaniards; and the Spanish rule was so oppressive that the popular discontent in Portugal steadily increased, until 1640, when the Portuguese rose in revolt and proclaimed the Duke of Braganza King of Portugal with the title of JOHN IV. France, England and Holland at once recognized the independence of Portugal under the House of Braganza, France and Holland being engaged in hostilities with Spain during the progress of the Thirty Years' War. John IV. successfully resisted the efforts which Spain made during his entire reign to reconquer Portugal.

During the reign of John IV. the Portuguese gradually drove the Dutch from Brazil, and recovered that entire dependency by 1654. Brazil was erected into a principality, and the heir-apparent to the crown of Portugal was invested with the title of Prince of Brazil. In the meantime Brazil had prospered steadily, in spite of the struggles with the Dutch and the exactions of the home government. The prosperity of the province was based on agriculture.

King John IV. died in 1656, and was succeeded on the throne of Portugal by his second son, ALFONSO VI., whose elder brother had died some time before. In 1660 Holland concluded a treaty with Portugal renouncing all her claims to Brazil. In 1661 a treaty of alliance was concluded between Portugal and England; by which the Princess Catharine of Braganza, the daughter of King Alfonso VI., was married to King Charles II. of England; while Portugal ceded Tangier, in North-western Africa, and Bombay, in Hindoostan, to England as Catharine's dowry. This treaty was the beginning of intimate relations between Portugal and England which lasted a long time and had a marked effect upon the fortunes of Portugal.

King Alfonso VI. was so weak and contemptible a monarch that the Spaniards felt encouraged to prosecute hostilities against the Portuguese with increased vigor; but the Portuguese were victorious, the Spaniards being decisively defeated at Almedia in 1663 and at Villaviciosa in 1666. The battle of Villaviciosa virtually secured the independence of Portugal, though Spain still refused to acknowledge it.

The Portuguese had become so disgusted with Alfonso VI. that the Portuguese Cortes deprived him of his authority as an imbecile, in

Revolt of
Portugal
against
Spain.

John IV.,
A. D.
1640-
1656.

Portu-
guese
Recovery
of Brazil.

Alfonso
VI., A. D.
1656-
1683.

Alliance
of
Portugal
and
England.

Portu-
guese
Victories
over the
Span-
iards.

Dom
Pedro's
Regency.

Peace of
Lisbon
with
Spain.

1667, and made his brother Dom Pedro regent. A dispensation was obtained from Pope Clement IX. annulling Alfonso's marriage; and his divorced queen, Mary of Savoy, then married Dom Pedro. One of the first acts of the regency was the Peace of Lisbon with Spain, February 13, 1668, by which Spain treated with the Portuguese as a sovereign and independent nation, and a mutual restitution of all conquests during the war was made, with the exception of the city of Ceuta, in North-western Africa, which remained to Spain. The subjects of both nations recovered all property alienated or confiscated during the war. By the Peace of The Hague between Portugal and Holland, July 31, 1669, the Dutch were left in possession of all the conquests which they had made from the Portuguese in the East Indies.

Peace of
The
Hague
with
Holland.

Pedro II.,
A. D.
1683-
1706.

King Alfonso VI. was closely confined until his death, in 1683, when the regent Dom Pedro ascended the throne of Portugal with the title of PEDRO II. In 1696 gold was discovered in Brazil, and diamonds also were found in that country about the same time. These discoveries vastly increased the wealth of Brazil, and poured a steady stream of wealth into the Portuguese treasury. In 1703 Portugal, by an offensive and defensive alliance with England, was drawn into the War of the Spanish Succession. During the war Pedro II. died, and was succeeded as King of Portugal by his son JOHN V., A. D. 1706, during whose reign Spain by treaty formally acknowledged the independence of Portugal, A. D. 1737.

Weak-
ness and
Decay of
Portugal.

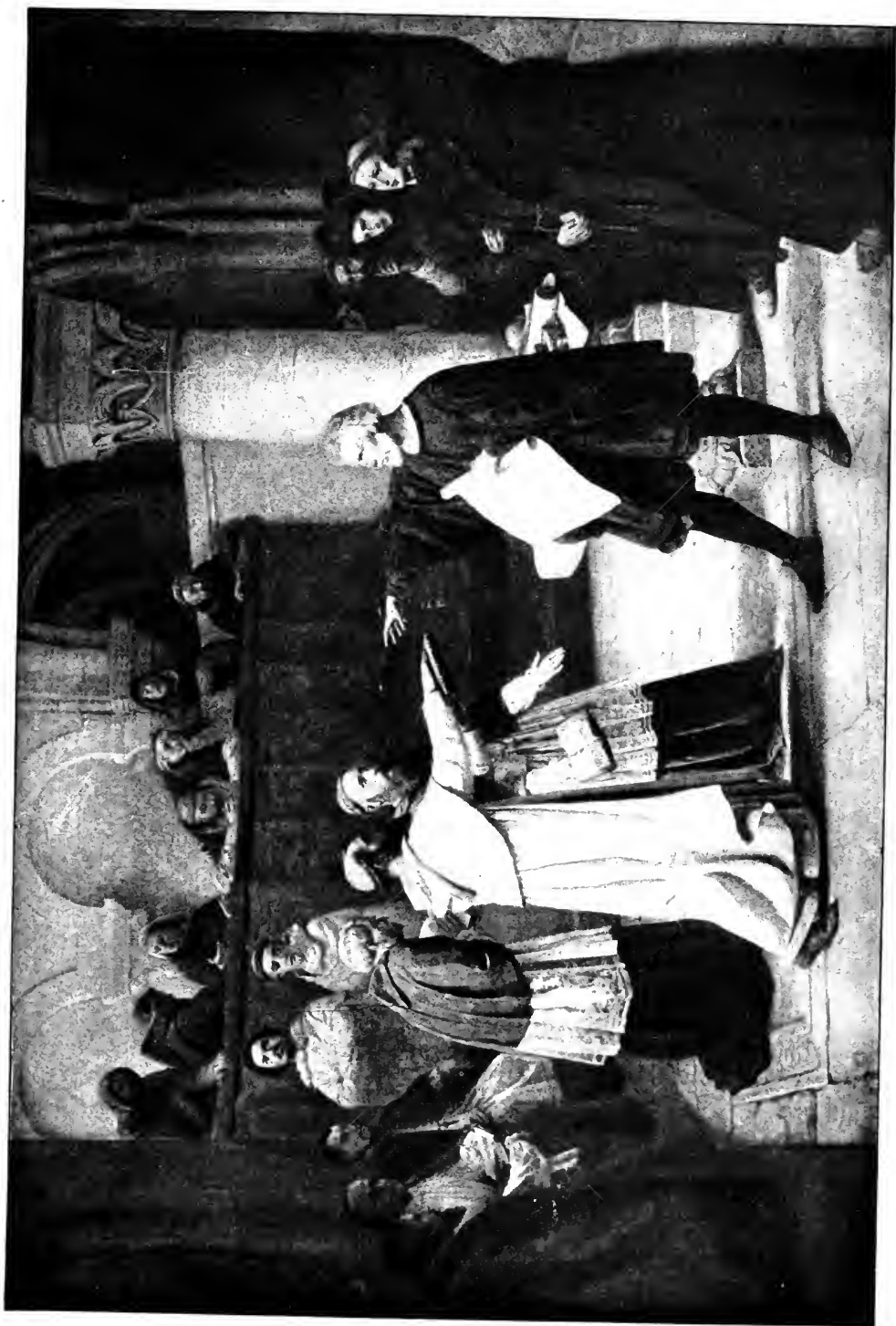
The history of Portugal thenceforth is generally unimportant and uneventful. Though the country had recovered its independence, the restored Kingdom of Portugal lacked vigor, and has manifested the same tendency to decay that has characterized Spain since the reign of Philip II. Though Portugal had recovered her independence through the growing feebleness and decline of Spain, the restored kingdom was unable to recover more than half its old colonial empire, most of its former possessions in the East Indies having come into the possession of the young and vigorous Dutch Republic. Only in Brazil and on the east and west coast of Africa and in the Azores and Cape de Verd Islands was Portugal able to reestablish her old dominion.

Loss of
Portu-
guese
Colonies.

SECTION X.—SEVENTEENTH CENTURY CIVILIZATION.

Great
Results
of the
Seven-
teenth
Century.

THE Reformation achieved its final triumph in the Thirty Years' War. The struggle in England between the Stuart dynasty and the people as represented by the Commons ended in the establishment of the free constitution of England by "the Glorious Revolution of 1688."



GALILEO BEFORE THE INQUISITION

From a Painting by an unknown Artist

The supremacy of France during the Age of Louis XIV. established the ascendancy of the French language, tastes, fashions, manners, and habits of thought among the cultivated and intellectual classes throughout Europe. The revival of learning and science begun in the sixteenth century was continued during the seventeenth, which was signalized by great scientific discoveries, improvements in philosophy, strong literatures and an improved condition of the masses.

FRANCIS BACON (1561-1626)—the great English philosopher, known better as Lord Bacon (Baron Verulam, Viscount St. Albans)—founded the *inductive* system of philosophy; and his great works were his *Essays*, the *Advancement of Learning* and *Novum Organum*.

Lord
Bacon.

DESCARTES (1596-1650)—the eminent French philosopher—had great influence on the method of philosophizing in the seventeenth century. He was the tutor of Queen Christina of Sweden.

Descartes.

SPINOZA (1622-1677)—a Jew of Holland and likewise a great philosopher—carried forward the new system of philosophy founded by Bacon and Descartes, and was a famous Pantheist.

Spinoza.

THOMAS HOBBS (1588-1679)—a famous English philosopher—was early associated with Galileo and Descartes; and his principal works are the *Leviathan* and *Behemoth*. JOHN LOCKE (1632-1704)—a celebrated English philosopher—wrote an *Essay on the Human Understanding*.

Hobbes
and
Locke.

GALILEO (1564-1642)—the distinguished Italian astronomer—adopted the Copernican theory of the solar system and invented the telescope, with the aid of which he discovered the satellites of Jupiter, the rings of Saturn and the moonlike phases of Venus. He was twice brought before the Inquisition to renounce the theory of the earth's rotation which he published in his *System of the World*. His second incarceration brought on an affection of the eyes terminating in blindness.

Galileo.

KEPLER (1571-1630)—the eminent German astronomer, called "the Legislator of the Heavens"—discovered what are known as *Kepler's Three Laws*, which laid the foundations of mathematical astronomy. Kepler was one of the greatest thinkers of any age. He combined the inspiration of a prophet and the creative genius of a poet with the method of a mathematician. Persecuted by religious bigots, he led a melancholy life in the most abject poverty.

Kepler.

SIR ISAAC NEWTON (1642-1727)—the illustrious English astronomer, mathematician and philosopher, who was then professor of mathematics at Cambridge University—discovered the law of universal gravitation, by which the earth and all the heavenly bodies are kept in their respective places. Newton's theory of light and colors is the foundation of the science of optics; and his Latin Work, *Principia*, is the

Sir Isaac
Newton.

basis of all natural philosophy, or physics. Newton also discovered that important instrument of mathematics, the *Calculus*.

Leibnitz. LEIBNITZ (1640-1716)—an eminent German philosopher, metaphysician, mathematician, historian, jurist and scholar—was the founder of the *eclectic* system of German philosophy, and discovered the *Calculus* about the same time as Newton.

Other Great Scientists and Their Discoveries. Besides the great scientific discoveries by Galileo, Kepler, Newton and Leibnitz—the four great scientific lights during the seventeenth century—there were numerous other discoveries in mathematics, astronomy and natural science. LORD NAPIER (1550-1617)—a Scotchman—invented *logarithms*, thus abridging calculation. WILLIAM HARVEY (1578-1657)—a great English physician and surgeon—discovered the circulation of the blood, which he first announced in 1615 and published in 1628. The Italian TORRICELLI (1608-1647), of Florence, invented the mercurial barometer, the basis of *hydraulics*. ROEMER (1644-1710), a Dane, invented the thermometer bearing his name. OTTE GUERICKE (1602-1686), a German, invented the air-pump. The German chemist BRANDT accidentally discovered phosphorus in 1669. ROBERT BOYLE (1627-1691)—a famous Irish-English philosopher, noted for his piety—also made chemical discoveries. MARIOTTE (1620-1684) and DELISLE (1675-1726) were distinguished French physicists. HUYGHENS (1629-1695)—a Dutch astronomer—discovered Saturn's rings and one of his satellites. CASSINI (1625-1712)—an Italian astronomer—discovered four satellites of Saturn. His son, James Cassini, discovered the divisions in Saturn's ring. The renowned English astronomer, EDMUND HALLEY (1656-1742), made important discoveries highly serviceable to navigation, and discovered the comet bearing his name. The *English Royal Society* incorporated by Charles II., the *French Academy of Sciences* instituted by Richelieu, and similar institutions in other European countries, advanced physics and chemistry.

Great French Dramatists. The Age of Louis XIV.—the *Augustan Age of French Literature*—shone resplendent with the names of great dramatists, satirists and divines. CORNEILLE (1606-1684)—a great dramatist—excelled in tragedy, as *The Cid*. RACINE (1639-1699)—the greatest French dramatist—was noted for his tragedies. MOLIÈRE (1622-1673)—also a great dramatist—surpassed in comedy.

Other Great French Writers. PASCAL (1623-1662)—a great philosopher and scientist—wrote against the Jesuits in his *Provincial Letters*. LA ROCHEFAUCAULD (1613-1680) was noted for his *Moral Maxims*. LA FONTAINE (1621-1705)—the “Modern *Æsop*”—was celebrated for his *Fables*. FÉNELON (1651-1715)—Archbishop of Cambray—was celebrated for his romance, *Télémaque*. FLEURY (1642-1723)—a church historian

—wrote *Histoire Ecclesiastique*. BAYLE (1647–1706) was a celebrated Huguenot writer. BOILEAU (1637–1711) was a great critic and satirical poet. MADAME DE SEVIGNE (1627–1696) was famed for her delightful letters to her daughter.

BOSSUET (1627–1704)—Bishop of Meaux—was a great preacher. BOURDALOUE (1632–1704) was also a famous pulpit orator. MASSILLON (1663–1742) was likewise renowned for pulpit eloquence.

In English literature we find many dramatists who were contemporaries and successors of Shakespeare, who died in 1616. BEN JONSON (1574–1637)—poet-laureate under James I.—was the greatest dramatist after Shakespeare. Other great dramatic poets were FRANCIS BEAUMONT (1585–1615) and JOHN FLETCHER (1576–1625), who were associated in their writings; and PHILIP MASSINGER (1584–1640).

JOHN MILTON (1608–1674)—the great epic poet of England—who had been Oliver Cromwell's Latin secretary, wrote *Paradise Lost* and *Paradise Regained*, in poverty and blindness, after the Stuart Restoration in 1660. SAMUEL BUTLER (1612–1680) wrote *Hudibras*, a satirical poem on the Puritans. JOHN DRYDEN (1631–1700)—poet-laureate under Charles II.—wrote dramas and satirical poems, and translated Virgil's *Æneid*.

JOHN BUNYAN (1628–1688)—a tinker of Bedford and a Baptist preacher—was imprisoned twelve years for preaching, during which he wrote *Pilgrim's Progress*, the most famous allegory in the English language, and which has been translated into all languages. JEREMY TAYLOR (1613–1667)—a great divine and theologian—wrote such works as *Liberty of Prophecy*, *Holy Living* and *Holy Dying*.

EDWARD HYDE, EARL OF CLARENDON (1608–1673)—the great statesman and Prime Minister of Charles II.—described the civil war between Charles I. and Parliament in his *History of the Rebellion*. SIR MATTHEW HALE (1609–1676) was a famous English jurist and writer.

Spain produced two great dramatic poets during the seventeenth century. LOPE DE VEGA (1562–1635) wrote a thousand dramas. CALDERON (1600–1681) wrote about five hundred dramas.

The three greatest artists of the seventeenth century were natives of the Netherlands. PETER PAUL RUBENS (1577–1640)—the most celebrated of the Flemish painters—flourished at Antwerp, and painted four thousand pictures, of which the most noted are the *Descent from the Cross*, the *Last Judgment* and *Peace and War*. VANDYKE (1599–1641)—a pupil of Rubens and a great portrait painter—was a native of Antwerp, but spent most of his life in England, where he painted the portraits of Charles I. and Strafford, and a historical painting, *The*

Great
French
Divines.

Great
English
Dramatists.

Other
Great
English
Poets.

Great
English
Divines.

Other
English
Writers.

Spanish
Dramatists.

Great
Flemish
Painters.

Crucifixion. REMBRANDT (1606–1669)—a native of Leyden—was the third great painter of the Flemish school.

French Painters. POUSSIN (1594–1655) was a famous French painter, whose chief paintings are the *Death of Germanicus*, the *Taking of Jerusalem* and the *Last Supper*. CLAUDE LORRAINE (1600–1682) and LEBRUN (1619–1690) were also celebrated French painters.

Spanish Painters. MURILLO (1618–1682)—the great Spanish painter—painted scenes of humble life and religious pieces, such as *Madonnas*, holy families and others; and died from the effects of a severe fall while painting the interior of a church. VELASQUEZ (1599–1660) was also a great Spanish painter. SALVATOR ROSA (1615–1673) was a famous Italian painter and poet.

English Architects. INIGO JONES (1596–1652) and SIR CHRISTOPHER WREN (1632–1723) were great English architects; the latter being the architect of St. Paul's Cathedral in London, the largest Protestant church in the world. CLAUDE PERAULT (1613–1703) and MANSARD (1645–1708) were noted French architects.

