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OUTLINES OF BRITISH HISTORY

WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO
SOCIAL LIFE AND CONDITIONS

BY

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PART II

FROM 1485 TO 1714

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P R E F A C E

THE aim of this book is to present in succinct but at the same time-readable form a complete summary of the outstanding events and movements in British history from 55 B.C. to the present day. But 'movements' are of the people: hence the volume is not a mere chronicle of the doings of kings and other great personages. It is rather a brief record of the development, through the centuries, of the *nation as a whole*—their struggles, their failures, their successes. For this reason, considerable space has been devoted to social and industrial conditions, as well as to the growth of government, both central and local: nor have the causes that have led to the founding and extension of the Empire been overlooked. In short, all that really matters to the young student of history has been briefly recorded.

It is hoped that the volume will be found especially useful in the Upper Classes of Primary Schools and the Lower Forms of Secondary Schools, whether the prescribed course be based upon the Periodic, Concentric, or Aspect treatment of the subject.

GEORGE GUEST.

BOURNEMOUTH, 1st November 1922.

PART II (1485 TO 1714)

The Tudor Period (1485 to 1603)

99. Henry VII., who became King of England in 1485, was the grandson of Owen Tudor, a Welshman : hence the line of sovereigns of which he was the first is known as **Henry VII.'s Claim to the Crown.** The new King claimed the throne because (1) he was descended from John of Gaunt, a son of Edward III. ; (2) he had conquered Richard III. at Bosworth Field, in Leicestershire.

Neither claim was valid, however, because there were heirs to the throne in the persons of Elizabeth of York and her cousin, the Earl of Warwick. Henry VII. was, in reality, a usurper ; but he received the approval of Parliament, who settled the Crown 'in him and his heirs, and in none other.' This choice pleased the people of Wales ; but the Yorkists, being excluded from the throne, were dissatisfied. Two impostors, Perkin Warbeck and Lambert Simnel, each stirred up rebellion, both of which, however, were suppressed. With the object of pacifying the Yorkists, Henry married Elizabeth of York and thus united the two rival 'Houses.'

100. With the Tudor age, modern history may be said to have begun. Henry VII. was fully aware of the difficulties that had beset the English throne in pre-Tudor days. It was his intention, therefore, to increase the royal power. But Henry VII. was possessed of sufficient discretion to prevent his opposing, openly, the wishes of any class of his subjects.

Tudor policy, as set forth by Henry VII., may be thus summarised : (1) to check the power of the nobles, the great land-

owners ; (2) to reduce the influence of Parliament ; (3) to refrain from indulging in foreign wars, upon which vast sums had been expended by former kings ; (4) to encourage commercial enterprise.

101. Within a year of his accession, Henry VII. took active steps to reduce the power of the great nobles. The time was opportune for such measures, because many of the barons had been killed in the Wars of the Roses. But those who remained were still powerful, having at their command large bodies of men called retainers. These latter were often disbanded soldiers who were pledged to obey the lord, whose livery they wore, and to uphold his cause in arms. This custom had been forbidden by former kings ; but it was gradually revived, until, in the reign of the first Tudor sovereign, it became the greatest obstacle to royal power. With the object, therefore, of abolishing so great a menace as 'livery and maintenance,' Henry VII. revived the Court of Star Chamber.

The court was held in one of the rooms of the royal palace at Westminster. This room was known as the Star Chamber either because of the ceiling-decoration or because it was the place where the Jewish bonds, or *starres*, had been formerly lodged.

In reality, the Court of Star Chamber was a committee of the Privy Council, and was constituted of the Lord Chancellor (as President), the Treasurer, the Lord Privy Seal, a spiritual peer, a temporal peer, and two members of the Bench. Its jurisdiction was extremely wide. Included among the misdemeanours with which it had power to deal were riot, perjury, forgery, conspiracy, and maintenance. Many offenders who had previously evaded the law were brought before the Court of Star Chamber, and severe punishment was meted out to them.

Throughout the Tudor Period, and during the reigns of the first two Stuarts, the Court of Star Chamber was a tyrannical institution. It dispensed with a jury, and even with witnesses. Accused persons were compelled to answer on oath, and were

in many cases subjected to torture. Fine, imprisonment, mutilation, torture; in short, any punishment short of death might be inflicted.

The revival of the Court of Star Chamber was, perhaps, the most important act of Henry VII.'s reign. Not only did it enforce the statute against liveries and maintenance, but, as will be shown in subsequent pages, it was effective in raising large sums for the King. Its influence as a check on baronial power was immeasurably great; but it became an instrument of tyranny, and in 1641 was abolished.

102. When Henry VII. ascended the throne, Parliament exercised considerable influence over the royal authority. No tax could be levied without the consent of Parlia- **Avarice of**
ment. Every new law was subject to the assent **Henry VII.**
of the legislature. Provision was made by law to ensure that all offenders should have the benefit of a fair trial.

It was evident that no King could become independent of Parliament so long as the royal coffers were in need. Henry, therefore, set about the accumulation of wealth, in which endeavour he secured the services of Cardinal Morton and two lawyers, named Richard Empson and Edmund Dudley.

Cardinal Morton was instrumental in reviving the illegal practice of exacting benevolences. A benevolence was a species of forced loan levied by the King in violation of Magna Charta. These so-called loans were, in reality, gifts; for the King did not intend to repay them. By Richard III. they had been declared illegal. Morton instructed the commissioners to apply to all persons, suspected of being wealthy, for a benevolence. All who lived in splendour were regarded as wealthy; while those who lived frugally were informed that they must have enriched themselves by such parsimony. This dilemma was popularly known as 'Morton's Fork'; and, by its means, the Cardinal succeeded in adding immense sums to his royal master's income.