George Fox and the Quakers in England. As we have seen, the extreme Puritan sect of *Friends*, or *Quakers*, was founded in England by George Fox during the civil wars. George Fox early bewailed the wickedness of the world, and when asked into a booth at a fair by some professors of religion, who then began to drink healths, he left them and went home in great affliction; and, being unable to sleep that night, he walked up and down and prayed to the Lord. In 1643 he left his home and relatives, and traveled from place to place, his mind being in great distress. He sought comfort from priests and professors of religion, but found none. Only the "inward light" comforted him. He traveled about in leather costume, fasted, walked abroad in solitary places, many days took his Bible and sat in hollow trees and lonely places until the approach of night, and frequently walked mournfully by himself all night. He began to preach in 1648, and suffered much persecution, his meetings being broken up, himself being stoned and frequently imprisoned.

Quaker Doctrines. George Fox condemned war as a sin in which no Christian man should engage either by military service or the payment of taxes to support an army; advocated equal rights for women, allowing them to speak and preach in public; condemned slavery, intemperance, judicial oaths, capital punishment, imprisonment for debt, extravagance and waste, vanity and idle luxury, the senseless changes of fashion, and all falsehood in act or speech; denounced a hireling ministry; rejected Baptism and the Lord's Supper; and made the authority of the Bible subordinate to that of the "universal inner light" in men's hearts.

The Quakers were a peculiar sect in their dress and in all their social habits and customs. Their zeal was tried by cruel persecution.

They were cast into prison and mad-houses; they were pilloried; they were whipped; they were burned in the face; and their tongues were bored with red-hot irons; but nothing could overcome their fortitude and constancy or quench their enthusiasm. Those who were driven out of England vainly sought an asylum among their former brethren in affliction, the Puritans of New England, by whom also they were persecuted; but under William Penn they found a refuge in the wilds of Pennsylvania.

**Persecution
of the
Quakers.**

The maritime enterprises of the Portuguese during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, which had given that nation the greatest commercial influence, gave way to the superior vigor and enterprise of the Dutch in the seventeenth century. The famous Dutch East India Company, chartered in 1602, caused a union of the interests and efforts of the rival cities of the Netherlands. The military and naval power of the Dutch East India Company was enormous. This great commercial corporation had a formidable army, and a navy of one hundred and fifty vessels carrying from twenty to sixty guns, besides fifty smaller vessels. The States-General of Holland at various times subsidized the Company in order to enable it to carry on its wars.

**Dutch
Com-
merce.**

**Dutch
East
India
Company.**

The center of the Dutch East India Company was at Batavia, in the island of Java—a city called the “Pearl of the East,” and which had a population of one hundred and sixty thousand at the close of the seventeenth century. The Dutch gained the supremacy by their conflicts with the Portuguese, and the Dutch colonies soon became numerous and important.

**Dutch
Colony of
Batavia.**

The French also established an East India Company for trade in India, and there was also a Danish East India Company in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The English East India Company, chartered by Queen Elizabeth, December 31, 1600, has been alluded to. Its first factory was erected at Surat in 1612. It obtained the city of Madras by grant from its native sovereign in 1639. It obtained Bombay by cession from the Portuguese in 1662. In 1699 an English settlement was made at Calcutta.

**French,
Danish
and
English
East
India
Compa-
nies.**

Henry IV. of France encouraged various kinds of commerce and manufactures; and during the reign of Louis XIV., under Colbert's administration, every department of industrial and commercial enterprise received its greatest impulse in France. Colbert established companies to trade in the East and West Indies, thus forming a rival to the Dutch. He promoted the manufacture of fine cloths, fostered the cultivation of mulberry-trees, and encouraged the art of making plate-glass, which had previously been imported into France from Venice. From that period date the manufacture of porcelain at Sevres and the world-renowned Gobelin tapestry. Colbert imported

**French
Com-
merce
and
Manufac-
tures.**

from England machinery for weaving stockings, and introduced lace-making from Flanders and Venice. He also vastly promoted commerce by the construction of the Canal of Languedoc, connecting the Atlantic Ocean with the Mediterranean, A. D. 1664–1681.

**English
Com-
merce.**

Commerce and navigation flourished greatly in England during the reign of Charles I., when a large trade was carried on with Guinea, the Levant and the East Indies; while immense quantities of cloth were exported annually from England to Turkey, and the English possessed almost a monopoly of the traffic with Spain. English commerce was interrupted during the civil wars, but soon recovered after the Stuart Restoration, in 1660, and received additional encouragement from the losses which befell the Dutch. England soon acquired a considerable trade with her colonies in North America, about five hundred vessels being employed in trade with those colonies and with the West Indies at the end of the seventeenth century. Some of these vessels were engaged in the slave-trade. Tea and coffee were brought to England from the East, and were so expensive for a time that they were then used only as luxuries. In spite of *The Counterblaste to Tobacco*, written by King James I., who greatly disliked the use of that article, tobacco became an important article of commerce. English whale-ships visited Greenland and Spitzbergen; while Madras and Bombay, in Hindoostan, became the great centers of trade of the English East India Company.

**English
Manufac-
tures.**

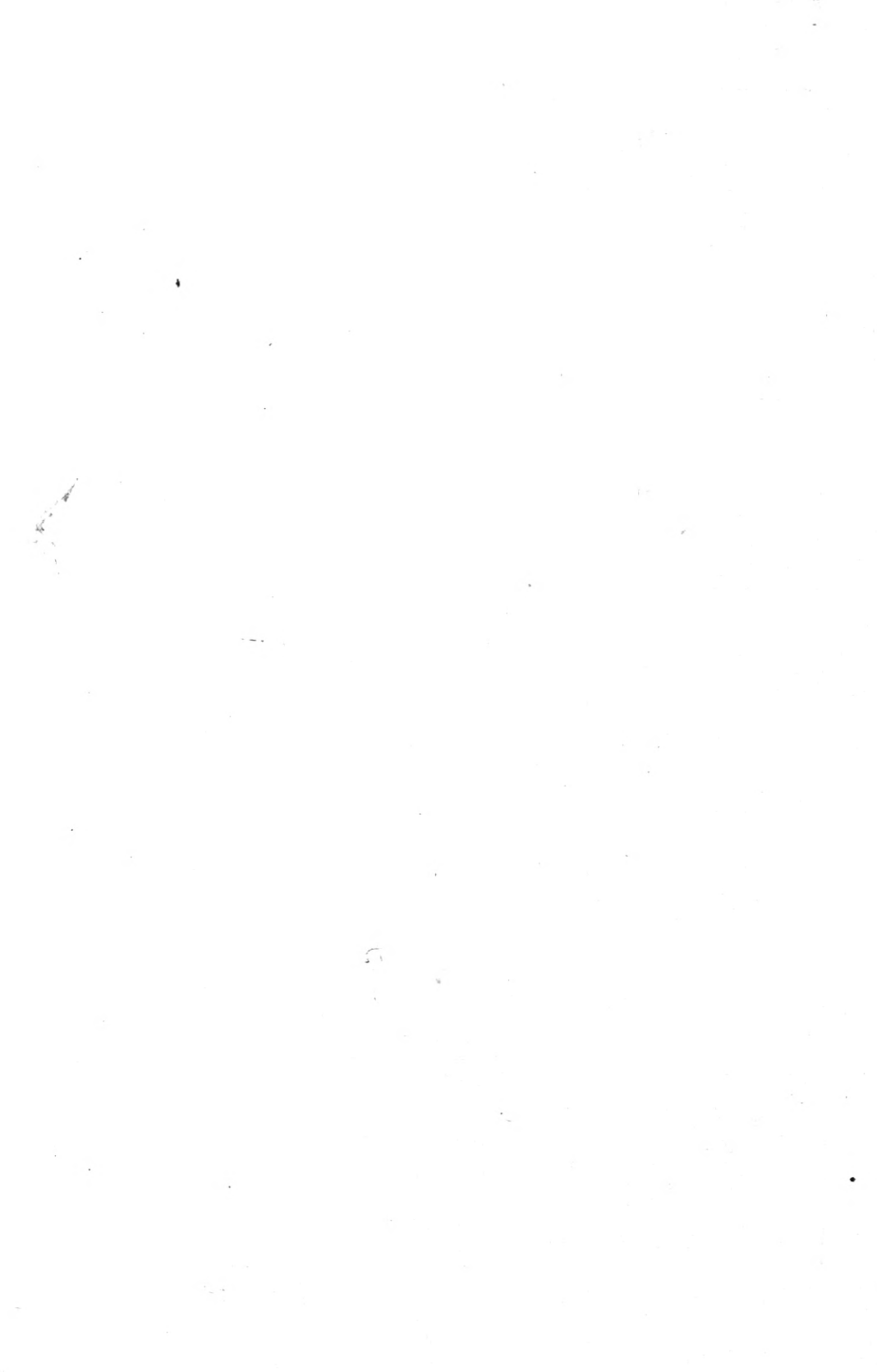
Next to London, Bristol was the chief sea-port of England; and Norwich was, next to London, the principal manufacturing city of the kingdom. The present great manufacturing centers of England—Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield and Leeds—were then small towns; and Liverpool had less than two hundred seamen. But manufacturing industry then began its present prominence in England. The cotton manufacture at Manchester commenced, and the art of dyeing woolen cloths was introduced into England from Flanders, thus saving large sums of money to the English. New manufactures of iron, brass, silk and paper were also established in England. The manufacture of oil-cloth in England began in 1660. The Duke of Buckingham introduced glass-making from Venice.

**French
Architec-
ture.**

Architecture flourished in France during the seventeenth century. Henry IV. completed the splendid palace of St. Germain and the Hôtel de Ville, both of which had been begun by Francis I., and erected many other magnificent structures. Louis XIV. completed the Palais Royal, begun by Richelieu, and adorned Paris with many parks and public edifices; but the most splendid of his works were the famous palace and gardens of Versailles. The fine arts flourished in England under the Stuarts.



MILITARY AND CIVIL EQUESTRIAN COSTUMES, END OF SIXTEENTH CENTURY



CHAPTER XXXVI.

STATES-SYSTEM IN NORTH AND EAST.

SECTION I.—WARS OF DENMARK, SWEDEN AND BRANDENBURG (A. D. 1599–1679).

DURING the sixty years reign of CHRISTIAN IV., A. D. 1588–1648, Denmark was prosperous, notwithstanding her disastrous wars. The Danish monarchy embraced all of Denmark and Norway, with the seven southern provinces of Sweden; while Iceland and Greenland were among its foreign possessions. In 1611 Christian IV. began a foolish and useless war with the King of Sweden; but this war was ended by the Peace of Siorod in 1613, through the mediation of England. The part which Christian IV. took in the Thirty Years' War as an ally of the German Protestants, which ended in his defeat and which was closed by the Peace of Lübeck in 1629, has already been alluded to; as has also his disastrous war with Sweden in 1644, which was ended by the Peace of Brömsebro, in August, 1645.

Christian IV., of Denmark, A. D. 1588–1648.

His Wars with Sweden.

Upon the death of Christian IV., in 1648, his son FREDERICK III. became King of Denmark and Norway. In 1657 Frederick III. became involved in a war with Charles X. of Sweden, which was ended by the Peace of Roskild in 1658. A second war with Charles X. of Sweden, begun in 1658, was ended by the Peace of Copenhagen in 1660. In 1660 Frederick III. accomplished a peaceful revolution by which he changed the constitution of Denmark, thus converting his kingdom from an elective and limited monarchy into an absolute and hereditary one. Thus the Danish nobility were deprived of their great privileges and revenues by the *Royal Law*, which conferred unlimited power upon the king. The nobles thus lost their former power and independent position, and were bound very closely to the throne by titles and orders.

Frederick III., of Denmark, A. D. 1648–1670

His Wars with Sweden

Royal Law.

Frederick III. died in 1670, and was succeeded on the Danish throne by his son CHRISTIAN V., who engaged in a war with Charles XI. of Sweden in 1675, which was ended in 1679 through the intervention of Louis XIV. of France. Upon the death of Christian V., in 1699, his

Christian V., A. D. 1670–1699.

Frederick IV., A. D. 1699-1730. son FREDERICK IV. became King of Denmark and Norway. He reigned until his death in 1730.

Charles IX. of Sweden, A. D. 1599-1611. CHARLES IX. of Sweden was engaged during part of his reign of twelve years, A. D. 1599-1611, in a war with his nephew and predecessor, King Sigismund III. of Poland, who still claimed the Swedish crown after his deposition by the Swedish Diet. A few months before his death, in 1611, Charles IX. became involved in a war with Christian IV. of Denmark. Among the causes of complaint of the two kings was one that each bore upon his shield three crowns symbolizing the three Scandinavian kingdoms.

Gustavus Adolphus, A. D. 1611-1632. Upon the death of Charles IX., in the fall of 1611, his son, the illustrious GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS—"the Lion of the North"—became King of Sweden at the age of sixteen. He chose for his Prime Minister the famous Axel Oxenstiern, a man of profound wisdom and good judgment, a model statesman and diplomatist, and the prime mover in Swedish affairs for a long series of years.

Axel Oxenstiern
Gustavus Adolphus as a Warrior. Gustavus Adolphus had served his apprenticeship in the art of war in the struggle with Christian IV. of Denmark, and he was destined to become not only one of the most famous of military heroes, but also the founder of a new system of warfare and army organization, which in the course of time superseded the closely-serried ranks of the Swiss pikemen and the Spanish lancers.

His Wars with Denmark and Russia. Through the mediation of England, the war with Christian IV. of Denmark was ended in two years by the Peace of Siorod, in January, 1613; but a war with Russia had already begun. The male line of Rurik having become extinct, a party in Russia desired to place a brother of Gustavus Adolphus on the Russian throne. The Swedes gained some advantages in this war, but the greater part of the Russian nation succeeded in maintaining the right of Michael Romanoff to the Russian crown. By the Peace of Stolbova, in 1617, Russia ceded considerable territory to Sweden, including the site of the present city of St. Petersburg.

Peace of Stolbova.
His war with Poland. In 1620 Gustavus Adolphus became involved in a war of nine years with his cousin, King Sigismund III. of Poland, caused by the latter's pretensions to the Swedish crown. This war was ended in 1629, by the six years' Truce of Altmark, through the mediation of France, whose illustrious Prime Minister, Cardinal Richelieu, was anxious to allow Gustavus Adolphus liberty to engage in the great Thirty Years' War in Germany. By this war with Poland, Sweden acquired Livonia and part of Prussia; but far more valuable were the discipline and experience which enabled Gustavus Adolphus to assume his place as the great leader and champion of the Protestant hosts in the Thirty Years' War.

Truce of Altmark.

As we have seen, Gustavus Adolphus, upon leaving Sweden in 1630 to take part in the Thirty Years' War, placed the government of his kingdom in the hands of a Council of Regency presided over by his able Prime Minister, the Chancellor, Axel Oxenstiern; confiding his infant daughter Christina to this council. Upon her valiant father's death on the memorable field of Lutzen, in 1632, CHRISTINA was proclaimed Queen of Sweden; the government being administered by Oxenstiern, under whose guidance Sweden became the head of the Protestant league. The Thirty Years' War made Sweden the great military power of the North, and gave rise to the States-System in the Northern kingdoms of Europe.

Gustavus
Adolphus
in the
Thirty
Years'
War.

Christina,
A. D.
1632-
1654

During the young queen's minority the noble families of Sweden improved their opportunity to increase their privileges and property. Christina assumed the government in 1644; and during the first years of her reign she displayed a wisdom, a firmness and a manifold ability which surprised her venerable counselors, and thus proved herself a worthy daughter and successor of Gustavus Adolphus. She exhibited a masculine spirit and character in everything. Her influence in favor of peace was felt in the Treaty of Westphalia.

Her
Reign.

Christina surrounded herself with a brilliant court adorned with the society of artists and scholars from all Europe, whom she invited to Stockholm. Her extraordinary accomplishments won the admiration of the learned foreigners who thronged her court, among whom was the great French philosopher Descartes.

Her
Patronage
of
Learning.

Unfortunately, Christina's powers of mind were not properly balanced and supported by steadiness of purpose. She wasted her revenues in fantastic entertainments, and bestowed the crown-lands on her favorites, who made use of her gifts to oppose the royal prerogatives in the next reign.

Her
Extrava-
gance.

As the years advanced, Christina disappointed the expectations that had been formed of her in the early part of her reign. Her taste for art and her love for science found little encouragement in the Protestant North, and for that reason she never found herself at home in her kingdom. Thus becoming weary of the cares of state, and in order to indulge her artistic and scientific tastes, she abdicated the throne of Sweden in 1654, after a reign of ten years and in the twenty-eighth year of her age, naming her cousin Charles Gustavus of Pfalz-Zweibrücken as her successor, and reserving an annuity for herself.

Her
Abdica-
tion.

Christina then left her native Sweden and sought freedom in a milder climate. At Innsbruck she abjured her father's religion and was solemnly admitted into the Roman Catholic Church. She passed the remaining thirty-five years of her life in wandering over Europe; traveling through the Netherlands, France and Italy, and twice re-

Her
Wander-
ings in
Other
Lands.

visiting Sweden; dividing her time between learning and vice; and finally establishing her permanent residence in that renowned city filled with all the splendor of art—Rome—where she ended her dissolute life in 1689 at the age of sixty-three.

Charles X., A. D. 1654-1660. CHARLES X., the cousin and successor of Christina, upon his accession in 1654, found Sweden still exhausted by her efforts in the Thirty Years' War, as well as by Christina's extravagant expenditures. Nevertheless, he was ambitious of building up a great Scandinavian empire in the North of Europe under the supremacy of Sweden, and thus making himself the absolute master of the North. The weakness of the neighboring kingdoms of Denmark and Poland seemed to flatter the hopes of the ambitious King of Sweden.

His Alliance with Alexis of Russia against Poland. As John Casimir, King of Poland, claimed the Swedish crown, the Swedish monarch formed an alliance with the Czar Alexis of Russia, the second of the Romanoffs, who found a pretext for war with Poland in a revolt of the Cossacks of the Ukraine against the Polish kingdom, to which they had been subject since 1386. In 1654 the Czar Alexis besieged and took Smolensk, while other Russian armies occupied Lithuania and the Ukraine; and in 1655 two Swedish armies invaded Poland, while the Swedish fleet blockaded the free city of Dantzic.

His Temporary Conquest of Poland. In August, 1655, King Charles X. of Sweden defeated King John Casimir of Poland in the decisive battle of Sobota, after which Warsaw surrendered to the victorious Swedish king. The Polish army and most of the Polish nobility took oaths of allegiance to the King of Sweden. Cracow also opened its gates to the Swedish monarch; and the province of Lithuania, occupied chiefly by his Russian allies, acknowledged him as its sovereign. A party in the Polish Diet offered the crown of Poland to the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, but a majority of the Polish nation favored Charles X.

His Struggle with the Great Elector of Brandenburg. In this emergency the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg, the ally of John Casimir of Poland, led an army into West Prussia to protect that duchy against the Swedes; but he was defeated by Charles X. of Sweden, and was thus forced to acknowledge himself a vassal of Sweden instead of Poland. In subsequent treaties the Swedish king's embarrassments enabled the Great Elector to secure the sovereignty of the duchy of East Prussia, thus laying the foundation of the subsequent powerful Kingdom of Prussia.

His Second Conquest of Poland. In the meantime King John Casimir of Poland mustered an army of Poles and Tartars to recover Warsaw from the Swedes, and recaptured that city June 21, 1656; but after a three days' battle in its vicinity the next month, July, 1656, in which Charles X. of Sweden and his new ally, the Great Elector of Brandenburg, were victorious, Warsaw again surrendered to the Swedish monarch.

At this juncture Poland was saved from destruction by the lack of harmony among her enemies; as the Czar Alexis of Russia had now grown jealous of the Swedes, and invaded the Swedish province of Livonia with one hundred thousand men, while he sent another army to ravage the Swedish provinces of Ingria, Carelia and Finland, on the east side of the Baltic. The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany and King Frederick III. of Denmark also became alarmed and offended by the progress of Charles X. of Sweden, and became the allies of John Casimir of Poland in opposing the "Pyrrhus of the North," A. D. 1657.

**His War
with
Russia,
Germany
and
Denmark.**

Oliver Cromwell, the Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, favored Sweden, though he offered her no active aid; but George Ragotzky, Prince of Transylvania, entered into a close offensive alliance with the King of Sweden, in the hope of obtaining the crown of Poland, or at least the Polish provinces of Red Russia, Podolia, Volhynia and a large territory in the South of the Polish kingdom. The Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg retired from the Swedish army with his contingent force; and by the Peace of Welau with Poland, September 19, 1657, he was guaranteed his title of Sovereign Duke of Prussia and the possession of that duchy as an independent state.

**His
Alliance
with
Ragotzky,
or Trans-
sylvania.**

**The
Great
Elector
as Duke
of
Prussia.**

As the Czar Alexis of Russia, King John Casimir of Poland, King Frederick III. of Denmark, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg and the Dutch Republic united in 1657 in an alliance to compel King Charles X. of Sweden to relinquish his conquests, the Swedish king at once retired from Poland and made a sudden dash at Denmark, overrunning the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein without opposition, and sending a formidable detachment under General Wrangel to occupy the duchy of Bremen.

**Coalition
against
Charles
X., of
Sweden.**

**His
Invasion
of
Denmark.**

The King of Sweden took Frederiksödde by siege, October 24, 1657; and, as soon as a winter of unusual severity, even for those Northern regions, had covered the Baltic with ice, he commenced a remarkable series of maneuvers among the islands of the Sound by crossing the two Belts on the ice with his cavalry and artillery, capturing Fünen, Langeland, Laaland and Falster, and finally passing over into the island of Zealand and placing Copenhagen at his mercy. The Danish capital was poorly fortified and utterly taken by surprise.

**His
Victories
in
Denmark.**

The threatened intervention of the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg and of the Dutch Republic in favor of Denmark, and the mediation of France and England, led to the Peace of Roskild, in March, 1658, by which Denmark ceded some of her most important islands to Sweden and abandoned all her offensive alliances.

**Peace of
Roskild.**

His
Ambitious
Design.

The ambition of Charles X. of Sweden had grown by indulgence; and he now not only contemplated the founding of a great Scandinavian empire in the North of Europe, but also of marching southward into Italy with an overwhelming host, and, like Alaric the Goth more than twelve centuries before, establishing a Gothic kingdom in that sunny land of Southern Europe.

His
Second
Invasion
of
Denmark.

Early in August, 1658, Charles X. of Sweden renewed the war against King Frederick III. of Denmark, on the pretext that the Danish monarch had not faithfully executed all the conditions of the Treaty of Roskild. The Swedish king took Kronenborg, September 5, 1658, after a siege which gave the Danes time to strengthen the fortifications of Copenhagen, so that it would be enabled to hold out until the arrival of a Dutch fleet which was sent to aid the Danes in the defense of their capital.

Denmark
Saved
by the
Dutch,
the Poles
and the
Great
Elector
of Bran-
denburg.

The Swedes then turned the siege of Copenhagen into a blockade, but they themselves were besieged before the Danish capital by the Dutch and Danish fleets which guarded the sea; while the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg also came to the relief of Denmark with a combined army of Poles, Austrians and his own subjects, driving the Swedes from the peninsula of Jutland and capturing most of the towns in Swedish Pomerania. Thorn surrendered to the Poles in December, 1658, after a siege of eighteen months; and Elbing and Marienburg were the only towns in Prussia that still remained in possession of the Swedes.

Foreign
Inter-
vention.

England, France and Holland, whose commerce was embarrassed by the closing of the Baltic ports, now intervened to put a stop to the war; but the main cause of disturbance was removed by the sudden death of Charles X. of Sweden, in February, 1660. His son and successor, CHARLES XI., was a child of four years. The queen-regent of Sweden, with her Council of State, at once commenced negotiations with the hostile powers, and concluded the Peace of Oliva with Poland in May, 1660; the Peace of Copenhagen with Denmark in July, 1660, and the Peace of Cardis with Russia in July, 1661.

Peace of
Oliva
and of
Copen-
hagen.

Swedish
War with
Branden-
burg and
Denmark.

In 1675 Charles XI. of Sweden, as an ally of Louis XIV. of France, became involved in a disastrous war with the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg and King Christian V. of Denmark, who were aided by a Dutch fleet. The Swedes invaded Brandenburg, but were defeated by the Great Elector's forces twice within four days at Rathenow and Fehrbellin, in June, 1675. The brilliant victory of the Great Elector in the battle of Fehrbellin, June 28, 1675, was the foundation of Prussia's greatness.

Battle of
Fehr-
bellin.

Swedish
Disasters.

In 1675 the Danes and the Dutch also defeated the Swedes at sea several times. The Danes conquered the island of Rügen from the



THE GREAT ELECTOR AT FEHRBELLIN

From the Painting by W. Camphausen

Swedes; and Stettin, in Swedish Pomerania, surrendered to the Great Elector of Brandenburg after a siege of six months.

In 1676 the Swedes defeated Christian V. of Denmark at Halmstadt, and the still-severer but indecisive battle of Lunden so disabled him that he was obliged to remain inactive during the remainder of the year 1676. In the summer of 1677 Christian V. was disastrously defeated by the Swedes at Landscrona, but the Danish navy was victorious over the Swedish fleets. In 1678 the Swedes invaded the Great Elector's duchy of East Prussia, but were there defeated, and suffered so severely that only fifteen hundred men of their army of sixteen thousand were able to make their way to Riga, in their Baltic province of Livonia.

Continued
Swedish
Defeats.

This war in the North lasted until 1679, when the intervention of Louis XIV. of France compelled the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg by the Peace of St. Germain-en-Laye, and Christian V. of Denmark by the Peace of Lund, to restore to the Swedes all the territory wrested from them. Thus, by the interference of her ally, the King of France, Sweden emerged from a disastrous war without any loss of territory; but the return of peace found her in a greatly-crippled condition, her navy being destroyed and her finances almost ruined; so that it was very evident that she could not have maintained herself without foreign aid.

Peace of
St. Germain-en-
Laye and
Peace of
Lund.

In this condition of depression, a change in the government was demanded by all classes in Sweden, except the nobility, who had acquired great power and influence during the long minority of Charles XI. Accordingly, a peaceful revolution in 1680 entirely changed the character of the Swedish government. In that year the Swedish Diet at Stockholm, representing the clergy, the citizens and the peasants, adopted a new constitution conferring absolute and irresponsible power upon the king.

Sweden's
New Con-
stitution.

The Swedish Diet of 1682 required a strict account from all who had administered the finances during the king's minority, and from all who had held leases of crown-lands since the death of Gustavus Adolphus. Thus a thorough reform was introduced into all branches of the public service; and the prudent and energetic measures of Charles XI. during the last half of his reign of thirty-seven years, A. D. 1660-1697, so far retrieved the resources of Sweden that his kingdom was able to resume its old position of supremacy in the North during the brilliant reign of his renowned son and successor, CHARLES XII., who became King of Sweden upon his father's death, in 1697.

Reforms
in
Sweden.

Charles
XII. of
Sweden,
A. D.
1697-
1718.

In Germany the long reign of the Emperor LEOPOLD I., A. D. 1658-1705—who was chosen to the imperial throne after an interregnum of sixteen months following the death of his father, Ferdinand

Emperor
Leopold I
of Ger-
many.

The
Great
Elector
of Bran-
denburg.

III., in 1657—was mainly occupied by his wars with Louis XIV. of France and with the Turks; but during this period there was a far abler and greater prince in Germany than the Emperor Leopold I. himself—**FREDERICK WILLIAM**, *the Great Elector of Brandenburg*, who laid the foundation of the Kingdom of Prussia, which was destined to become mistress of Germany and to make Germany the leading power of Continental Europe.

His Ter-
ritorial
Acquisi-
tions.

Frederick William became Elector of Brandenburg and Duke of Prussia in 1640, and reigned forty-eight years, dying in 1688. By the Treaty of Welau, in 1657, he liberated Prussia from her vassalage to Poland; and in 1666 the duchy of Cleve and the countries of Mark and Ravensberg were annexed to the dominions of the Brandenburg House of Hohenzollern. The Great Elector's part in the wars against Louis XIV., as an ally of Holland, have already been related; as have also his participation in the wars against Charles X. and Charles XI. of Sweden. We have seen that by his great victory over the Swedish invaders of his dominions at Fehrbellin, June 28, 1675, he laid the foundation of Prussia's greatness. He followed up that victory by wresting almost all of Pomerania from Sweden, thus greatly enlarging his territory.

His Wars
with
France
and
Sweden.

His
Great
Reign.

After the restoration of peace with Sweden and France the Great Elector devoted himself to the promotion of the interests of his dominions. He encouraged art, science, literature, agriculture, manufactures and commerce. He encouraged foreign immigration into his dominions, and his liberality towards the twenty thousand Huguenot refugees from France proved beneficial to the rising young state. He secured the lofty position of his state by the formation of a considerable army. His son and successor, **FREDERICK III.**, was crowned the first *King of Prussia*, at Königsburg, in 1701, with the title of **FREDERICK I.** Thus the two leading powers in Germany were Austria, under the imperial House of Hapsburg, and Prussia, under the House of Brandenburg, or Hohenzollern.

His Son
and Suc-
cessor,
the First
King of
Prussia.

SECTION II.—POLAND'S DISSENSIONS AND DECLINE (A. D. 1506–1696).

Poland
and
Russia.

POLAND and **Russia**, the two Slavonic monarchies of Eastern Europe—like the Scandinavian kingdoms in the North—still formed no part of the European States-System; and their history is therefore unconnected with that of Central, Western and Southern Europe. Both these nations were powerful and had able sovereigns during the sixteenth century.

One of the best of the Kings of Poland was SIGISMUND THE GREAT, who reigned forty-two years, A. D. 1506–1548, and who was a son of Casimir IV., as were his two immediate predecessors. He was a wise and able sovereign; and Poland enjoyed more prosperity during his long reign than it had ever experienced before, as he patronized learning and industry, and preferred the blessings of peace to the glories of war. After vainly endeavoring to check the progress of the Reformation in Poland, Sigismund the Great wisely abandoned the attempt, and contented himself with excluding Protestants from all public offices. During this period there were at least fifty printing-presses in Cracow alone, and books were printed in more than eight towns in the kingdom. Poland was then the only European country which permitted freedom of the press. Copernicus, the great astronomer, flourished during the reign of Sigismund the Great, and was a native of Thorn, then in Poland, but now in Prussia. King Sigismund the Great labored for the welfare of his subjects, who loved him. He was forced into war with Russia, in which he lost Smolensk; but he was partly compensated for this loss by obtaining the lordship over Moldavia.

Sigismund the Great, A. D. 1506–1548.

His Great Reign.

Sigismund the Great's son and his successor as King of Poland was SIGISMUND AUGUSTUS, who reigned twenty-four years, A. D. 1548–1572, and was also a great monarch. During his reign many abuses were rectified, and the extraordinary privileges of the higher nobles were curtailed or abolished. Under Sigismund Augustus, Lithuania was permanently united with Poland, the united realm thenceforth having but one Diet; but each country retaining its own army, titles, treasury and laws; Lithuania being also reduced in size by the annexation of Podlachia, Volhynia and the Ukraine to Poland. Poland conquered Livonia from the Knights of the Sword, and seemed destined to become the most wealthy and powerful nation of Eastern Europe. During the reign of Sigismund Augustus the Dukedom of Prussia became a feudal dependency of Poland, and with his death ended the dynasty of the Jagellos and the greatness of Poland, whose population almost doubled itself during the brilliant reigns of the two illustrious Sigismunds.

Sigismund Augustus, A. D. 1548–1572.

Permanent Annexation of Lithuania.

Livonia and Prussia.

At this time Poland's dominions embraced Great Poland and Little Poland, comprising Galicia, Podolia, the Ukraine and other provinces; along with Livonia and Lithuania, including Samogitia, Black Russia, White Russia, Polesia and Tchernigov; also Pomerelia, Ermeland, Courland, Prussia, Bukowina, Moldavia, Wallachia and Bessarabia; all of which were either integral parts of Poland or subject to it.

Poland's Extensive Dominions.

Poland had been partially an elective kingdom for almost two centuries, but during that entire period the Polish sovereign had been chosen from the family of the Jagellos. Upon the death of Sigis-

End of the Jagellos.

mund Augustus, in 1572, the Polish crown became entirely elective, without regard to hereditary descent.

**Henry of
Valois,
A. D.
1573-
1574.**

**His
Abdica-
tion and
Flight.**

After an interregnum of some months, HENRY OF VALOIS was chosen King of Poland by the Polish Diet in 1573; but he accepted that dignity with great reluctance; and upon the death of his brother, King Charles IX. of France, the next year, 1574, he abdicated the throne of Poland, and returned to Paris and became King Henry III. of France. When he left the Polish capital he carried the Polish crown jewels with him, and was pursued on horseback for many miles by many of the Polish nobles, who vainly endeavored to persuade him to return.

**Stephen
Bathori,
A. D.
1575-
1586.**

After another short interregnum, the Polish Diet chose STEPHEN BATHORI, the voivode of Transylvania, to the vacant Polish throne in 1575. He defeated the Russians in the attempt to sieze Livonia, drove them into their own country and forced them to make peace. He also subdued the semi-independent Cossacks of the Ukraine and partially civilized them. He died in 1586; and in 1587, after another brief interregnum, the Diet of Poland elected SIGISMUND III., who also became King of Sweden by inheritance upon the death of his father, John III. of Sweden, in 1592. Sigismund III. lost the Swedish crown in 1599, but reigned over Poland forty-five years, dying in 1632. His deposition in Sweden led to a war between Sweden and Poland, which lasted for some years, and which will be noticed in the history of the seventeenth century.

**Sigis-
mund
III., A. D.
1587-
1632.**

**War with
Sweden.**

**Poland's
Decline.**

The elective kingdom of Poland—or the *Republic of Poland*, as the Poles themselves called it—was gradually declining during the seventeenth century. Every election of king by the Polish Diet was a scene of violent contention; and the unfortunate country was constantly torn by domestic dissensions and civil wars, and involved in wars with the Swedes, the Russians, the Cossacks, the Turks and the Tartars, by which Poland was successively deprived of large portions of her territories.

**Civil and
Foreign
Wars.**

**Polish
Society.**

The constitution and state of society in Poland was not such as tended to develop civilization and political freedom and to promote peace and prosperity. Poland had no middle class, the only palladium of liberty in a monarchical country. The only liberty which existed in Poland was the power of the nobles to quarrel with each other, to tyrannize over the serfs upon their estates and to vote for a puppet king. Poland had only nobles and serfs—the former full of false pride and buried in selfishness and luxury, and the latter in abject slavery and ignorance without any legal existence. This state of society was the cause of the political evils from which Poland was suffering. The two Chambers of the Polish Diet were the Senate and

**Nobles
and
Serfs.**



POLISH COSTUMES OF THE SIXTEENTH AND SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES

Upper Section: Costumes of the Middle Class and Workmen

1, 3. Officers of the King's Guards

2. Commander-in-chief

4-8. Officers and Soldiers of the Regiment of Janizaries

the Chamber of Nuncios, the former composed of the chief nobles, and the latter consisting of representatives of the inferior nobles.