Empson and Dudley were barons of the Court of Exchequer. By these rascally lawyers, innocent persons were accused of crime and made to pay heavy fines in order to avoid being

tried before the King's judges. Old laws were revived, false witnesses were produced, and the judges were even bribed in order to extort money from the wealthy.

The statute against liveries and maintenance was also enforced with rigour, and heavy fines were imposed by the Court of Star Chamber for any infringement of the law. De Vere, Earl of Oxford, is reported to have been fined £10,000 for gathering a number of men in livery to do honour to the King when visited by his royal master.

By means of the wealth thus accumulated, Henry VII. made himself independent of Parliament. Throughout his reign of twenty-four years he only convened the legislature seven times; and during a period of thirteen years Parliament met only once.

The immense fortune bequeathed by Henry VII. was destined to affect his successor on the throne. The wealth of the Tudor sovereigns was an important factor in the control exercised by them for more than a century.

103. It has been stated already that Tudor sovereigns were not desirous of engaging in foreign warfare. They aimed **The Age of Discovery.** rather at encouraging the interest in commercial enterprise which had been steadily developing during later Plantagenet days. Several factors were conducive to the achievement of such an object.

The invention of separate-letter-printing had given a great impetus to the spread of knowledge. From the new printing-presses there issued many books calculated to engage the minds of men in matters other than military undertakings. Religious questions were being eagerly discussed. The work of Wycliffe, in placing an English version of the Bible within the reach of men, was beginning to bear fruit.

But the most potent factor in the success of the Tudor policy was the provision of a suitable outlet for the energies of the more active spirits of the time. The Tudor Period has been well described as the 'Age of Discovery.' It is important to bear in mind, however, that the desire to go in search of new lands was not confined to Englishmen. Almost the whole of Europe was affected—England, by no means first.

The occupation of Constantinople by the Turks in the middle of the fifteenth century had closed the Mediterranean route to the East so far as the Christian communities of Europe were concerned. Trade-routes less dangerous had to be opened up by European merchants.

It is natural that the countries most affected by the changed conditions should be the first to take action. As early as 1486, a Portuguese navigator named Bartholomew Diaz attempted to open up a sea-route to India by way of the Cape. His effort failed, however, because of the storms he encountered. In 1497, a fellow-countryman, Vasco da Gama, succeeded in a similar effort.

In the meantime, the Spaniards had entered the arena as explorers. The story of the discovery of America, in 1492, by Christopher Columbus, is too well known to need repetition here. But two facts in connection with this discovery should be carefully noted, namely: (1) Columbus was not a Spaniard, but a Genoese sailor. He succeeded in arousing the interest of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain in his venture: they enabled him to fit out the expedition, hence the honour of the discovery is credited to Spain. (2) Columbus did not discover the mainland of the American continent, but the group of islands named the West Indies. Subsequent voyages by the same navigator resulted in the discovery of the Leeward Islands and Jamaica, and in a landing being effected on the American mainland.

England's share in the voyages of discovery was soon to follow. At Bristol, there was residing a Venetian citizen and navigator named John Cabot, who had vainly sought the financial assistance of both Spain and Portugal. Although it is doubtful whether Henry VII. defrayed any part of the cost of Cabot's venture, it is certain that the first Tudor monarch empowered Cabot not only to sail across the Atlantic but also to fix the royal banner of England in any territory he might discover. In 1497, Cabot left Bristol on the first English expedition of exploration. As a result of this and other voyages, Cape Breton Island, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland,

and much of the coast of North America, subsequently added to the map of the world, were explored by John Cabot and his son Sebastian.

104. When Henry VII. died in 1509, the vast treasure accumulated during his reign passed to his son, Henry VIII.

The Spendthrift, Henry VIII. The new King was very unlike his miserly father : he was, in fact, a spendthrift. Much of his wealth was squandered on pleasure and pomp. He was a skilled athlete : hence sport of all kinds received his enthusiastic support. But he was also possessed of considerable learning. As he was the second son, it was not anticipated that he would become King ; and he was, accordingly, educated for the Church. Throughout his reign, he was deeply interested in all matters of religion. He was also an excellent musician. It is not surprising that such a King was popular. ‘ Bluff King Hal ’ he was known as by his subjects.

But Henry VIII. was extremely selfish ; and, by degrees, he became an utter tyrant. He aimed at ruling without a Parliament ; but, as he disposed of the royal wealth in so lavish a manner, he was obliged to convene the legislature in order to replenish his empty coffers. His love of self frequently led him to sacrifice those who had rendered most faithful service.

During the earlier years of his reign, a war was being waged between the Emperor Charles v. and the King of France. Spain and Germany had formed a Holy League to protect the Pope’s dominions against France. Henry was desirous of enhancing his own authority by holding the balance between the two contending parties : hence he supported first one and then the other. In this way he disposed of immense sums. As will be shown in subsequent pages, Henry VIII. resorted to many unworthy methods in order to obtain the money necessary for the continuance of so prodigal a career.

105. In spite of his prodigality, Henry VIII. was sufficiently shrewd in his choice of ministers. Of these, the most eminent **Cardinal Wolsey.** was Thomas Wolsey, the son of a wealthy merchant at Ipswich. At the age of eleven, Wolsey had been sent to Oxford, where, four years later, he graduated

as Bachelor of Arts. This feat earned for him the designation of the 'Boy Bachelor.' His ability attracted the notice of Henry VII., who employed him upon important missions of State. As a reward for his services, Wolsey was made Dean of Lincoln in 1508. It has been said that he 'was the first diplomatist England had produced.'