An election of King of Poland was a matter of the greatest excitement. All the palatines and the chief nobility from every part of Poland repaired to Warsaw, which had now become the Polish capital; each one coming armed and on horseback, and attended by a numerous retinue of vassals, consisting of all the gentlemen in his palatinate. Warsaw and its environs presented an animated scene, and occasionally swords were drawn in support of the various candidates, who were not permitted to be present themselves. The *Pacta Conventa*—Poland's Magna Charta—for the new king's signature, was drawn up in a temporary structure on the plain of Wola, near Warsaw; and additions were made to its conditions at every election, until the king was shorn of almost every prerogative.

Elections
of Polish
Kings.

Pacta
Conventa.

Troops of horsemen assembled on the day of election on the plain of Wola, which was scarcely large enough, though twelve miles in circumference. The Senators and the Nuncios took their seats, and the nobles of each palatine were ranged in separate bodies under their respective banners. The names of the various candidates for the honors of royalty were then declared by the Archbishop of Warsaw, who, kneeling, repeated a prayer, and afterward went round on horseback to collect the votes, which were counted in the Senate; and the candidate for whom the most votes had been cast was immediately proclaimed King of Poland.

Ceremony
of
Election.

SIGISMUND III., who was elected King of Poland in 1587, as already noticed, had been deposed in Sweden in 1599. He refused to relinquish the Swedish crown, and waged war against his uncle, King Charles IX. of Sweden, and with the latter's son and successor, the great Gustavus Adolphus, from 1620 to 1629. The Swedes conquered Livonia with Riga from 1605 to 1621, and part of Prussia in 1629; while Brandenburg won its complete independence of Polish rule during this period. Sigismund III. also prosecuted hostilities against Russia, and in 1611 the Poles took and burned Moscow. From 1620 to 1622 war raged between Poland and Turkey, and the Turks subdued Moldavia and Wallachia. The Turks defeated the Poles with great loss at Jassy, in Moldavia, in September, 1620; but in 1621 the Turks were defeated with the loss of eighty thousand men.

Wars of
Sigis-
mund III.
with
Sweden,
Russia
and
Turkey.

King LADISLAS VII., who was elected to the Polish throne upon the death of his father, Sigismund III., in 1632, defeated the Russians at Smolensk, and by the Peace of Wiasma in 1634 he wrested Smolensk, Tchernigov and Novgorod from Russia; but near the end of his reign the Cossacks of the Ukraine transferred their allegiance to the Czar of Russia. The Cossacks, who served Poland under a hetman, or com-

Ladislas
VII.,
A. D.
1632-
1648.

Oppres-
sion
of the
Ukraine
Cossacks.

mander, as a frontier guard, had once been the most faithful friends of Poland, but had now become by oppression her most inveterate enemies—a result caused by the non-residence of the landholders, who were mainly Polish nobles and themselves never visited the Ukraine, but intrusted the charge of their estates to stewards or middlemen, who enriched themselves by a double system of plunder from both landlords and tenants. After one revolt of the Cossacks had been suppressed, the Diet of Poland passed a decree annulling almost all the liberties of those brave and warlike people, thus completely alienating them and winning their inveterate animosity.

Cossack
Revolt
under
Bogdan.

A comparatively private instance of tyranny brought matters to a crisis. A Cossack named Bogdan, who dwelt on the banks of the Dnieper, had saved the wife of the Castellan of Cracow from being captured by the Turks; and the castellan had rewarded him with a windmill and a small estate adjoining, where he lived happily until the death of the castellan, when the steward sought to deprive him of his property. Bogdan resisted; whereupon the steward fired his house, and his wife and infant son perished in the flames. This outrage was well calculated to rouse the passions of the already-excited Cossacks, who immediately flew to arms, solicited aid from the Turks, and were speedily reinforced by an army of forty thousand Tartars of the Crimea. Bogdan assumed the position of hetman of this Tartar army, and made himself master of the entire Ukraine; after which he led his army into Poland, where his troops perpetrated the most horrible deeds of violence.

John
Casimir,
A. D.
1648—
1668.

Bogdan's
Ravages.

In the midst of this war King Ladislas VII. of Poland died, A. D. 1648, whereupon his brother JOHN CASIMIR was elected King of Poland by the Polish Diet. John Casimir's reign was an unfortunate one for his country. With the support of Sultan Mohammed IV. of Turkey, Bogdan assumed the title of Prince of the Ukraine, laid waste all of Lithuania, and everywhere reduced the convents, the churches and the Jesuit colleges to ashes.

Swedish
Invasion
of Poland.

John Casimir unfortunately adopted the title of hereditary King of Sweden, thus provoking an invasion of Poland by King Charles X. of Sweden. John Casimir fled from Warsaw, which was entered by the Swedish monarch; but the insolence and oppression of the Swedish soldiers incensed the Poles, who fled in large numbers to join the standard of their fugitive king. The Czar Alexis of Russia, who had also invaded Poland, now concluded a truce with the Poles, who were also supported by Holland, Denmark, the Great Elector Frederick William of Brandenburg and the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany. By the Peace of Oliva, in 1660, John Casimir relinquished his foolish pretensions to the crown of Sweden.

Peace of
Oliva.

In the meantime Bogdan had died, and the Cossacks of the Ukraine had returned to their allegiance to Poland on receiving guarantees for their civil and religious liberties. But the war with Russia was renewed, and it continued until 1667, when the Peace of Andrussov was concluded, by which Russia retained Smolensk, Kiev, Tchernigov and all the country of the Cossacks east of the Dnieper. The territory of the Cossacks west of the Dnieper was annexed to Poland, and the Zaporog Cossacks, near the mouth of the same river, were placed under the common jurisdiction of Poland and Russia, ready to serve against the Turks as occasion demanded.

Cossack
Submis-
sion.

Peace of
Andrus-
sov with
Russia.

The resources of Poland were also exhausted by a war with the Turks; though this war afforded a field for the development of the military genius of John Sobieski, "the Buckler of Christ," one of the greatest warriors of his time, who greatly distinguished himself in Poland's continual wars with the Cossacks, the Tartars, the Swedes, the Russians and the Turks, and who obtained the dignity of Grand Marshal of Poland. One of his most memorable exploits was the great victory which he won with only twenty thousand men over one hundred thousand Cossacks and Tartars in a series of battles lasting seventeen days, in 1667, thus saving Poland from destruction.

John So-
bieski's
Victories
over the
Turks.

During John Casimir's unfortunate reign the elegances of civilized life were introduced into Poland by intercourse with France, but the destructive wars with the Cossacks and the Tartars had injured commerce and retarded the progress of education.

Polish
Civili-
a-
tion.

The *Liberum Veto*—a dangerous innovation introduced into the Polish Diet about this time—enabled any one member of the Diet to defeat any measure to which he was opposed, to stop the proceedings and even to dissolve the Diet. Scarcely any measure could be proposed in an assembly of four hundred persons which would receive the approbation of every one of them; and every member was thus enabled to prevent the passage of even the most important laws when he was influenced by passion, by private interest or by bribery from foreign sources. This absurd custom, so pregnant with disorders, hastened the ruin of Poland, which the want of a middle class was destined to bring on sooner or later.

Literum
Veto.

Finally John Casimir, worn out by misfortunes, and seeing his dominions depopulated by constant wars and pestilence, which he was unable to avert without great sacrifices, began to sigh again for the seclusion of the prelacy which he had exchanged for the Polish throne. Twenty years of his life had been imbibed by the cares and vexations of government when he resolved to abdicate his royal dignity. He therefore convened the Polish Diet in 1638, announced his resolution in an affecting speech, bade farewell to his subjects and his

John
Casimir's
Abdica-
tion.

country, and retired into France, where he was kindly received by King Louis XIV., and where he lived in a style suitable to his rank until his death, in 1672.

**Michael
Wiesno-
wiski,
A. D.
1669-
1673.**

John Casimir's abdication was followed by an interregnum of seven months; after which MICHAEL WIESNOWISKI was elected King of Poland in a stormy session of the Polish Diet, and was compelled to accept the Polish crown against his will. He had passed his previous life in a monastery, and was extremely poor and wholly unfit for his royal duties. His entire reign of four years, A. D. 1669-1673, was a period of internal dissension and virtual anarchy. Four Diets were dissolved in less than four years.

**War with
the Cos-
sacks,
Tartars
and
Turks.**

In the midst of these domestic troubles the war with the Cossacks was renewed; and the Turks and Tartars, the allies of the Cossacks, invaded Poland, seized the city of Kaminiec in 1672, and gained possession of the Ukraine, in spite of the prodigies of valor and military skill of John Sobieski. King Michael Wiesnowiski, in a state of great alarm, concluded a humiliating peace with the Turks, ceding to them the city of Kaminiec and the province of Podolia, and even agreeing to pay to them an annual tribute of twenty-two thousand ducats. The Ukraine west of the Dnieper was relinquished to the Cossacks, who were to be placed under the protection of the Turks. The Polish Diet refused to ratify this treaty, as it preferred to continue the war. The day after King Michael Wiesnowiski's death, John Sobieski with a small force gained a brilliant victory near Kotzim over eighty thousand Turks, who fled, leaving forty thousand dead upon the field, November 11, 1673—a victory which electrified all Christendom.

**John
Sobieski,
A. D.
1674-
1696.**

After an interregnum of some months, JOHN SOBIESKI was elected King of Poland by the national Diet at Wola in 1674, and was crowned at Cracow with unusual magnificence. He had the arduous task of raising his kingdom from a condition of extreme depression and embarrassment. By extraordinary exertions he augmented the military force of his kingdom, and by his prowess he rescued two-thirds of the Ukraine from the Turks in 1676. By the Peace of Zarowno, October 26, 1676, the Turks were allowed to retain the city of Kaminiec, a part of the Ukraine and Podolia; but Poland was relieved from the tribute promised by Michael Wiesnowiski, and retained that part of the Ukraine wrested from the Turks.

**Peace of
Zarowno.**

**John So-
bieski's
Relief of
Vienna.**

King John Sobieski attracted the attention of all Europe by his relief of Vienna from the besieging host of two hundred thousand Turks under Kara Mustapha in 1683, thus immortalizing his name and throwing a great splendor over the waning glories of Poland; but this splendor was only temporary, and did not for a moment arrest the rapid decline of the Polish kingdom.

John Sobieski's talents were confined to brilliant military exploits. He was a great soldier, but no statesman. He could preserve Poland from her foreign foes, but was utterly unable to reduce the turbulent Polish nobility to order, or to put an end to the internal dissensions which distracted his unhappy kingdom.

His
Failure
as King.

By the Treaty of Leopold, or Lemberg, in 1686, which John Sobieski signed with tears in his eyes, the hero-king was obliged to cede Smolensk, Kiev, Tchernigov, Little Russia and other territories, and the exclusive sovereignty of the territory of the Zaporog Cossacks, to the Czar of Russia, in order to obtain the Czar's alliance and aid against the Turks and the Tartars.

Peace of
Lemberg
with
Russia.

John Sobieski's last years were rendered sad by his failure to introduce reforms into the Polish government. The nobles invariably interposed their *Liberum Veto*; and at the close of a stormy session of the Diet, in 1688, the unhappy king confessed with tears in his eyes that he was unable to save Poland. John Sobieski reigned as a mere crowned cipher until his death, in 1696; and with him ended the greatness of Poland.

John So-
bieski's
Last
Years.

After an interregnum of some months, the Elector Frederick Augustus II. of Saxony was elected King of Poland in 1697 with the title of *FREDERICK AUGUSTUS I.* By the Peace of Carlowitz, in 1699, Poland recovered Kaminić, Podolia and that part of the Ukraine ceded to the Turks by the Peace of Zarowno in 1676.

Frederick
Augustus
I., A. D.
1697-
1733.

SECTION III.—FIRST CZARS AND EARLIER ROMANOFFS IN RUSSIA (A. D. 1505-1702).

VASSILI V., who became Autocrat of all the Russias upon the death of his illustrious father, Ivan the Great, in 1505, carried out his father's policy firmly and successfully. In 1510 he annexed Pskov to his dominions, thus extinguishing the last of the semi-independent principalities of Russia. The Tartars of Kazan revolted against him; but they were utterly routed in battle in 1524, and again in 1530, when they were made tributary to Russia. Vassili V. engaged in many wars with the Poles and the Lithuanians, without accomplishing any important results. He further enlarged and consolidated the Russian dominions by his abilities as a warrior and a statesman. After a reign of twenty-eight years, he died in 1533.

Vassili
V., A. D.
1505-
1533.

His Wars
with the
Tartars
and with
Poland.

IVAN IV., THE TERRIBLE, the son and successor of Vassili V., was only a child when the death of his father made him Autocrat of all the Russias. His mother Helena assumed the regency, contrary to Russian custom, and held her position four years, crushing all opposi-

Ivan IV.,
the
Terrible,
A. D.
1533-
1584.

**Helena
and
Shuiski.**

tion with despotic cruelty. She was poisoned in 1537; whereupon the regency was seized by the Shuiski, a powerful boyar family, whose chief was the president of the supreme council of boyars.

**Tyranny
and
Misrule
of the
Shuiski
family.**

The Shuiski family had suffered many humiliations and much bad treatment from the Grand Princes of Russia. They now gratified their revenge by inflicting all kinds of indignities upon the youthful Ivan IV., whose life was passed in a state of constant terror. They plundered the national treasury and robbed the Russian people, and the insolent regent even went so far as to throw himself on the bed of the young Ivan IV. and rudely thrust his feet into the lap of the Autocrat of all the Russias. The Shuiski family punished all opposition to their despotic power with remorseless cruelty, and Ivan IV. saw his friends dragged from his presence and put to death with horrible tortures in spite of his entreaties in their behalf.

**Over-
throw
of the
Shuiski
family.**

In 1543, when Ivan IV. was fourteen years of age, the Shuiski were overthrown by the Glinski, another boyar family, who siezed the regency and were sustained by the boy sovereign himself, who informed the Shuiski that he no longer needed their guidance and would no longer submit to their encroachments on his royal prerogative. Said he: "I ought to punish you all, for all of you have been guilty of offenses against my person; but I will be indulgent, and the weight of my anger shall fall only on Andrew Shuiski, who is the worst among you" Andrew Shuiski, the head of the family, endeavored to justify himself; but Ivan IV. would not listen to him. Exclaimed the boy despot: "Seize and bind him, and throw him to my dogs! They have a right to the repast!" Thereupon a pack of ferocious hounds, which Ivan IV. took delight in rearing, were brought under the window and irritated by every possible means; and, when they were sufficiently exasperated, Andrew Shuiski was thrown among them. His cries increased their fury, and they tore his body to shreds and devoured it.

**Cruel
Death of
Andrew
Shuiski.**

**Cruel and
Tyrannical
Rule
of the
Glinski
family.**

The Glinski pursued a course of cruelty and despotism similar to that which had characterized the rule of the Shuiski. The only difference between the two families was this: While the Shuiski treated the boy sovereign with the greatest indignity and contempt, the Glinski thrust him forward as a cover for all their acts, and plundered, killed and tortured in his name. They diligently taught Ivan IV. that the boyars were his natural enemies instead of the chief supporters of his throne, and that he could maintain his power and dignity only by the most stern and cruel measures.

The Glinski applauded and encouraged the development of the boy despot's naturally-cruel instincts. They praised him when he tormented wild animals for his own amusement, and when he threw tame ones down from the summit of his palace with the same cruel delight;

when he dashed old people to the ground in his disorderly rambles, and when he trampled the women and children of Moscow under the hoofs of his horses. Fourteen years of the life of Ivan IV.—from the age of three years to that of seventeen—were passed amid these terrible scenes, and he was kept in such constant dread and agitation that his naturally-strong mind became warped. He thus learned to delight in cruelty and to think that to torment his subjects was his only safety.

The rule of the Glinski lasted only three years. In 1547 the people of Moscow, driven to desperation and despair, rose against the despotic family, massacred them and fired the city. In the midst of the terrible scenes which followed, a monk named Sylvester entered the palace with the Gospels in his hands. He sternly told young Ivan IV. that the outbreak was a manifestation of the Divine vengeance for the crimes which the Glinski had committed in his name, and exhorted him to heed the warning and govern his subjects with justice. Appalled by the monk's awful words, Ivan IV. promised to do better. Alexis Adashef, a prominent boyar, also entreated Ivan IV. to rule more justly; and the result was a great change in the administration of the government.

Ivan the Terrible now assumed the title of *Czar*, meaning "Cæsar." He submitted himself to Sylvester and Adashef, confiding the government of the Russian dominions to the latter. Russia enjoyed the blessings of internal peace and good government for the next thirteen years. Order was speedily restored in the government, and justice was administered with impartiality. A regular standing army called the *Strelitz* was organized, and regularity was again restored in the military service.

The Tartar Khan of Kazan had made himself independent during the minority of Ivan the Terrible. In 1552 Ivan led a powerful Russian army against Kazan, which he conquered, hopelessly breaking the power of the Tartars of that region. In 1553 a commercial road was opened to Archangel, on the White Sea, at that time the only port of Russia. In 1554 the Russians conquered the Tartar Khanate of Astrakhan, thus extending their frontier to the Caspian Sea. Fortresses were erected along the entire frontier to hold the Tartars in check. In 1570 the Don Cossacks were united with the Russian Empire, and in 1581-'82 a Cossack freebooter named Yermak conquered Siberia for Ivan the Terrible.

Ivan the Terrible did much for the promotion of Russian commerce, concluded commercial treaties with Queen Elizabeth of England, induced many Englishmen and Germans to settle in the Russian dominions, and established a printing office in Moscow in 1569. He conducted frequent wars with Sweden and Poland with varying success. He made an unsuccessful effort to expel the Teutonic Knights from

The
Glinski
Family
and the
Cruel
Disposi-
tion of
Ivan the
Terrible.

Over-
throw
and
Massacre
of the
Glinski
Family.

Ivan the
Terrible,
the First
Czar.

The
Sterlitz.

Russian
Conquest
of Kazan
and As-
trakhan.

The Don
Cossacks
and
Siberia.

Treaties
with
England

Wars
with
Sweden
and
Poland.

Livonia, and in 1582 he was obliged to end the war by surrendering Livonia to Sweden.

Later
Insanity
and
Cruelty
of
Ivan the
Terrible.

Alexis Adashef died in 1560; and Anastasia, the wife of Ivan the Terrible, to whom her husband was tenderly attached, died soon afterward. Ivan himself was taken seriously ill about the same time, and his illness came near proving fatal. After recovering his health he exhibited symptoms of insanity, which became a settled characteristic of his nature. He was thenceforth gloomy and suspicious. He would break out in terrible rages, during which he did not hesitate to strike down with his own hand any one who happened to offend him, regardless of his rank or station. He was perpetually tormented with fears of a revolt of his boyars, and surrounded himself with a select body of soldiers, for whom he made way by ruthlessly driving out the inhabitants of the streets adjoining his palace. He took delight in inflicting suffering upon his subjects, whose abject submission to his tyranny is one of the most remarkable circumstances in history.

Tribunal
of Blood
and
Whole-
sale
Massacre
at
Novgorod.

Ivan the Terrible hated the people of Novgorod for their free spirit; and in 1570, when he ascertained that they were in traitorous correspondence with the Poles to surrender the city to them, he hastened thither with his Strelitzes, closed the gates and lined the streets with troops. A court called the *Tribunal of Blood* proceeded to try the delinquent citizens of Novgorod, and this court condemned numbers to death daily for six weeks. Grief, horror and despair reigned in every dwelling in Novgorod, for there was no escape, no means of resistance. The cruel despot raged like an incensed tiger during those six terrible weeks, and sixty thousand of the Novgorodians are said to have fallen victims to his furious rage. He himself killed a throng of the unfortunate inhabitants and heaped their bodies in a vast enclosure. When his strength finally failed to second his fury he gave up the remainder to his select guard, to his slaves, to his dogs and to the opened ice of the Volkhof, in which hundreds of those unfortunate beings were engulfed daily for more than a month. After declaring that his justice was satisfied he retired from Novgorod, and seriously recommended himself to the prayers of the survivors, who were particularly careful to render obedience to the orders of the tyrant.

Cruel
Massacres
at
Moscow
and Other
Russian
Cities.

Ivan the Terrible caused similar massacres to be perpetrated in Tver, Pskov, Moscow and other Russian cities. He caused five hundred of the most illustrious nobles of Moscow to be tortured and put to death. Women, as well as men, perished. The cruel tyrant ordered them to be hanged at their own doors, and forbade their husbands to go in or out without passing under the corpses of their companions until they rotted and dropped in pieces upon them. Elsewhere hus-

bands and children were fastened dead to the places which they had occupied at the domestic table, and their wives and mothers were forced to sit opposite to the lifeless remains for days. The crazy tyrant compelled sons to kill their fathers, and brothers to slay each other. He threw his prisoners of war into boiling cauldrons, or roasted them at slow fires which he himself stirred up. The whole Russian Empire was filled with terror and bloodshed.

Finally some of the most faithful boyars, with the cruel despot's eldest son at their head, mustered sufficient courage to present an humble petition for mercy. The enraged tyrant killed his son with a single blow from his iron-bound staff. He manifested great remorse for this mad deed, which hastened his death in 1584.

**His
Murder
of His
Son.**

Notwithstanding his madness and tyranny, Ivan the Terrible, the first Czar of Moscow, did more for the greatness of Russia than any of his predecessors. His conquests extended the territorial dominion of Russia and strengthened its resources; but that empire did not yet take any part in general European affairs, as it was isolated from the other European nations by Poland and Sweden, which two kingdoms possessed the territory west of Russia and the Baltic shores. The Crimean Tartars occupied the country between Russia and the Black Sea. Russia's only ports were upon the Caspian and White Seas. The port of Archangel, on the White Sea, was founded during this reign, and was the point from which Russia's commerce with England and the other European countries was carried on during that period.

**Russia's
Isolation.**

FEODOR I., the second son of Ivan the Terrible, was twenty-seven years of age when he became Czar of Russia, at the time of his father's death, in 1584. He was weak and sickly, and he took special delight in haunting the churches and ringing the bells. He was in no way fitted to be the sovereign of an empire. His father had been aware of his infirmity, and had therefore left him under the care of a council of boyars, whose leading spirit was Boris Godunov, a man of Tartar descent and Feodor's brother-in-law. Boris Godunov soon assumed the supreme power of Russia and administered the government according to his own will, the weak Feodor I. being a mere instrument in his hands. Boris caused Dimitri, the other son of Ivan the Terrible, although but a child, to be banished to an estate which his father had left him, where he was afterward murdered by order of Boris.

**The Port
of Arch-
angel.**

**Feodor
I., A. D.
1584-
1598.**

**Boris
Godunov.**

Boris Godunov did all in his power to gain the favor of the people of Moscow, because he aspired to be his sovereign's successor on the Russian throne; and his great abilities enabled him to carry out his designs successfully. In 1591 the Tartar Khan of the Crimea invaded Russia and advanced against Moscow, which was unprotected by fortifications. The inhabitants were in despair; but Boris, with ex-

**Crim
Tartar
Attack on
Moscow
Repulsed.**

traordinary energy, caused a line of fortifications to be thrown up around the city, and manned it with a strong force of infantry and artillery. The assault of the Tartars was repulsed, and their army thereupon commenced a disastrous retreat homeward.

End of
the Rurik
Dynasty.

With the death of Feodor I., in 1598, ended the male line of Rurik, which had occupied the Russian throne for seven hundred and thirty-six years (A. D. 862-1598). The Russian nobles and people then called Boris Godunof to the throne of Muscovy; and, after a feigned hesitation, he complied with their wishes, thus beginning his reign of seven years.

Boris
Godunof
Called.

Boris
Godunof,
A. D.
1598-
1605.

BORIS GODUNOF, who was elected Czar of Russia by the Russian nobles, upon the extinction of the male line of Rurik, in 1598, reigned seven years, as already noticed. The chief event of his reign was the establishment of serfdom in Russia, but on the whole his rule was beneficial to his empire. He caused the laws to be administered impartially, encouraged the arts and trades, induced many intelligent foreigners to settle in his dominions, and in other ways promoted the civilization of Russia. He treated the boyars with great severity, thus alienating that class from him. The Russian peasants bitterly resented the establishment of serfdom, and a bloody peasant outbreak was suppressed with difficulty.

Serfdom
Estab-
lished.

Famine.

A terrible famine broke out in Russia in 1601, and lasted three years, carrying off more than one hundred thousand persons in Moscow alone. Boris Godunof exerted himself to his utmost to relieve the wants of his subjects, but he was able to accomplish very little in the midst of so much suffering.

Dimitri,
the Pre-
tender.

In the midst of the discontent which the famine caused, an impostor appeared in Poland, claiming to be Dimitri, the son of Ivan, whom Boris Godunof had caused to be put to death when a child. This pretended Dimitri was supported by a number of Polish noblemen, and raised an army with which he invaded Russia in 1603. All who were dissatisfied with Boris Godunof flocked to the impostor's standard, and the false Dimitri soon had a considerable army. He achieved a victory over the Czar's troops, but was at length defeated, after which he took refuge in one of the fortified cities, where he maintained his position.

Feodor
II., A. D.
1605.

Boris Godunof died suddenly, April 13, 1605, and was succeeded as Czar of Russia by his son FEODOR II., a youth of sixteen years. In the following month, May, 1605, the Russian army revolted, and proclaimed the false Dimitri Czar of Russia. On June 1, 1605, the inhabitants of Moscow also proclaimed the pretended Dimitri Czar, seized the youthful Feodor II. and shut him up in prison, where he was assassinated shortly afterward.

His Over-
throw.

DIMITRI entered Moscow, June 20, 1605, amid the joyful acclamations of the populace, and several weeks afterward he was solemnly crowned Czar of all the Russias. He exhibited unusual talents as a sovereign, and was a monarch of more liberal views than had ever reigned over Russia before. His chief desire was to unite all the forces of the Slavonic race to drive the Tartars and the Turks from Europe, and he at once commenced preparing for this struggle. He resolved that the clergy should bear their proper share of the expenses of the war, and accordingly imposed a tax upon them, thus compassing his own ruin.

The clergy did not intend to bear any of the public burdens, and used their powerful influence against the Czar. They instigated a conspiracy to dethrone him; and the plot was joined by a number of boyars, among whom were some of those who had assisted in placing him on the Russian throne after deserting the standard of Boris Godunof. The leader of the conspiracy was Vassili Shuiski, a powerful boyar whom Dimitri had specially favored.

On May 18, 1606, the Czar Dimitri was married with great pomp to a Polish princess, who came attended by a numerous retinue of her own countrymen. The Czar's marriage to a princess outside of the Greek Church mortally offended the Russian people; and the thoughtless conduct of the Poles, who manifested open disrespect for the Greek faith, vastly increased this feeling among the Czar's subjects. On the night of the Czar's marriage the conspirators took advantage of the popular discontent by taking up arms against the Czar; and, as they were joined by the people of Moscow, they forced an entrance into the Kremlin and attacked the palace, assassinating Dimitri and the few who defended him, while the new Czarina narrowly escaped with her life.

Upon the assassination of Dimitri the boyars immediately proclaimed Vassili Shuiski Czar of Russia with the title of VASSILI VI., and he was crowned June 1, 1606. A part of the Russian nation refused to acknowledge the rule of Vassili VI., and a rebellion soon broke out against him. A rumor was circulated that the Czar Dimitri was still living and that he had escaped to Poland, whence he issued commands to his adherents to attack Vassili VI. Another false Dimitri soon appeared in Russia, with the aid of a Polish army, and marched toward Moscow.

As the Czar Vassili VI. entered into an alliance with King Charles IX. of Sweden to resist this invasion, King Sigismund III. of Poland espoused the cause of this second false Dimitri. Vassili VI. found his Swedish allies wholly untrustworthy, as they soon deserted to the Poles, so that Moscow was forced to surrender to the Poles in 1610. The

**Dimitri,
A. D.
1605-
1606.**

**His
Views
and
Designs.**

**Plot
against
Him.**

**His
Marriage
with a
Polish
Princess**

**His
Assassi-
nation.**

**Vassili
VI., A. D.
1606-
1613.**

**Revolts
against
Him.**

**Polish
Invasion
of Russia
and
Capture
of
Moscow.**

Czar Vassili VI. was taken prisoner and was sent to a Polish fortress, where he died the next year.

**Polish
Burning
and
Massacre
of
Moscow.**

**Expul-
sion
of the
Poles.**

**Michael
Roman-
off, A. D.
1613-
1645.**

**His Good
Reign.**

**His
Peace
Treaties
with
Sweden
and
Poland.**

**His
Peaceful
and Pros-
perous
Reign.**

**Alexis,
A. D.
1645-
1676.**

As the Poles were attacked in Moscow by the inhabitants in 1611, they burned the city and massacred thousands of the populace. A period of anarchy followed, during which Russia was without a sovereign, while her capital was occupied by the Polish invaders. The evident intention of the Poles to reduce Russia to the condition of a Polish province revived the national spirit of the Russian people, and in 1612 Pozharski and other popular Russian leaders drove the Poles from Moscow and forced them to retire into their own dominions.

After thus delivering their country from its foreign conquerors the Russians proceeded to elect a new Czar, and their choice fell upon the good and peaceable MICHAEL ROMANOFF, who was proclaimed and crowned Czar of all the Russias in 1613, thus becoming the founder of the illustrious dynasty of the Romanoffs, who have ever since occupied the imperial throne of Russia, and under whom Russia has emerged from Asiatic barbarism to European civilization and become one of the rising powers of Europe. Micheal Romanoff was the son of Feodor, Archbishop of Rostov and afterward Patriarch of Moscow, and was a descendant of Rurik through the female line. He was only sixteen years old when he was elected to the dignity of Autocrat of all the Russias; and he reigned thirty-two years, A. D. 1613-1645, during which he restored peace to his distracted empire, relieving it of civil and foreign wars.

By the Peace of Stolbova with King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, in 1617, the Czar Michael Romanoff ceded the provinces of Ingria and Russian Carelia to Sweden. By the Truce of Divilina, in 1618, and the Peace of Wiasma, in 1634, the Czar ceded the vast territories of Smolensk, Tchernigov and Novgorod, with their dependencies, to Poland. After thus ending his wars with Sweden and Poland, Michael Romanoff devoted all his energies to promoting the prosperity of Russia and to the preservation of peace with her neighbors. He concluded commercial treaties with England, France, Persia and China, thus reviving the prostrate trade of Russia. In 1639 he extended the Russian dominions eastward to the Pacific. He proved himself a wise and able sovereign, and recovered for his empire some of its lost prosperity.

Upon the death of Michael Romanoff, in 1645, his eldest son ALEXIS became Czar and Autocrat of all the Russias. Alexis energetically and vigorously pursued his renowned father's policy for the civilization of Russia and for placing her among the nations of Europe. He extended his dominion over the Don Cossacks; thus becoming involved in a war with John Casimir, King of Poland, who had exer-

cised jurisdiction over the Don Cossacks. In alliance with King Charles X. of Sweden, Alexis invaded Poland in 1654; but after the Swedish king had captured Warsaw in 1656 the Czar became jealous and alarmed, and concluded a truce with the Polish king in order to turn his arms against the Swedes. After the conclusion of peace between Sweden and Poland the Czar Alexis renewed his war with John Casimir of Poland; and by the Peace of Andrussov, in 1667, he recovered Smolensk, Kiev, Tchernigov and all of the Ukraine east of the Dnieper.

His Wars
with
Poland
and
Sweden.

Peace of
Andrus-
sov.

The Czar Alexis Romanoff died in 1676, and was succeeded on the Russian throne by his son FEODOR III., who rendered his reign illustrious by the wisdom of his administration. Acting under the counsels of his able and enlightened Minister, Prince Galitzin, the Czar Feodor III. established the absolute power of the Czars by abolishing the hereditary orders of the Russian nobility and the prerogatives that were attached to them. These orders were destructive of all subordination in civil and military affairs, and were productive of numberless controversies and litigations which were taken cognizance of by a court named *Rozrad*. In a grand assembly convoked by him at Moscow in 1682 the Czar Feodor III. abolished the hereditary rank of the Russian nobles, burned the deeds and the genealogical registers upon which the nobles based their claims, and required every noble family of Russia to produce the extracts of these registers, which they had in their possession, that they might also be consigned to the flames.

Feodor
III., A. D.
1676-
1682.

Absolute
Power
of the
Czars
Estab-
lished.

Upon the death of Feodor III., in 1682, his two brothers, IVAN V. and PETER, were crowned joint sovereigns of Russia. The elder brother, Ivan V., who was the son of Alexis by that Czar's first marriage, was a poor deformed idiot, and was therefore Czar only in name. As Peter, the son of Alexis by a second marriage, was a mere boy, the government of Russia was intrusted to the regency of his half-sister Sophia, the daughter of Alexis by that Czar's first marriage. Sophia was a daring princess and herself aspired to the crown.

Ivan V.
and
Peter,
A. D.
1682-
1689.

Regency
of Sophia.

Peter defeated his half-sister's ambitious scheme in 1689 by seizing the Russian throne and making himself sole Czar and Autocrat of all the Russias at the youthful age of seventeen. Such was the beginning of the celebrated reign of the renowned PETER THE GREAT. The young Czar was addicted to drunkenness and to sensual pleasures; but he already gave evidence of the wonderful energy and strength of will which were destined to make him one of the most remarkable characters of history, and which eventually acquired for him the well-merited title of *the Great*. He began his sole reign with the firm resolve to make Russia one of the great powers of Europe. Russia was already a powerful empire, but was politically isolated from the rest of Europe.

Peter the
Great,
A. D.
1689-
1725.

His
Great-
ness.

**His
Improvement of
Arch-
angel.**

**His
Conquest
of Azov
from the
Turks.**

**His
Travels
over
Europe.**

**His
Work as a
Ship-car-
penter in
Holland.**

**Also in
England.**

**His Visit
to the
Emperor
Leopold I.**

Peter the Great paid great attention to the improvement of Archangel, on the White Sea, then the only sea-port of Russia. He believed that his empire must have a more extended sea-coast in order to give it the rank to which it was entitled among the European powers. In alliance with John Sobieski, King of Poland, Peter the Great waged war against the Turks, from whom he conquered the territory of Azov, on the Black Sea, in 1696, annexing it to his dominions. After thus securing a footing on the Black Sea, he resolved to create a fleet which should enable him to hold his conquest and make Russia superior to Turkey.

In order to found a navy for Russia, and to learn the arts of civilization in order that he might introduce them among his subjects, the Czar Peter the Great intrusted the administration of the Russian government to an old boyar, and traveled over Europe to study the institutions of other nations and to learn the industrial arts by which those nations had acquired their prosperity. With this view of learning the practical advantages of civilization that he might become the reformer and civilizer of his barbarous subjects, the Czar started on his travels in 1697.