After the accession of Henry VIII., Wolsey continued to be the object of royal favour; and his advance was, in consequence, rapid. In 1514, he was made Archbishop of York: in the following year, Chancellor (*i.e.* chief minister of State): three years later, he was created Papal Legate (*i.e.* the representative of the Pope in England).

Although Wolsey was twenty years older than his royal master, he took a prominent share in the King's pleasures. 'He could eat and drink with the gayest courtiers, sing merry songs, and join in the dances.' The income derived from his numerous offices enabled him to live in great splendour. He was responsible for the erection of Hampton Court Palace, a magnificent structure to which he was fond of retiring when surfeited with the gaiety of court life. At a later date Wolsey presented the palace to his royal benefactor, Henry VIII.

But Wolsey fell from power as speedily as he had risen. Henry VIII. had married a Spanish princess named Catherine of Aragon. She was the widow of his brother Arthur, and aunt of the Emperor Charles V. After eighteen years of married life, Henry wished to divorce Catherine, who was a good and noble woman. There were two reasons for this: (1) Henry had fallen in love with the beautiful Anne Boleyn, a lady-in-waiting at the royal court; (2) the only living child of Queen Catherine was the Princess Mary, a delicate girl; and Henry wanted a son who could succeed him on the throne.

The King, however, did not state either of these reasons for desiring to divorce Queen Catherine. He pretended that he had done wrong in marrying his brother's widow; and, although the Pope's sanction had been obtained for the marriage, Henry now applied for a divorce. This application placed the Pope in a difficult position, for he was desirous of displeasing neither

the Emperor, Charles v., nor Henry himself. With the view of appeasing Henry, the Pope accordingly appointed Cardinals Campeggio and Wolsey to consider the case at Blackfriars. Both Henry and Catherine appeared before the court of the cardinals, and the matter was fully discussed. No decision, however, was arrived at. Wolsey was blamed for the failure of the application, and deprived of all his offices. He was afterwards restored to the archbishopric of York, to which he was ordered to retire. A few months later, it was discovered that Wolsey had applied to the King of France for his assistance. He was therefore ordered to return to London to be tried on a charge of treason.

Weak from recent illness, the aged cardinal travelled slowly and painfully as far south as Leicester. There he was received into the abbey by the abbot and his monks; and there, three days later, he breathed his last.

106. During the Tudor Period, great changes in the Church were taking place not only in England, but on the Continent **The Refor-** of Europe. The revival of learning and the in-
mation. vention of printing had made it possible for the laity to read and think for themselves about matters of religion. In Germany there was living a learned monk named Martin Luther, who had made a careful study of the Bible. He believed that people should be able to read the Bible for themselves in their own tongue, and that the Christian Church ought to be guided by it alone, and not by the priests. So great was the anger of the Romish priests, that Luther was in great danger of being put to death. The result of his teaching was that one party in the Church became entirely separated from the Church of Rome. They refused to own the authority of the Pope, and were called Protestants, because they protested against the teaching of the Roman Church. This movement is known in history as the Reformation. At first both Henry VIII. and the English clergy were opposed to the doctrines of Luther. But when the Pope refused to sanction the divorce of Queen Catherine, the Reformation found favour in England. In 1534, Henry caused Parliament to pass the Act of Supremacy,

which declared that the reigning sovereign was to be the only supreme head on earth of the Church of England. By this Act every one in England was compelled to deny the authority of the Pope in matters religious. All who refused to submit to the Act of Supremacy were put to death without a fair trial. Among these was the pious, gentle, and learned Sir Thomas More, who had become Chancellor in 1529 after the fall of Wolsey. The Reformation thus begun in England continued for many years, during which hundreds of people were put to torture and cruel death.

107. The changes that were taking place in the religious life of the nation were watched with peculiar interest by the monks and friars of England. Thomas Cromwell, who succeeded Sir Thomas More as Chancellor, described the monasteries as the 'garrisons of the Pope.' With the object of pleasing the King, Cromwell determined to reduce the power of the religious houses. Formerly, these institutions had done excellent work in caring for the poor, tending the sick, and producing the beautiful manuscripts which were the only books before the invention of printing. To many of the monasteries schools were also attached in which hundreds of young people were educated. On the monastic estates, too, hundreds of people were busily and profitably employed, as has already been indicated.

For the most part, the monasteries still continued their useful work. Some few, however, had fallen from their high ideals. In some cases, the monks had become lazy and were inclined to live luxurious lives, although they had not entirely ceased to care for the poor. This state of affairs furnished Cromwell with an excuse for interfering. Commissioners were appointed to inquire into the condition of the monasteries. Too often, the men chosen for the task were unworthy of confidence; but their report was received without question. Accordingly, an Act was passed whereby those religious houses whose income was less than £200 a year should be dissolved. This led, in 1536, to the ejection of the monks and the con-

fiscation of their property. The spendthrift King was thereby furnished with additional income with which to indulge his lavish taste.

108. The dissolution of the monasteries and nunneries caused much distress among the poorer members of the community. Thousands of field labourers and artisans were thrown out of employment. There were no workhouses in those days. No longer either was it possible for weary wayfarers to rely upon the hospitality hitherto afforded by the religious houses.

Discontent became prevalent, especially in the north of England. Even the rich, to some extent, shared this feeling because of the changes effected in religion. Thomas Cromwell was regarded by them as an upstart.