Traveling in disguise as a subordinate in one of his own embassies, Peter the Great passed through part of Sweden and Brandenburg, and spent several months at Saardam, in Holland, where he worked as a common ship-carpenter, receiving his wages every Saturday night, and adopting the raiment, food and lodging of his fellow workmen in the shop and yard, thus learning by actual experience the art of ship-building. While in Holland the vigilant Czar observed the other sources of that country's prosperity; while at the same time he kept a close watch over the affairs of Russia, being constantly informed of events in his remote dominions. He directed the government of his empire from his laborer's hut in Holland, and often laid down the plane or hatchet to sign an order for the march of an army or for the arrest of a suspected traitor.

By the invitation of King William III., Peter the Great visited England in 1698, and was cordially received by his royal host; but, instead of wasting his time in court festivities, the distinguished guest visited the dock-yards and established himself near the royal navy-yard at Deptford, where he continued his labors in ship-building, while receiving instruction in surgery, mathematics and navigation. In this way Peter the Great prepared himself to be the civilizer of his subjects—a noble ambition which contributed vastly to redeem his faults.

After thus completing his studies and perfecting his knowledge of the art of ship-building, Peter the Great paid a visit of ceremony to the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany at Vienna; and he would have

also visited Italy had he not been recalled to Russia by intelligence of a very formidable revolt of the *Strelitz*, the Russian militia, the same year, 1698.

The *Strelitz* had made several attempts upon Peter's life, in obedience to the orders of his half-sister Sophia; and Peter had commenced during his boyhood to train a body of infantry according to the German tactics, to supersede his formidable and turbulent militia. Peter now considered that the time had arrived for the extermination of the *Strelitz*. While still abroad he gave directions to his generals, and the ringleaders of the revolt were soon in irons. The revolt was speedily suppressed, and seven thousand prisoners were taken. Upon his return to Moscow, in September, 1698, the Czar caused every one of these prisoners to be put to death, himself beheading many of them. He thus dissolved the *Strelitz* forever. His half-sister Sophia, whom the malecontents had intended to place on the Russian throne, and who was believed to have instigated and directed the plot, was imprisoned in a convent.

Revolt
and
Extermination
of the
Strelitz.

After restoring order and securing his power by his prompt and bloody suppression of the revolt of the *Strelitz*, Peter the Great began to execute his cherished plans for the civilization of his empire by putting in force the measures by which he hoped to bring Russia into direct intercourse with the rest of Europe and to fit her for the position which he intended that she should assume.

Peter's
Civilizing
Plans.

He changed the titles of the nobility, and greatly curtailed their powers. He permitted the free circulation of the Bible among his subjects, and granted perfect religious toleration. He encouraged immigration by inviting into Russia foreign officers, generals, mariners, artists and literary men whose talents could assist him in the formation of his plans, as well as those skilled artisans whose industries he patronized and sought to introduce into his dominions. By the Czar's order, arsenals, factories, and schools of navigation were established in Russia. Competent experts and engineers made maps and charts of different portions of the Russian Empire, and also a general survey of the mines.

His En-
lightened
Proceed-
ings.

Peter the Great found greater difficulty in introducing European domestic customs among his subjects. The Czar himself set the example by laying aside the old Russian national dress and adopting the European costume. He required all Russians, except the priests and the peasants, to follow his example. He imposed a heavy tax upon beards in order to abolish them. The long robes and the unkempt beards of the men, and the Oriental seclusion of the women, gradually gave way to European costumes and social customs; but a brutal indulgence still prevailed at the Russian court as well as among the common people.

His
Reforms
of
Russian
Domestic
Customs.

His
Vices and
Faults.

Although Peter the Great could civilize his subjects he could not civilize himself; and he remained a cruel barbarian all his life, devoted to brandy and guilty of some shocking crimes. He busied himself daily with the cares of state; and every evening after resting from his labors he would have a big bottle of brandy set before him, and drink until his reason was gone for the time. He often said that he could correct the faults of his subjects, but could not reform himself. Yet his name stands deservedly among the first of those sovereigns who have labored for the good of their subjects, as he did more for the civilization and welfare of the Russian people than all his predecessors and successors.

His
Great-
ness as a
Czar.

SECTION IV.—TURKEY'S WARS WITH GERMANY AND HER ALLIES (A. D. 1603-1699).

Decline
of the
Ottoman
Empire.

THE Ottoman, or Turkish Empire, which had once been so formidable, had gradually fallen from the summit of its grandeur and steadily declined. Its resources were exhausted, and its history was marked only by misfortunes. The effeminacy and incapacity of the Sultans, their contempt for the arts of the nations of Christendom, and the evils of a purely military and despotic government, gradually undermined the strength of the Empire, and eclipsed its glory as a conquering power. The Janizaries became the real arbiters of the destinies of the Empire, raising up and deposing or murdering Sultans at will; thus following the example of the Prætorian Guards of ancient Rome, who made and unmade Emperors at pleasure. Most of the provinces were ruled by pashas, who oppressed the inhabitants with burdensome taxes for the purpose of enriching themselves.

Power
of the
Janiza-
ries.

Achmet
III., A. D.
1603-
1617.

ACHMET I., the son and successor of Mohammed III., who died of the plague in 1603, was a youth of fifteen when he became Sultan of Turkey, and had been shut up in prison during his father's reign. The Hungarians and the Persians waged war against Turkey during the reign of Achmet I., who did not lead his own troops, but passed most of his time in his harem, which contained over three thousand females. Achmet I. erected a stately mosque near the Church of St. Sophia, which still constitutes one of the principal architectural ornaments of Constantinople. During the reign of Achmet I. the Peace of Sitvatorok, in 1607, ended the war with the German Empire begun in 1594.

His Rule
and Wars.

Peace of
Sitvat-
orok.

Mustapha
I., A. D.
1617-
1618.

Achmet I. died in 1617, and was succeeded as Sultan of Turkey by his brother MUSTAPHA I., who was unfit for government, and was therefore deposed and imprisoned by the Janizaries in 1618, after a

reign of four months. The Janizaries placed OTHMAN II., the youthful son of Achmet I., upon the Turkish throne. War broke out between Turkey and Poland in 1620; and Sultan Othman II. defeated the Poles with great loss at Jassy, in Moldavia, in September, 1620; but the young Sultan, presuming on his great victory to attempt the conquest of Poland, was defeated with the loss of eighty thousand men in 1621, and was forced to consent to an ignominious peace. This disastrous failure so enraged the Janizaries that they rose in insurrection at the close of the war, in 1622, and assassinated the youthful Othman II. by strangling him in the castle of the Seven Towers, a state prison belonging to the Seraglio, after a reign of four years, and when he was only eighteen years of age.

Othman
II., A. D.
1618-
1622.

His Dis-
astrous
War with
Poland,
and
Assassi-
nation.

The murdered Othman's imbecile uncle, the deposed MUSTAPHA I., was then dragged from his dungeon and restored to his throne. The pashas of the various provinces of the Empire took advantage of the confusion to rebel, thus causing such a scene of anarchy that the chief men of Constantinople met together and deposed Mustapha I. a second time, A. D. 1623, in less than a year after his restoration of the Ottoman throne, and again imprisoned him in the Seven Towers.

Mustapha
I.
Restored
and again
Deposed,
A. D.
1622-
1623.

AMURATH IV., a younger brother of Othman II., was then placed upon the Turkish throne. He was arbitrary, tyrannical, fierce and cruel; but he restored order to the Ottoman Empire, and punished the rebellious Janizaries. His extravagant acts of folly have furnished subjects for many an Oriental tale. He was immoderately fond of wine—an indulgence expressly forbidden by the Koran. When intoxicated he committed all kinds of absurd and furious actions. He sometimes traversed the streets of the Turkish capital with a drawn sword, to kill any one whom he might see smoking—a practice which he had forbidden, because he disliked the smell of tobacco. Occasionally he amused himself by discharging arrows from a bow in all directions, utterly regardless of whom he might kill. His attendants trembled at the very sound of his footsteps, and the people in the streets would conceal themselves at his approach. He defeated the Persians, captured Bagdad, and massacred its inhabitants in 1638.

Amurath
IV., A. D.
1623-
1640.

His
Tyranny
and
Cruelty.

Capture
and
Massacre
of
Bagdad.

Sultan Amurath IV. died in 1640, from excessive drinking, and was succeeded on the Turkish throne by his brother IBRAHIM, whose intellect had been so impaired by the close confinement in which he had been kept that he was wholly unable to direct the affairs of state. In 1645 the Turks began a war with Venice for the conquest of the island of Candia, the ancient Crete, and one of the most valuable of the possessions of the Venetian Republic. While this *War of Candia* was still in progress, Sultan Ibrahim was deposed by the turbulent Janizaries, in 1649, after a reign of nine years, and was strangled.

Ibrahim,
A. D.
1640-
1649.

War of
Candia
with
Venice.

**Mohammed IV.,
A. D.
1649-
1687.**

Ibrahim's son, **MOHAMMED IV.**, a child of seven years, then became Sultan of Turkey. As soon as he had arrived at an age of discretion he removed his court to Adrianople. He supported the Cossacks of the Ukraine in their revolt against Poland from 1647 to 1654.

**Hungarian
Revolts
against
the
House of
Hapsburg.**

The civil oppressions and religious persecutions of the Hungarians led to frequent efforts at revolt against the House of Hapsburg. The precautions which the Hungarian Diet at Pressburg had taken to establish civil and religious liberty on a solid basis did not avert disturbances in the Hungarian kingdom. The Hapsburgs perceived the necessity of consolidating their dominions, whose heterogeneous elements were suffering for lack of unity, and they eagerly seized these occasions to extend their power in Hungary, where their authority was vastly circumscribed by the constitution and laws of that kingdom. Thus the Hungarians complained of perpetual infringements on the part of the court of Vienna, and thus arose repeated disturbances in Hungary, the dominion of which was shared by Austria and Turkey.

**Emperor
Leopold I.
and the
Hungarian Diet.**

The Turks then ruled Transylvania, as well as a great part of Hungary. The Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, as King of Hungary, granted protection to John Kemeny, Prince of Transylvania, against Michael Abaffi, a protégé of the Turks; thus rendering a war between the Ottoman and German Empires inevitable. Leopold I., as King of Hungary, convened the Hungarian Diet at Pressburg in 1662 to take action in this crisis. But before giving any opinion concerning the war with the Turks, the Hungarian Diet demanded from Leopold I. a redress of grievances, and adjourned without any decision as to the impending war.

**Turkish
Invasion
of
Austrian
Hungary.**

The Turks profited by these dissensions in the Austrian dominions, and a Turkish army of two hundred thousand men under the Grand Vizier Achmet Köproli invaded Austrian Hungary in 1663, thus bringing on another war between the Ottoman and German Empires. The Turkish invaders speedily captured Neuhausel and several other fortresses in Austrian Hungary, in spite of the vigorous exertions of the famous Montecuculi, the commander of the Austrian and German imperial forces; while a Tartar horde ravaged Moravia almost as far as Olmutz. Leopold I., incapable of opposing the Turks, and distrustful of the Hungarian malcontents, appealed as Emperor to the German Imperial Diet.

**Foreign
Aid to
Austria.**

In this crisis of peril which menaced all Christendom, Sweden, France, Pope Alexander VII. and the Italian states sent contributions of men and money; and, with the extraordinary supplies voted by the German Imperial Diet, Montecuculi was enabled to take the field against the Ottoman invaders with a formidable army, in which were six thousand French auxiliaries under the Count de Coligni, sent by King Louis

XIV. Montecuculi routed the Turks in the great battle of St. Gotthard, near the frontier of Hungary and Styria, in 1664; the French auxiliaries signalizing their bravery.

Battle of
St.
Gotthard.

Instead of making use of this advantage to prosecute hostilities with increased energy and vigor, the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany concluded the twenty years' Truce of Vasvar with the Turks, in August, 1664; permitting them to retain all their conquests in Austrian Hungary, continuing their protégé and tributary Michael Abaffi in Transylvania, and even paying them a tribute of two hundred thousand florins, disguised under the name of a gift. The Emperor Leopold I. had been largely forced to this humiliating treaty by the enmity of the Hungarians against the imperial House of Hapsburg.

Truce of
Vasvar.

In 1669 the Turks finally conquered the island of Candia, after a war of twenty-four years with Venice, and after a siege of two years and four months, during which they lost one hundred thousand lives. The French had vainly endeavored to relieve the beleaguered island. The island of Candia has ever since remained in the possession of the Turks.

Turkish
Conquest
of Candia.

In 1672 the Turks invaded Poland, as allies of the revolted Cossacks, and seized the city of Kaminiec; but the next year an army of eighty thousand Turks was utterly defeated with the loss of forty thousand killed by a small Polish force under the valiant John Sobieski at Kotzim, November 11, 1673. This brilliant victory of the Polish hero checked the progress of the Turkish invaders of Poland, and electrified all Christendom. By the Peace of Zarowno, October 26, 1676, the Turks retained the city of Kaminiec with a considerable part of the Ukraine and Podolia, but restored some portions of the Ukraine to Poland.

Turkish
Defeats in
Poland
by John
Sobieski.

Peace of
Zarowno.

The Truce of Vasvar was highly displeasing to the Hungarians, as it had been concluded without their concurrence. The complaints of the Hungarians against the court of Vienna grew louder. They complained of the Emperor Leopold's action in quartering German troops among them, in occupying the principal fortresses of Hungary with German troops, and in imposing shackles on their religious liberties, thus oppressing the Protestants of Hungary.

Continued
Austro-
Hunga-
rian
Dissen-
sions.

As Leopold I. paid no regard to their complaints, several of the Hungarian magnates headed an armed revolt for the preservation of the civil and religious liberties of Hungary. Leopold hoped to suppress the Hungarian rising by severity. The magnates who led the insurrection were accused of holding a treasonable correspondence with the Turks, and of conspiring against the life of their king, the Emperor Leopold I. Accordingly such magnates as the Counts Zrini, Nadaschdi, Frangepan and Tattenbach were condemned as guilty of high

Hunga-
rian
Revolt
and
Execution
of Hunga-
rian
Magnates.

treason, and were beheaded on the scaffold in 1671. Many of the Protestant clergy of Hungary were banished from the country or condemned to the galleys, on the charge of complicity in the plot; while the chartered rights of Hungary were outraged.

Formidable Hungarian Rebellion against Emperor Leopold I. But these acts of violence, instead of abating the disturbances, tended rather to augment them, and to excite the love of freedom and the military spirit of the Hungarians. The suppression of the dignity of Palatine of Hungary, which occurred about the same time, along with the cruelties and extortions practiced by the German troops, eventually produced a general rebellion in Hungary against the Austrian House of Hapsburg, which ended in civil war in 1677. The Hungarian rebels at first chose Count Francis Wesselini for their leader, but he was soon superseded by Count Emmerik Tekeli. These patriotic magnates were secretly abetted by Louis XIV. of France and by Sultan Mohammed IV. of Turkey.

Emmerik Tekeli. Count Emmerik Tekeli, at the head of twelve thousand Hungarians, defeated the Austrian and German imperial armies in Upper Hungary in 1678, and occupied the entire region of the Carpathian mountains. The Emperor Leopold I., as King of Hungary, then found it necessary to comply; and, in the Hungarian Diet, which he convened at Odenburg, he granted redress of most of the grievances complained of by the Hungarians; but, as Count Emmerik Tekeli disapproved of the resolutions of this Diet, the civil war in Hungary continued; and Tekeli formed an alliance with the Prince of Transylvania and with the Sultan of Turkey, who recognized him as tributary King of Hungary in 1682, while Louis XIV. secretly afforded him assistance.

Leopold's Concessions. As the twenty years' Truce of Vasvar had now almost expired, the Turks renewed hostilities with Austria and the German Empire in 1683, and an Ottoman army of two hundred thousand men under the Grand Vizier Kara Mustapha marched to the aid of the revolted Hungarians and joined Count Emmerik Tekeli at Essek, in Slavonia. The united Turkish and Hungarian armies, numbering two hundred thousand men, then marched upon Vienna to make the Hapsburgs tremble in their own capital. At the approach of the invaders, the Emperor Leopold I. and his court fled in consternation to Linz, followed by sixty thousand persons in a single day; and the Austrian capital seemed doomed.

Turkish Aid to the Hungarians. The immense Turkish hosts under Kara Mustapha laid siege to Vienna, July 14, 1683. The inhabitants and the brave garrison under Count Rudiger von Stahremberg withstood the siege for two months, in spite of all assaults; but six thousand of the garrison perished by battle and pestilence, and the fall of the city appeared at hand.

Turkish Invasion of Austria. At the earnest solicitations of the Emperor Leopold I., the valiant John Sobieski, King of Poland, who had covered himself with glory by

his gallant defense of Poland against Cossacks, Tartars and Turks, now came with eighteen thousand Polish veterans to the relief of Austria's beleaguered capital. He was joined by the German imperial army under Duke Charles of Lorraine; and the united Polish and German armies, numbering eighty-three thousand men, under the chief command of the Polish warrior-king, appeared before Vienna on the evening of Saturday, September 11, 1683; his arrival upon the heights of Kahlenberg being betokened by the discharge of rockets, thus kindling new hopes in the starving citizens of the Austrian capital.

John
Sobieski's
March
to the
Relief of
Vienna.

Although the besieging Ottoman hosts outnumbered the Polish and German troops more than two to one, John Sobieski's name alone was a terror to the Turks. The next day after the Polish king's arrival, Sunday, September 12, 1683, was decided the question whether the crescent of Islam or the cross of Christ was to wave on the spires of Vienna. John Sobieski had drawn up his troops in the plain fronting the Ottoman camp, and ordered an assault on the Turks in their intrenchments, exclaiming as he advanced: "Not to us, O Lord, but to Thee be the glory!"