Within a few months of the suppression of the smaller monasteries discontent ripened into open rebellion. In 1535, the rebels in Lincolnshire were headed by Captain Cobbler. This rising, however, was speedily overpowered. But that of the following year, in Yorkshire, was more formidable. Forty thousand men rose in arms under the leadership of a lawyer named Robert Aske. York, Hull, and Pontefract fell into the hands of the rebels. The Government became alarmed; and all classes of men were pressed into the royal army under the Duke of Norfolk. At Doncaster, the two forces came face to face, with the river between them. Lavish promises of reform were held out by Norfolk, and the rebels were thus induced to disperse. But Aske and other leaders were afterwards treacherously arrested and executed. It was alleged that the object of the rebels was to re-establish the authority of the Pope in England, to uproot the Protestant faith, and to restore the monasteries to their former owners. This rising, known as the Pilgrimage of Grace, proved to Henry that his popularity was waning. But he failed to profit by the warning.

109. Henry was desirous of confiscating the revenue of the greater monasteries also; and the Pilgrimage of Grace afforded him an excuse for doing so. Some of the abbots had taken part in the risings of the north: consequently, they were

executed, and their property seized. It is said that the King derived an annual income of about £160,000 as the result of his seizure of the property of the monks and nuns.

**Suppression
of the
Greater
Monasteries.**

But the greater monasteries were not surrendered without a struggle. In some cases the abbots and priors were induced to yield on condition that they were 'presented to rich livings' in the Church. Among the last of the religious houses to submit to the King's will was Glastonbury Abbey. Its abbot, Richard Whiting, who was wellnigh fourscore years of age, put up a stout resistance against the royal tyranny. He was, however, arrested; and, after a mockery of a trial, ruthlessly executed.

With the view of making people believe that the Act was less wicked than it really was, Henry founded half a dozen bishoprics and a few grammar schools with part of the proceeds. But by far the greater part of the spoil was disposed of in a manner that ultimately led to a reduction of the royal authority.

110. Much of the wealth so unjustly acquired by Henry VIII. was spent upon the creation of a new aristocracy, which resulted in changing completely the character and constitution of the House of Lords. Hitherto the spiritual peers had constituted a considerable fraction of the Upper Chamber. As they were, to a great extent, nominated directly by the King, they had been, more or less, subject to his will. But the exclusion of thirty-four abbots and two priors, as a result of the dissolution of the monasteries, deprived the House of Lords of about one-third of its members: hence the power of the remaining temporal peers was considerably enhanced. This state of affairs, however, was temporary.

**House of
Lords.**

Henry VIII. set about the creation of new peers in order to restore his waning influence over the Upper Chamber. Many of the monastic estates were acquired, either by purchase or by gift of the King, by country gentlemen desirous of securing noble rank. Among the existing noble houses which came into being at this period may be mentioned the Cavendishes, Cecils, and Russells.

By means of the newly-created peers, the Crown was enabled, for a time, to control the House of Lords, as had formerly been the case when the spiritual peers were more prominently represented in the Upper Chamber. For this reason, Henry was able to induce the weakened House of Lords to pass many laws in support of his unworthy schemes.

111. The character of the House of Commons was also largely changed during Tudor times. When Henry VIII. found that **House of Commons.** he could not manage without a Parliament, he decided to make it do his bidding. In those days, it was not easy to find men who were willing to sit in Parliament. The King was determined to remedy this state of affairs. Promises were therefore made to certain persons that, if elected to the House of Commons, positions in the State would be bestowed upon them. As such offices would confer improved social status, and probably financial benefit, upon the holders, many men were induced to seek a seat in the House of Commons.

But it was necessary to provide seats for the willing candidates. There were many small places in different parts of the country which could not boast of having a member of their own. Upon many such places the King bestowed the privilege of being directly represented in the Lower House. The new members, however, were not chosen by the few people resident in the various localities, but either by the King himself or by some powerful nobleman : hence they did not really represent the inhabitants. At a later date, such constituencies became known as 'rotten boroughs.' By means of such unworthy and high-handed action, the membership of the House of Commons was almost doubled by Tudor sovereigns. It is not surprising, therefore, that Parliament, throughout the Tudor Period, was subservient to the royal will.

112. Four years after the dissolution of the monasteries, Henry was again in financial difficulty ; so he adopted a still less **Coinage Debased.** justifiable method of obtaining money, namely, the debasing of the currency. As early as 1527, he had commenced the practice ; but, from 1543, he repeated the offence on several occasions. Alloy, or base metal, was

added to the gold or silver of the coinage. Its real value was reduced to such an extent that the purchasing power of a shilling was only equal to what a groat had been formerly. Consequently, prices rose rapidly; but, at first, wages did not rise at all. When they did increase, they did so very slowly: hence much distress ensued. This practice of debasing the currency, commenced by Henry VIII., was repeated during the two succeeding reigns.

113. The spendthrift Henry soon set about another method of robbing his people. He planned the confiscation of the lands and other property belonging to the guilds. **Confiscation of Guild Property.** These lands had been acquired by the craft-guilds in various ways. Some had been bequeathed by wealthy members; some had been purchased by means of the funds of the guilds. It was the practice of the guilds to lend, without interest, to poorer members certain sums for various purposes—*e.g.* to apprentice poor children, to pension widows, to relieve the destitute. In this way the guild acted as a kind of benefit society. Henry VIII. succeeded in getting an Act passed, in 1545, for the confiscation of guild property; but he died before the scheme could be carried out. His son's guardian, Somerset, carried the Act into effect; but, as the London associations were still very powerful, their property was left untouched.

It has been estimated that about 30,000 of these useful associations were robbed of their property on account of royal avarice. This act of spoliation was accompanied by the usual excuse, namely, that the revenue was to be devoted to the establishment of grammar schools and the maintenance of parochial clergy. Although some portion of the spoil was applied to the specified objects, the bulk of it was used for defraying the debts of the late King, Henry VIII.

With the object of preventing active opposition on the part of the guilds, that portion of their income ear-marked for the purpose of poor-relief was left untouched. Discontent, however, was forthcoming. Somerset not only became unpopular, but risings actually occurred in some parts of the country.

114. In 1547, Henry VIII. died and was succeeded by the son of his third wife, Jane Seymour. The new King, Edward VI., **Ket's Rising** was a gentle, studious lad of ten years of age. But (1549). he was extremely delicate ; and, after a brief reign of six years, he died of consumption at Greenwich.

Early in his reign, rebellions took place in the east and south-west of England. These were caused by the religious changes, and the continued enclosing of land. Parliament had attempted to stop the increase of enclosures, but with little result. The 'new aristocracy' enriched themselves at the expense of the peasant. No longer was the peasant at liberty to turn his pigs, his cow, and his poultry upon the common to feed ; for the common had been seized and enclosed by the capricious landlord. Yeomen were ejected from their farms : consequently, fewer labourers were required. It is not surprising, therefore, that many of the peasants rose in revolt.

The most noteworthy rising was that which occurred in Norfolk in 1549. This was headed by Captain Robert Ket, lord of the manor of Wymondham, a wealthy tanner and brewer. He and his brother William organised a large body of about 16,000 tenants and labourers. They demanded the abolition of the recent enclosures and the reform of other abuses.

For the most part, the rising was well conducted. Ket's power increased so much that troops were sent against him. This force, which included a number of German mercenaries, was led by the Earl of Warwick. After some severe fighting, the peasants were put to flight. Both Robert and William Ket were captured, and hanged as felons at Norwich Castle ; while thousands of their adherents were ruthlessly slaughtered. Ket's rising was the last occasion that the English peasantry offered any effective resistance against the forces of the Crown.

115. Mary, the daughter of Henry VIII. and Catherine of Aragon, succeeded her half-brother, Edward VI., in 1553. In **Lady Jane Grey.** the following year Mary married Philip, son of the Emperor Charles V. Two years later, her husband became Philip II. of Spain. It was arranged that Philip should have the title of 'King of England,' without any share in the

government, and with no claim to the English throne at his wife's death. When Edward VI. was upon his death-bed, he had been persuaded to bequeath the Crown to Lady Jane Grey, a descendant of Henry VII. He believed that he could will the Crown, as his father, Henry VIII., had done. But Henry was specially empowered by Parliament to do so. Edward's procedure was illegal, because it lacked Parliamentary sanction and excluded the rightful heirs, Mary and Elizabeth. But it was undertaken because Lady Jane was a Protestant; and she was actually proclaimed Queen. Upon the accession of Mary, Lady Jane Grey, her husband, Lord Guilford Dudley, her father, the Duke of Suffolk, and others were cast into the Tower. Early in 1554, an attempt was made to place Lady Jane upon the throne. This led to the execution of all connected with the scheme, including the young, beautiful, learned, and gentle Lady Jane Grey herself—'the nine-days' Queen.' She was not seventeen when she knelt before the headsman's block.

116. Queen Mary steadfastly adhered to the Roman Catholic faith. Within two years of her accession, England again acknowledged the supremacy of the Pope in **Religious** religious matters. Before Cardinal Pole, the **Persecution.** papal legate, the two Houses of Parliament knelt in token of their submission. The laws against heretics, passed in the reigns of Henry IV. and Henry V., were revived; and the persecution of Protestants began in earnest. All who believed what was considered false in religion were called heretics. By the teaching of the Romish Church, all Protestants were heretics. Romish priests taught that heretics would suffer everlasting pain after death: hence they thought it just to put all such to a cruel death, lest they should mislead others. During Mary's reign, almost three hundred people, including even women and children, were burnt at the stake. Among them five bishops perished—Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury; Ridley, Bishop of London; Latimer, of Worcester; Hooper, of Gloucester; and Ferrar, of St. David's. The death of these martyrs helped to spread the Reformation, and roused bitter feeling against the Church of Rome.

117. In January 1558, the French made a sudden attack upon Calais, the last English possession in France. Under **Loss of Calais.** Henry VIII., its fortifications had been kept in good repair ; but after his death they had been allowed to fall into decay. It is not surprising, therefore, that the town fell into the hands of the French. The loss of Calais was a severe blow to Mary. She was already lonely and broken-hearted. Philip, her husband, had returned to Spain when he found that Parliament would give him no real power in England. Mary was also suffering in mind because she was childless. Because of the cruel persecution of the Protestants, she had lost her people's love. In November 1558, she died of a fever prevalent at the time, and was buried at Westminster. On her death-bed, she said that ' Calais ' would be found written on her heart. Mary was only forty-three years of age when she died, and had only reigned five years. It is worthy of note that, until 1558, Calais was represented in the English Parliament.

118. In 1558 Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry VIII. and his second wife Anne Boleyn, came to the throne. Her accession **Lord Burghley.** was hailed with great joy by the nation ; and her reign, which lasted forty-five years, was, upon the whole, prosperous. But her difficulties were great. Like her father, however, Elizabeth was possessed of strong will, courage, and self-confidence. She was desirous of retaining the throne : hence she acted with prudence and caution. Much of the success which attended her was due to the wisdom of her councillors.

Of all her advisers, Elizabeth placed the greatest trust in William Cecil (afterwards Lord Burghley), who, for forty years (1558 to 1598), was the chief minister of the Crown. His father had been Master of the Robes to Henry VIII. William was born in 1520 at Bourne, Lincolnshire ; and was educated at the Grammar Schools of Grantham and Stamford before proceeding to St. John's College, Cambridge. He also studied law at Gray's Inn.