His
Grand
Attack
on the
Besieging
Turks.

Whole bands of Tartar troops in the Ottoman army broke and fled in the wildest dismay, upon hearing the name of Poland's hero-king repeated along the Turkish lines. An eclipse of the moon added to the consternation of the superstitious Turks, who observed with dread the waning crescent in the heavens. With a furious charge the Polish infantry got possession of an eminence commanding the Grand Vizier's position, and so surprised was Kara Mustapha at this unexpected onset that he instantly gave way to despair.

Defeat
and Rout
of the
Turks.

The charges which were rapidly hurled upon the wavering Ottoman lines put the Turkish hosts to rout with terrific slaughter, thus raising the siege of Vienna. Kara Mustapha vainly endeavored to rally his broken hosts. He asked the fleeing Khan of the Tartars: "Can you not aid me?" The Khan replied: "I know the King of Poland, and I tell you that with such an enemy we have no safety but in flight. Look at the sky! See if God is not against us!" So sudden and general was the panic and flight of the Turks that the triumphant John Sobieski entered the deserted camp of the enemy, who, in their flight, had abandoned one hundred and twenty thousand tents and all their spoils, horses, camels, artillery, baggage and camp equipage to the victorious Christian hosts. Even the consecrated banner of Mohammed became the prize of the victors, and was sent as a trophy to the Pope.

Siege of
Vienna
Raised.

John
Sobieski's
Complete
Victory.

This memorable and decisive victory of Christendom over Islam, of civilization over barbarism, marks the era of the final and rapid decline of the Ottoman Empire. The intelligence of this great victory produced unbounded joy throughout Christendom; but it was unwelcome

Turkey's
Decline.

Letters of Louis XIV. news to Louis XIV., who had secretly encouraged this Moslem invasion. It is said that letters from the French king containing the entire plan for the siege of Vienna were found in the Grand Vizier's tent. The Emperor Leopold I., who was envious of the favor and applause with which his subjects everywhere greeted the valiant King of Poland, treated him with the meanest ingratitude.

Continued Turkish Defeats. The Polish and German imperial armies under King John Sobieski and Duke Charles of Lorraine pursued the fleeing Turks and again defeated them in their retreat. The fortress of Gran, which the Turks had held for almost a century and a half, was wrested from them.

Siege of Buda. In 1684 the German imperial army under Duke Charles of Lorraine captured Wissegrad, Waitzen and Pesth, but failed in a three months' siege of Buda, losing twenty-three thousand men. During the same year the Emperor Leopold I., King John Sobieski of Poland, the Venetian Republic and Pope Innocent XI. entered into a *Holy League* against the Turks; and the *Holy War* which ensued continued until 1699.

Recovery of Hungary from the Turks. A succession of brilliant victories gained by the famous German imperial generals, Duke Charles of Lorraine, Prince Louis of Baden and Prince Eugene of Savoy, recovered that part of Hungary which had been in the possession of the Turks since the famous victory of Sultan Solymán the Magnificent at Mohacz in 1526. The victory of the Duke of Lorraine over the Turks at Strigova in 1685 recovered the fortress of Neuhausel for the Austrians. In 1686 the Duke of Lorraine took the strong fortress of Buda by assault after a siege of three months, and after it had been in the possession of the Turks for one hundred and forty-five years. During the same year Russia joined the Holy League against the Ottoman Porte.

Battle of Mohacz. The splendid victory of the German imperial army under Charles of Lorraine over the Turks at Mohacz, August 12, 1687—the scene of their great victory in 1526—recovered Transylvania and Slavonia for Austria. These continued reverses cost the life of the Grand Vizier Kara Mustapha, who was strangled by order of the enraged Sultan Mohammed IV. During the same year, 1687, the many Turkish disasters caused a mutiny in the Turkish army and a riot in Constantinople; and Sultan Mohammed IV. was hurled from his throne by the rebellious Janizaries, and imprisoned in the Seven Towers; while his brother SOLYMAN III. was raised to the dignity of Sultan of Turkey.

Execution of Kara Mustapha and Deposition of Mohammed IV. Encouraged by the brilliant triumphs of his arms, the Emperor Leopold I., as King of Hungary, convened the Hungarian Diet at Pressburg in 1687, where he demanded that, in consideration of the extraordinary exertions which he had been obliged to make against the Turks, the Hungarian kingdom should be made hereditary in his

Solyman III., A. D. 1687–1691.

Emperor Leopold I. and the Hungarian Diet.

family. The magnates of Hungary seemed at first resolved to maintain their right of electing their sovereign; but, as the criminal court of Eperies had already deprived the magnates of their most enterprising leaders and spread terror through the entire Hungarian nation, the magnates soon yielded to the influence of authority.

Accordingly, the Hungarian Diet made a great change in the constitution of Hungary by abolishing elective monarchy and making the Hungarian crown hereditary in the Austrian House of Hapsburg; but the magnates renewed the Golden Privilege—Hungary's Magna Charta—which their ancestors had wrung from King Andrew II. in 1222, excepting that clause in the thirty-first article which authorized the magnates to take up arms against their sovereign whenever they judged him guilty of having broken his coronation oath by infringing the rights and liberties of Hungary.

The Diet at Pressburg also consented to the admission of German imperial garrisons into all the fortresses of Hungary. In return for the concessions of the Hungarian Diet, the Emperor Leopold I. confirmed the ancient privileges of the Hungarian nation, and granted perfect religious toleration to all orders and sects in Hungary. His son, the Archduke Joseph of Austria, was crowned the first hereditary King of Hungary, December 19, 1687.

The Russians failed in their efforts to conquer the Tartars of the Crimea; but the Venetians won brilliant victories over the Turks in Central and Southern Greece, capturing a number of towns, among which were Athens and Corinth. The Parthenon, the most important architectural ornament of Athens—still as perfect in its exquisite proportions as in the time of Pericles—was used by the Turks as a powder-magazine. During the siege a bomb from a Venetian vessel fell into the famous edifice, and its explosion shivered the finely-sculptured marbles of the central portion to atoms. The Venetian general Morosini completed the conquest of the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, from the Turks in 1690.

The Austrian arms were crowned with repeated victories, and the humiliation of the Turks was deepened during the next two years after their great defeat at Mohacz in 1687. The German imperial forces took Albe-Royale, Belgrade, Semendria and Gradisca. Sultan Solymán III. now solicited peace; but this was refused by the Emperor Leopold I., who hoped to annihilate the Ottoman power in Europe and to make himself master of the dominions of the former Eastern Roman Empire. The Emperor Leopold's ambitious hopes seemed about to be realized in the campaign of 1689, during which his army under Prince Louis of Baden achieved two splendid victories, one at Nissa, in Servia, and the other at Widdin, in Bulgaria, thus effecting the conquest of the

Hungary Made a Hereditary Possession of the Hapsburgs.

Emperor Leopold's Concessions.

Venetian Victories over the Turks in Greece.

Destruction of the Parthenon.

Continued Austrian and German Imperial Victories over the Turks.

Turkish provinces of Bosnia, Servia and Bulgaria. Prince Louis of Baden established his winter-quarters in the tributary Turkish principality of Wallachia.

Turkish
Victories
over the
Austrians.

The drooping spirits of the Turks was temporarily revived during the campaign of 1690 by the talents and energy of their new Grand Vizier, Mustapha Köproli, Achmet Köproli's son, who, after gaining several victories over the Austrians, recovered the strong fortresses of Nissa, Widdin, Semendria and Belgrade, thus reconquering Bosnia, Servia and Bulgaria from the Austrians. The new Grand Vizier entered Slavonia and defeated the Austrians at Essek, while a Turkish detachment marched into Transylvania.

Battle of
Salankemen.

Solyman
III.
Deposed.

Achmet
II., A. D.
1691-
1695.

Emperor
Leopold's
Forces
Employed
against
Louis
XIV.

The extraordinary efforts made by the Sublime Porte for the campaign of 1691 inspired the Turks with hopes of better success; but their expectations were doomed to bitter disappointment by the great battle of Salankemen, in which the brave Mustapha Köproli was slain, thus giving the victory to the Austrians under Prince Louis of Baden, August 19, 1691. In consequence of this great disaster to the Ottoman arms, Sultan Solyman III. was deposed by a revolt of the Janizaries, and his brother ACHMET II. was raised to the Turkish throne.

For the next five years this war between the Ottoman and German Empires languished; as the principal forces of Austria and the German Empire were then occupied in the War of the Grand Alliance against Louis XIV. of France, thus preventing the Emperor Leopold I. from reaping any advantage from the great victory of his arms at Salankemen, and obliging him to act on the defensive in Hungary during the campaigns from 1692 to 1696.

Venetian
and
Russian
Con-
quests.

In the meantime the Venetians made many conquests from the Turks in Delmatia and Albania; while the Czar Peter the Great of Russia wrested the port of Azov, on the Black Sea coast, and its neighboring territory, from the Turks in 1696.

Achmet
III.
Deposed.

Mustapha
II., A. D.
1695-
1703.

Prince
Eugene
of Savoy.

In 1695 Sultan Achmet II. was also driven from his throne by an insurrection of the Janizaries, and his nephew MUSTAPHA II. was elevated to the dignity of Sultan of Turkey. After the new Sultan's accession the Ottoman arms suddenly became formidable once more to Christendom for a brief period, and in 1696 Sultan Mustapha II. led his hosts across the Danube and defeated the Austrians at Bega.

The danger which threatened Christendom was averted by the brilliant military genius of the new commander of the German imperial forces in Hungary—Prince Eugene of Savoy, a Frenchman by birth, but who had been offended by King Louis XIV., and who in revenge entered the service of the Emperor Leopold I., the deadly enemy of the French king. Among the first great achievements of Prince Eugene of Savoy was his signal and decisive victory over Sultan Mustapha II.

in the great battle of Zenta, on the Theiss, in the South of Hungary, September 11, 1697, in which the Grand Vizier, seventeen pashas and two-thirds of the Ottoman army were left dead upon the field. The defeated Sultan was obliged to retreat in disorder to Belgrade. **Battle of Zenta.**

The terrible disaster to the Ottoman arms at Zenta made the Turks exceedingly anxious for peace. Sultan Mustapha II. had recourse to the mediation of England, and King William III. used his great influence in favor of peace. After three months of negotiations at Carlowitz, near Peterwardein, in Slavonia, Sultan Mustapha II. concluded a treaty of peace with the Emperor Leopold I. of Germany, King Frederick Augustus I. of Poland and the Republic of Venice, January 26, 1699. **Peace of Carlowitz.**

By the Peace of Carlowitz the Austrian Hapsburgs were left in possession of all Hungary, Transylvania and Slavonia and part of Croatia; while the Republic of Venice obtained six fortresses in Dalmatia, the isles of St. Maura and Ægina, and the peninsula of the Morea, or Southern Greece, the ancient Peloponnesus; and Poland recovered the city of Kaminiec and the provinces of Podolia and the Ukraine; but the Turks retained the Banat of Temesvar, in Hungary, and the strong fortress of Belgrade, on the Danube. Turkey renounced the tribute which Venice had previously paid to the Sublime Porte for the island of Zante, and the Republic of Ragusa was guaranteed its independence of the Venetian Republic. **Its Humiliating Terms for the Turks.**

Peace was not made between Turkey and Russia for more than three years later, as Sultan Mustapha II. was very reluctant to allow the Czar Peter the Great to retain possession of the sea-port of Azov and thus have a share in the Black Sea navigation. But peace was finally made between Turkey and Russia in July, 1702, by which the Sublime Porte ceded Azov, with eighty miles of the Black Sea coast, to Russia; and Peter the Great soon made that sea-port one of the strongest fortresses in Europe. Thenceforth the Ottoman Empire's decline was very rapid, and the Turks were no longer formidable to Europe. **Cession of Azov to Russia.**

Turkey's Rapid Decline.

SECTION V.—THE GREAT NORTHERN WAR (A. D. 1700–1721).

WHILE the war of the Spanish Succession was distracting the South and West of Europe for twelve years, A. D. 1702–1714, the North and East of the same continent were convulsed for the first twenty-one years of the eighteenth century, A. D. 1700–1721, by the great *Northern War* between the Czar Peter the Great of Russia and King Charles XII. of Sweden. **The War.**

**Northern
Sover-
eigns.**

Peter the Great, as we have already seen, had become sole Czar of Russia in 1689. Charles XII., as we have seen, had become King of Sweden in 1697, in the same year in which the Elector Frederick Augustus II. of Saxony had been elected King of Poland with the title of Frederick Augustus I. Frederick IV. had become King of Denmark in 1699, as also noticed in a preceding part of this volume.

**Alliance
against
Charles
XII. of
Sweden.**

In 1700 Charles XII., the young King of Sweden, was only eighteen years of age; and the sovereigns of Russia, Poland and Denmark considered the time favorable for wresting from Sweden the provinces which she had formerly conquered. Peter the Great of Russia was desirous of the possession of some of the Swedish provinces on the east side of the Baltic; Frederick Augustus, King of Poland and Elector of Saxony, resolved upon seizing Livonia; and King Frederick IV. of Denmark determined to appropriate unto himself Schleswig, which belonged to the Duke of Holstein, a brother-in-law of the young King of Sweden. An alliance against Sweden was accordingly concluded between the Czar of Russia and the Kings of Poland and Denmark, for the purpose of obtaining the coveted provinces by force. Almost at the same time, in the year 1700, the King of Denmark carried war into the dominions of the Duke of Holstein, the King of Poland marched into Livonia and fell upon Riga, and the Czar of Russia with eighty thousand men invaded Esthonia and laid siege to Narva.

**Declara-
tion of
Charles
XII.**

In this crisis the young King of Sweden displayed a firmness and energy which surprised both his enemies and his counselors. He reassured his Senate by the spirited declaration: "I have resolved never to wage an unjust war, nor ever to close a just one except by the destruction of my enemies." This sentiment may have been sincere when uttered, but subsequent events contradicted it.

**His
Invasion
of
Denmark
and
Siege of
Copen-
hagen.**

To the astonishment of all Europe, the young King of Sweden suddenly exhibited military talents. Having secured the alliance of England and Holland, whose fleets were sent to his assistance, and having determined upon carrying the war into Denmark, Charles XII. landed with an army on the island of Zealand, and laid siege to Copenhagen. Upon landing he put a Danish force to flight, and then for the first time he heard the general discharge of musketry loaded with ball. He asked Major Stuart, a British officer who stood near him, what was the cause of that whistling which he heard. Major Stuart replied: "It is the sound of the bullets which they fire against Your Majesty." The young Swedish king responded: "Very well, this shall henceforth be my music." Copenhagen was only saved from the horrors of a bombardment by the payment of a heavy ransom. King Frederick IV. of Denmark, having invaded Holstein-Gottorp, and being completely hemmed in by the Swedes, was completely humbled after a cam-

paign of six weeks, and found that nothing but a disadvantageous peace would save his kingdom from falling into the power of the Swedes. The Peace of Travendal was accordingly concluded between the Kings of Sweden and Denmark, by which Frederick IV. renounced his alliance with Russia and Poland, and agreed to indemnify the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp.

**Peace of
Trav-
endal.**

After humbling the King of Denmark, Charles XII., at the head of eight thousand Swedish troops, marched against the Czar of Russia, who, with eighty thousand men, was then besieging Narva. Although the Swedish king had but one-tenth as many men as his antagonist, he did not hesitate to attack the army of Peter the Great, who was himself then absent. Having broken the Russian intrenchments by a heavy cannonade, Charles XII., on November 30, 1700, ordered a bayonet charge; and, under cover of a severe storm of snow, which was driven into the faces of the Russians by the wind, he assailed the enemy. The Russians were unable to stand their ground; and, after a terrible battle of three hours, their works were forced on all sides. The Russian loss was eight thousand killed and thirty thousand made prisoners. Many were drowned in the Neva by the breaking of the bridge. The Russians also lost all their baggage, stores and cannon. Charles XII. entered Neva as a conqueror, thinking that this great blow had completely broken the power of Peter the Great. The Czar, however, was not discouraged. He said: "I knew that the Swedes would beat us, but in time they will teach us to become their conquerors." After his defeat Peter evacuated the Swedish provinces and devoted his attention to disciplining his army.

**Victory of
Charles
XII. over
Peter the
Great of
Russia at
Narva.**

Instead of following up his victory over Peter the Great, the Swedish king, after wintering at Narva, marched against Frederick Augustus of Poland, who had unsuccessfully besieged Riga the previous year. After defeating the Polish king in the bloody battle of Duna, in July, 1701, and obtaining full possession of the provinces of Livonia and Courland, Charles XII. marched into Poland. The Swedish monarch entered Warsaw on May 14, 1702, and soon afterward declared that he would not grant a peace to Poland until the Polish Diet had dethroned Frederick Augustus and elected another king in his place. On July 9, 1702, Augustus was defeated with heavy loss by Charles in a desperate engagement near Clissow, in a large plain between Warsaw and Cracow. The camp, baggage, artillery and military chest of Augustus fell into the hands of Charles, who soon afterward took possession of Warsaw.

**His
Victories
in Poland.**

While Charles XII. of Sweden was conquering in Poland, his most powerful enemy, Peter the Great of Russia, was reducing the Swedish provinces on the east side of the Baltic, and annexing them to the

Founding of St. Petersburg by Peter the Great. Russian Empire. Peter took Narva by storm, built the fortresses of Schlusselfburg and Cronstadt, and caused the islands at the mouth of the Neva to be drained by serfs; and there he laid the foundations of a city which he named St. Petersburg, and which he intended should be the capital of the Russian Empire. In 1703 Peter compelled three hundred thousand people from Moscow and other Russian cities to settle at St. Petersburg. He also encouraged foreigners to emigrate thither. Famine and disease soon carried two hundred thousand of the settlers of the new city to their graves. Yet Peter was not discouraged, but he persevered in his enterprise; and, by his liberal and enlightened policy, foreign artisans and merchants were induced to emigrate to St. Petersburg.

Dethronement of Augustus II. of Poland by Charles XII. Charles XII. defeated Frederick Augustus of Poland at Pultusk, May 1, 1703, and compelled him to retreat into Saxony, his hereditary dominions. Through the influence of the King of Sweden, Augustus was dethroned by the Polish Diet; and in July, 1704, Stanislas Lecinski, voivode of Posen, a creature of Charles XII., was elected to the throne of Poland by a Diet surrounded by Swedish soldiers. Resolving to recover the Polish crown, Augustus returned to Poland with an army of Saxons and took Warsaw, but was at length forced to retire. Augustus afterward received the assistance of sixty thousand Russians, whom Peter the Great had sent to expel the Swedes from Poland; but Charles routed the different Russian divisions in succession, and struck such terror into their ranks by the rapidity of his movements that the Russians retired into their own territories, A. D. 1706.

More Victories of Charles XII.

Invasion of Saxony by Charles XII. In the meantime a victory gained by the Swedes over the forces of Augustus opened to the Swedish monarch the way into Saxony. Accordingly, Charles XII. invaded the Saxon dominions of Augustus, without asking permission of the Emperor of Germany, whose attention was too much engrossed by the War of the Spanish Succession to give any heed to the movements of the King of Sweden. Notwithstanding the strict discipline of the Swedes, they frightfully ravaged the Saxon territories. Augustus had now no other alternative than to consent to such terms of peace as the conquering King of Sweden chose to dictate. Under these circumstances the Peace of Altranstadt was concluded, September 24, 1706, on terms most humiliating to Augustus, who was required to renounce the crown of Poland for himself and his posterity, to dissolve his alliance with the Czar of Russia and to surrender the Livonian Patkul to the Swedish monarch, who put him to a cruel death.

Peace of Altranstadt.

In September, 1707, Charles XII., at the head of forty thousand troops, reëntered Poland, where Peter the Great had been endeavor-

ing to retrieve the affairs of Augustus. As the King of Sweden advanced, the Czar retired into his own dominions. Charles resolved to march upon Moscow; and Peter, becoming alarmed at this bold movement of his antagonist, solicited peace; but Charles, who had determined to completely subdue his great rival, haughtily replied: "I will treat at Moscow." Charles now advanced into Russia and directed his course toward Moscow. Peter destroyed the roads and desolated the country between Poland and Moscow, so that hunger, fatigue and constant partial actions would so weaken the Swedish army that it could not reach Moscow.

**Invasion
of Russia
by
Charles
XII.**

Charles XII., whose army was utterly exhausted, now resolved to march southward into the Ukraine, whither he had been invited by Mazeppa, Hetman of the Cossacks, who had resolved to throw off his allegiance to the Czar. Peter discovered the plans of the rebellious chief and thwarted them by the execution of his associates, and Mazeppa appeared in the Swedish camp as a fugitive rather than as a powerful ally.

**Mazeppa,
the
Cossack
Hetman.**

Charles XII. had ordered a large army from Sweden, under General Löwenhaupt, to reinforce him. While on his march to join Charles, Löwenhaupt was defeated by the Russians in three battles with the loss of all his artillery, baggage and provisions; and he only succeeded in reaching the camp of Charles with a small force. The severity of the winter of 1708-'9 reduced the Swedish army to twenty thousand men. At one time two thousand were frozen to death before the eyes of the hard-hearted Charles XII.

**Swedish
Misfor-
tunes.**

Notwithstanding the misfortunes and sufferings of his army, the ambitious King of Sweden was still obstinately resolved upon the conquest of Russia. At length Charles laid siege to the strong town of Pultowa, on the frontiers of the Ukraine. When the Czar approached, with seventy thousand men, for the relief of the garrison, Charles hastened with the greater portion of his army to give battle to Peter, leaving the remainder to press the siege with vigor. On July 8, 1709, was fought the great battle of Pultowa, which ended forever the splendid career of Charles XII. of Sweden. In this battle Peter the Great and his subjects fully proved that they had profited by the lessons of their enemies. The Swedes charged with such impetuosity that the Russian cavalry were forced back, but the Russian infantry held their ground until the cavalry had rallied and again gone into the fight. In the meantime the Russian artillery had made frightful havoc in the Swedish ranks. Having left his heavy cannon in the morasses, Charles could not contend successfully against his antagonist; and, after a terrible battle of two hours, the Swedish army was hopelessly annihilated. Having been wounded during the siege of Pultowa, Charles was

**Battle of
Pultowa
and Over-
throw of
Charles
XII.**

carried about the field in a litter, which was shattered to pieces by a cannon-ball while the battle was raging. The Czar's hat was pierced by a musket-ball; and his favorite general, Menschikoff, had three horses shot under him. Eight thousand Swedish troops lay dead on the sanguinary field, and six thousand were made prisoners by the victorious Russians; and after retreating to the Dnieper twelve thousand were compelled to surrender to the pursuing Russians, and the once-splendid army of Charles XII. was totally destroyed. The Swedish soldiers who were made prisoners by the Russians were dispersed over the vast Russian Empire, and not one of them ever returned to his native land. Many perished miserably in the wilds and mines of Siberia.

**His
Flight to
Turkey.**

**Renewal
of the
Alliance
against
Sweden.**

**Charles
XII. in
Turkey.**

**Short
Turko-
Russian
War.**

**Battle
on the
Pruth.**

**Obstinance
and
Captivity
of
Charles
XII. in
Turkey.**

The once-conquering Charles XII. now became a helpless fugitive; and, with three hundred of his guards, he fled to the Turkish town of Bender, having lost in one day all that he had gained during nine years of war. The dethroned Augustus now reëntered Poland and wrested the Polish crown from Stanislas Leczinski; and Denmark, Poland and Russia renewed their alliance against Sweden. King Frederick William I. of Prussia laid claim to certain Swedish possessions in Germany, and joined the coalition against Sweden, as did England also. Peter the Great invaded the Swedish provinces on the east side of the Baltic, the King of Denmark fell upon Schleswig, and the Prussians seized upon Swedish Pomerania.

The Swedish monarch met with an honorable reception at the hands of the Turks. He lived at Bender in royal splendor as the guest of the Sultan. He did not entertain a single thought of returning to his kingdom without having first conquered Russia. Charles made use of all the means at his command to induce the Turks to make war on Russia, and at length he succeeded. A Turkish army of two hundred thousand men marched to the Pruth, where it was met by a Russian army under the Czar Peter. After four days of hard fighting, in July, 1711, Peter and his whole army would have been killed or made prisoners had not his wife Catharine corrupted the Turks with Russian gold and thus brought about an honorable peace. Charles could not repress his rage at finding all his hopes for the overthrow of his great rival thus blasted.

The obstinate Charles XII. still determined to remain in Turkey, even after the Sultan had ordered him to leave the Ottoman dominions; and the Porte found it necessary to employ forcible means to send him away. Arming his immediate attendants, about three hundred in number, Charles defied a Turkish army of twenty-six thousand men. After a fierce resistance, in which many of his attendants were killed, and the house in which he defended himself had been set on fire, Charles

was made a prisoner. The Swedish monarch remained a captive in Turkey ten months longer, wasting his time in useless obstinacy.

In the meantime the Swedish army under General Steenbock had defeated the Danes and the Saxons at Gadesbusch, in Mecklenburg, and burned the defenseless town of Altona, but were afterward compelled to surrender as prisoners of war to the Czar of Russia. The Russian arms were making rapid progress in the Swedish province of Finland; and the Russian fleet gained a great victory over the Swedish navy near the island of Oeland, in the Baltic sea.

**Swedish
Defeats.**

When Charles XII. learned that the council which governed Sweden in his absence was about to appoint his sister regent of the kingdom, and make peace with Russia and Denmark, he resolved to return to Sweden. The Swedish king left the Ottoman territories in October, 1714; and, after having traveled through Hungary and Germany, he unexpectedly arrived at Stralsund, in Swedish Pomerania, after a journey of fourteen days on horseback.

**Return of
Charles
XII. to
Sweden.**

At length the allied Danish, Saxon and Prussian armies laid siege to Stralsund. After a heroic defense on the part of the Swedes for over a year, Stralsund was surrendered to the besieging enemy, in December, 1715; whereupon the whole of Pomerania and the island of Rugen were taken possession of by the Prussians. Charles escaped to Sweden in a boat, and still obstinately refused to consent to a peace.

**Prussian
Siege and
Capture
of Stral-
sund.**

In 1716 Charles XII. invaded Norway for the purpose of humbling the King of Denmark for violating the Peace of Travendal. Charles soon returned to Sweden; and his attention was now occupied with the bold political schemes of his Prime Minister, Baron von Görtz, who was negotiating with Peter the Great for an alliance between Russia and Sweden, by which these two powers might dictate law to Europe, and place the Pretender James Stuart on the throne of England.

**Scheme
of Baron
von
Gortz.**

In 1718 the Swedish monarch invaded Norway a second time, and laid siege to the fortress of Frederikshall. Here the "Alexander of the North" found his death. While reconnoitering the works, during a terrific fire from the Danish batteries, on the night of December 11, 1718, Charles XII. was killed, whether by the bullet of an assassin or by a grape-shot from the enemy is a disputed point in history.

**Siege of
Frederik-
shall and
Death of
Charles
XII.**

After greatly restricting the royal power, the Swedish Diet placed ULRICA ELEANORA, sister to Charles XII., on the throne of Sweden; and in 1719 Baron von Görtz was barbarously executed. In 1720 Ulrica Eleanora relinquished the royal dignity to her husband, FREDERICK of Hesse Cassel.

**Ulrica
Eleanora
and Fred-
erick.**

By the Peace of Stockholm with Poland, Prussia, Denmark and England, in 1720, and by the Peace of Nystadt with Russia, in 1721, Sweden surrendered most of her foreign possessions in return for an

**Peace of
Stock-
holm and
Peace of
Nystadt.**

indemnification in money. The Baltic provinces of Ingria, Esthonia and Livonia were ceded to Russia; the greater part of Pomerania to Prussia, and Schleswig and Holstein to Denmark. Sweden thus lost her rank as the great power of the North; while Russia, under the great Peter, began to control the destinies of the North and the East.

Russia's
New
Epoch.

While Sweden was almost ruined by the mad ambition of Charles XII., Russia, under the illustrious Peter the Great, was taking her place as a leading European power. The acquisition of the Swedish provinces of Ingria, Esthonia and Livonia by the Peace of Nystadt opened a new epoch for Russia. As long as Moscow had remained the Russian capital the views of the Czars were more Asiatic than European, and the customs and manners of the Russians were more assimilated to those of Asia than to those of Europe; but since St. Petersburg, which was located nearer to the civilization of the West, had become the capital of the Empire and had risen into importance on account of the magnificence of its plan and of its buildings, Russia had become a European state.

Great
Achievements of
Peter the
Great.

Peter the Great wrote to his ambassador in Paris: "Apprenticeships usually end in seven years. Ours has lasted twice as long; but, thank God, it is at length brought to the desired termination." The Czar had good cause to be proud of his work. In the first twenty-one years of the eighteenth century—the period which he had spent in learning, mainly from his enemies, the arts of conquering and governing—he had reorganized an army and created a navy, had built a city of palaces among the marshes of the Neva, had improved the administration of justice, had more than doubled the foreign commerce of Russia, had caused manufactures to spring up in his dominions, had built roads, dug canals and introduced the printing-press. By his genius, his personal energy and industry, he had promoted the civilization of Russia and placed her in the front rank among the powers of Europe, and had become one of the greatest of European monarchs.

His
Reforms
and Inno-
vations.

Peter the Great promoted learning and refinement of a higher grade by the establishment of an Academy of Sciences. He remodeled the government and police upon the plan of other European states, thus increasing the Czar's power and diminishing that of the boyars. One of the innovations of Peter the Great which was productive of the most important consequences was the abolition of the dignity of Patriarch, and the creation of a Holy Synod as the chief ecclesiastical court of Russia, to which the Czar communicated his orders.

Reaction-
ary Policy
of Prince
Alexis.

While Peter the Great was reforming his Empire he beheld with grief that his only son Alexis, the heir to the Russian throne, had joined the old Russian party in opposition to his father's reforms, and that he cherished an intention of restoring the old system and again mak-

ing Moscow the Russian capital. The Czar vainly endeavored to bend his son's stubborn and defiant spirit and to make the prince a friend to European civilization. Alexis held fast to his opinions, and at length disappeared from Russia. Thereupon Peter the Great, anxious for the permanence of his institutions, ordered the arrest of his son, and caused him to be brought home a prisoner and condemned to death, A. D. 1722. It is disputed whether Alexis was executed or whether he died in prison before execution.

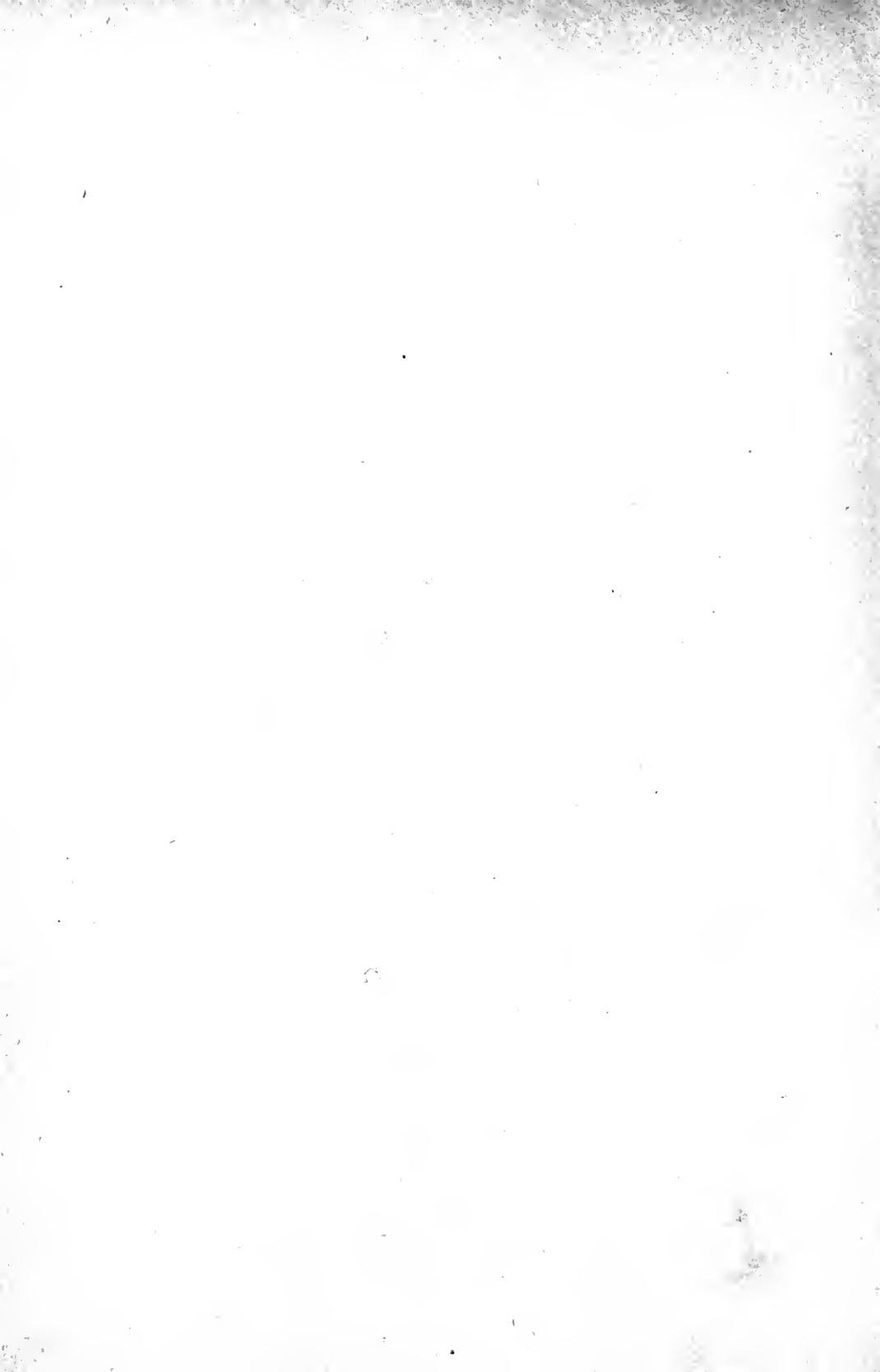
The Senate and Synod of Russia in solemn assembly conferred upon Peter the Great the title of *Emperor of all the Russias*; and he richly merited the title of *Peter the Great*, which was bestowed upon him by all classes of his subjects, who hailed him as the Father of his Country. During the next few years Peter the Great waged war with Persia, by which he extended the Russian frontier on the south-east. Peter's favorite Prime Minister, Prince Menschikoff, had risen to his high station from the humble condition of a baker-boy. Peter's thirty-six years' reign ended with his death, in 1725.

**His
Condem-
nation
and
Death.**

**Peter the
Great,
Emperor
of all the
Russias.**

**Prince
Mensch-
koff.**







X-16240

1970 1971





A 000 457 046 1