Cecil favoured the Protestant cause : hence, after having

held important positions under Henry VIII. and Edward VI., he withdrew from office when Mary became Queen. Immediately after her accession, Elizabeth appointed him Secretary of State. In 1571, Elizabeth raised him to the peerage. This was a distinction that the Queen bestowed on no other; for Elizabeth did not confer titles lavishly. It is recorded that there was not a single duke in England from 1572 to 1603. Until his death, in 1598, William Cecil retained the complete confidence of 'Good Queen Bess.' His remains were laid to rest amidst the ashes of 'the great' in Westminster Abbey.

119. Unlike the late Queen, Elizabeth rejected the Pope's authority. She ruled as a Protestant sovereign, although she did not approve of all that the Protestants did. **The Church** It was made known that there should be no more **of England.** persecution on account of religion. Two Acts, of the utmost importance to religious affairs, were passed, namely: (1) the Act of Supremacy, by which all clergymen and other ministers of religion were required to deny, on oath, the authority of the Pope, and to acknowledge the Queen as Head of the Church of England; (2) the Act of Uniformity, requiring that the worship in all the churches should be of one form. It was sought to bring about uniformity of worship by restoring the second Prayer Book (1552) of Edward VI. Clergymen who refused to comply with these orders were fined for the first offence, while any subsequent breach was followed by fine and imprisonment. Even the laity were fined for non-attendance at the Church of England services on Sundays and holy days. Queen Elizabeth apparently aimed at securing outward conformity whilst allowing freedom of opinion in matters of faith.

It is surprising to us who live in a free age that Parliament could be persuaded to pass laws of such a character. The terror of the Pope's rule, however, had so entered into the hearts and minds of the people that they were willing to submit to any change: hence Parliament, clergy, and people offered little resistance. Some few there were, however, who continued to conspire for the restoration of the Roman Catholic form of religion.

120. Religious persecution during the Tudor age was not confined to England. The whole of Europe was divided into two hostile camps, Catholic and Protestant. To escape persecution at home, hundreds of English people had rushed into voluntary exile on the Continent. Henry II. of France aimed at the suppression of the Huguenots, as his Protestant subjects were called. Under Philip II. of Spain, hundreds of unfortunate Protestants were burnt at the stake. But in spite of Spanish rule and the Inquisition, Protestantism had taken firm root in the Netherlands.

On the accession of Elizabeth, the eyes of Europe were directed towards England. But the Pope himself was the most interested of all. He was eager to learn which side, Protestant or Catholic, Elizabeth would favour. As already indicated, she fortunately and wisely decided to join neither of the hostile camps. It thus happened that both Catholic and Protestant clergy continued to minister unto their flocks, in public or in secret. Only those bishops who subscribed to the Act of Supremacy were permitted to hold office: consequently, most of them, being Catholics, were replaced by Protestant prelates. Many of the lower clergy actually conducted the services of the Church in accordance with the Act of Uniformity, and celebrated mass in private houses for the Catholic section of their flock. By her tolerant action, Elizabeth sought to avoid the religious strife so prevalent on the Continent.

121. There was, however, a considerable number of Protestants who were averse to any state form of religion whatever. During the Marian persecution, many of them had fled to various parts of the Continent. Their favourite rendezvous was Geneva, where they came under the influence of the great reformer, John Calvin. Calvin was a Frenchman who had established a form of religion independent of both State and Pope. He aimed at a simpler and purer form of worship than had hitherto been offered. His followers objected to the government of the Church by bishops and to many of the ceremonies in vogue in connection with religious services. A strict form of morality was to be enforced. There

was to be no card-playing, no singing of profane songs, no Sunday amusements, no sign of the cross in baptism, no use of the ring in marriage, no wearing of surplices by the clergy, and no use of even organs or other instruments of music in the services.

The Calvinists were known as Puritans. In Scotland, their teaching had taken deep root. Hundreds of English Protestants, who had fled across the border to escape the persecution of Mary's reign, flocked to listen to the famous Calvinist preacher, John Knox. At that time, Scotland was a separate kingdom. Under Mary of Guise, mother of the Scottish Queen, the Roman Catholic religion was imposed upon the country. But the Protestants, led by Knox, broke out into open rebellion. In 1559, many of the Scottish churches were entered and images were destroyed.

Under Elizabeth, the Puritans caused considerable annoyance, although there was no open defiance. By the end of her reign, however, they had become well represented in the House of Commons. The Puritans may be said to have been the originators of Dissent or Nonconformity; and, during the succeeding Stuart period, their influence steadily increased.

122. In order to enforce the terms of the Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity, the High Commission Court was definitely established in 1583. It consisted of forty-four members, of whom half the number were clergy-
The High Commission Court.
 men. Any three of its members, of whom one must be a bishop, could deal with any breach of Church Law. Suspected persons who were brought before the court were compelled to answer, on oath, any questions put to them. Under the earlier Stuart sovereigns, the High Commission Court became an instrument of tyranny; hence, in 1641, it was abolished.

123. Many plots were made against Elizabeth by the Roman Catholics still in England. They proposed to murder her and place Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, upon the
Mary, Queen of Scots.
 English throne. The Scottish Queen was descended from Henry VII., and was the nearest heir, after

Elizabeth, to the English crown. She had been educated in France ; and, at the age of sixteen, had married the son of the French King. Three years later, Mary's husband died ; and, in 1561, the young Queen returned to Scotland to govern her native country. But Mary had been brought up a Roman Catholic. Some of the most powerful Scottish nobles, who had become Protestants, tried to persuade their young Queen to change her faith. John Knox, the famous Calvinist preacher in Scotland, was very angry when Mary refused to forsake the Romish religion. In 1565, Mary married her cousin, Lord Darnley, who was next heir after her to the crowns of both England and Scotland. Darnley proved himself to be a worthless husband. In a short time Mary lost all her affection for him. Even the murder of her favourite secretary, an Italian musician, named Rizzio, was planned by Darnley. In 1566, Mary's son, afterwards James I. of England, was born. Shortly afterwards, her husband fell seriously ill, and was removed by the Queen's orders to a lonely house in the suburbs of Edinburgh, called the Kirk-o'-Fields. Early one morning the house was blown up by gunpowder, and the dead body of Darnley was afterwards found in the garden. It is thought that the Earl of Bothwell, a powerful Scottish noble, was responsible for the murder. Some people believe that Mary herself was aware of the plot. Within two months she married Bothwell, and thus lost the respect of her subjects. She was driven from the throne and placed as a prisoner in Lochleven Castle. There she was forced to sign a document, resigning the crown to her little son, James. A year later, Mary escaped from her prison and collected an army, which was defeated. The wretched woman then fled to England, hoping to enlist the assistance of Elizabeth to regain her crown. But Elizabeth knew that Mary was the nearest heir to the English crown, and she did not want to be succeeded by a Roman Catholic. She, therefore, ordered that Mary should be imprisoned in Carlisle Castle until she could prove herself innocent of Darnley's murder. Various plots now began to be formed among the Catholics to place Mary

upon the English throne. The Scottish Queen was, therefore, kept in prison for nineteen years, first in one castle and then in another. At length, a conspiracy was formed by some Catholic lords to kill Elizabeth and place Mary on the throne of England. Mary was accused of having taken part in the conspiracy and was condemned to death. Elizabeth's advisers said that Mary's death was necessary to make the English throne secure and to preserve peace. So in 1587, the beautiful Queen of Scots was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle in Northamptonshire. By order of Elizabeth, Mary's body was buried in Peterborough Cathedral. When King James came to the English throne, he caused his mother's remains to be buried in Westminster Abbey.

124. Spain, the great Catholic nation, had become, before the middle of the sixteenth century, the richest and most powerful country in Europe. This was largely 'The Sea-dogs' due to the colonies she had founded in America.

From them immense treasures of gold and silver had been conveyed to the mother country. But the discoveries of Columbus and the Cabots had opened up Atlantic trade for England also. Trade rivalry and differences in religion led to enmity between England and Spain; and the sailors of the two countries were soon in conflict. Drake, Hawkins, Raleigh, Grenville, and other bold seamen of Elizabeth's days bade defiance to Spain. War had not been declared, but Spanish treasure-ships were plundered, and Spanish towns in South America and the West Indies were burnt by English sea-rovers. The work of Hawkins and Drake was carried on partly because of their faith, partly for plunder, and partly because they were slave-traders. Many of their deeds were really acts of piracy. But Elizabeth became rich as a result of the doings of the 'sea-dogs.' In 1577, Drake commenced a famous voyage which lasted nearly three years: he sailed round the world. No other English ship had accomplished the feat. Queen Elizabeth was so proud of Drake that she knighted him on the deck of his vessel, the *Golden Hind*. By the terror-stricken Spanish sailors, Drake had been nicknamed the

'Dragon,' after the name of one of his earlier ships which had wrought such havoc among them. King Philip of Spain was so eager to destroy Drake that he offered a large sum of money for his capture. Elizabeth, however, had no intention of delivering up the famous sailor to the Spaniards.

125. The execution of Mary, Queen of Scots, still further increased the hatred of Philip. Not only was Mary a Roman Catholic, but she had named Philip as heir to the English throne. The English 'sea-dogs' had captured much Spanish treasure. Philip's rebellious subjects in the Netherlands had been assisted by English soldiers: Sir Philip Sidney lost his life in this campaign at the battle of Zutphen. The Pope called upon Philip to dethrone Elizabeth. He, therefore, made up his mind to seize the English crown for himself. To this end he fitted out a great fleet, raised troops, and collected a huge quantity of munitions of war. But our seamen were fully alive to the danger, and were prompt to act. Upwards of forty Spanish ships were captured or sunk by Drake as they lay in Cadiz harbour. This 'singeing of the King of Spain's beard,' as Drake called it, held up the sailing of the great Armada, but at length, in July 1588, it appeared in the English Channel. It consisted of about 130 vessels, manned by eight thousand seamen, and carrying about twenty thousand soldiers. The smaller English ships did much damage to the enemy as they came up the Channel. The Spaniards hoped to reach Dunkirk, where a huge army was in waiting to be conveyed to England. But the delay in the Channel caused the Armada to anchor off Calais. Then fire-ships were sent among them, and caused a panic. The Spanish ships beat a hasty retreat into the North Sea, where they were scattered by the Dutch fleet, lying in wait. To the north they fled, closely followed by the English as far as Berwick. Many of them were wrecked by storm on the coasts of Norway, the Orkneys, the Hebrides, and Ireland. Of the 'Invincible Armada,' only fifty-four ships escaped destruction. Both Catholics and Protestants had united in defence of their country against the Spaniards; for

now that Mary was dead, Philip was to them merely a foreigner. It was a Catholic, Lord Howard of Effingham, who led the fleet; and he was ably assisted by Drake, Hawkins, Grenville, Frobisher, and Raleigh—men bred up to the sea, and in that respect possessing every advantage over the Spanish admiral, the Duke of Medina Sidonia, who was totally lacking in knowledge of seamanship.

The defeat of the Spanish Armada was the forerunner of most important changes. England not only ceased to dread invasion at the hands of Spain; but, still more important, the fear of having the Roman Catholic form of religion thrust upon her was past. English sailors had proved their superiority at sea: hence the way was made clear for the founding of colonies in distant parts of the globe. Spain, on the contrary, was no longer the great colonising power. England had also become an important factor in European affairs.

But the effect of Spain's humiliation was manifest in other parts of the Continent. Spanish subjects in the Netherlands were thereby encouraged to resist the tyranny of Philip, and, in the long run, to secure their independence.

126. The success of English seamen against the 'Invincible Armada' of Spain proves beyond doubt that definite progress had been made in Tudor times in the organisation of the navy. When Henry VIII. ascended the throne in 1509, England possessed only one ship of war—the *Great Harry*. This had been built by the first Tudor sovereign.

Henry VIII. was sufficiently shrewd to realise that English commerce could not prosper so long as alien nations controlled the seas. He therefore determined to improve the state of his navy. Within two years of his accession, a large Scottish ship, the *Lion*, was captured by the English. Other vessels of war were constructed during the earlier years of his reign; and, ere long, the nucleus of a navy worthy of England had been formed. For this reason, Henry VIII. has been reasonably described as the 'real founder of the Royal Navy,' although the honour has been ascribed by some to Alfred the Great.

But Henry VIII. was not content to *build* ships only. He

was also responsible for the establishment of dockyards at Woolwich, Deptford, and Portsmouth; and, during his reign, the office of Lord High Admiral of the Fleet was created—Sir James Howard being the first holder of that important position.

The condition of merchant-shipping likewise received the attention of ‘Bluff King Hal.’ More Navigation Acts were passed; and a charter of foundation was granted to Trinity House in 1518. This was an institution founded at Deptford by Sir Thomas Spert. Its object was the promotion of commerce and navigation. Under the management of a governor and wardens, Trinity House determined the erection of lighthouses, the buoys of channels and shoals; the appointment of pilots in connection with the navigation of the Thames; and the settlement of disputes in the mercantile service. Trinity House was still further developed under Queen Elizabeth; and, even to-day, it continues to perform its useful functions.

In order to provide the necessary materials for shipbuilding, special attention was devoted to the growth of suitable timber, hemp, and flax. Men were also required to man the ships: hence the fishing industry was encouraged. People were required to eat fish during Lent, and also on Fridays and other fast-days. By such measures the way was paved for the development of the English navy, and its consequent superiority over the Spanish fleet in 1588.

127. The increase in national shipping naturally resulted in a vast extension of English commerce. Throughout the **Royal Exchange Founded.** Tudor period, however, foreign commerce was conducted by trading associations. Reference has already been made (par. 86) to the Hanseatic League, which had its warehouses, the Steelyard, in London. But as the trading interests of English merchants extended, jealousy regarding their foreign rivals became more acute. Under Henry VIII. definite attacks were made upon alien merchants established in London; by Edward VI., many of their privileges were restricted; and, in the reign of Elizabeth, the League ceased to carry on business in this country.

In the meantime, English trading associations had been

formed. A charter was granted by Henry VII., in 1505, to the Merchant Adventurers who obtained the exclusive right of trading with the coasts of north-west Europe. So flourishing did this company become that it employed about twenty thousand persons in Antwerp alone. But the old company of Merchants of the Staple declined. The loss of Calais, their chief trading centre, was a blow from which they did not recover. Nevertheless, many new companies were formed during Elizabeth's reign ; and the number of English merchants increased rapidly.

But although many trading associations or companies had been formed, there was no combination which included all the merchants of London. At Antwerp, on the contrary, there was a Bourse or exchange where the merchants met to transact business. This building is said to have taken its name from Mr. Vander Burse, near whose house it was situated. It was thus possible for all the merchants of Antwerp to act in concert. Consequently, they were accustomed to assist any Government in need of funds by advancing loans at a high rate of interest. The English Government frequently relied upon the wealth of Antwerp merchants. A change, however, was pending.

An English merchant, named Sir Thomas Gresham, was appointed Royal Agent in Antwerp. It was his duty to arrange with the merchants there for any loan needed by the English sovereign. But Sir Thomas realised that if London merchants could be brought together it would be possible for them, in combination, to lend the money needed by the English Government. Moreover, the loan might be effected, he thought, at a much lower rate of interest. Sir Thomas accordingly resolved that London should have its own Bourse. In 1566, the work of building was commenced : the foundation-stone was laid in 1568 : and, in 1571, the Royal Exchange was formally opened by Queen Elizabeth.

The present structure is the third Royal Exchange which London has seen, the original building having been destroyed in the Great Fire of 1666, and the second one, in January 1838. In January 1842, the foundation-stone of the existing building

was laid by Prince Albert, the Consort of Queen Victoria ; and, on 28th October 1844, the Royal Exchange was opened by the Queen, in person.

Since the days of Sir Thomas Gresham, London merchants have continued to meet in their own Exchange. The misfortunes of the Netherlands have resulted in the decay of Antwerp and other cities which were flourishing centres of trade in Elizabethan times. To-day, London is the great centre of the world's commerce.

128. The Tudors were desirous that there should be plenty of work for everybody. It was thought that the country could **Manu-** not become rich if manufactured goods were im-
factures. ported. Consequently, new centres of industry were established in England, and the importation of foreign-made goods was forbidden. There was, however, no ban on the importation of raw material. Henry VII. encouraged the manufacture of woollen goods in the West Riding of Yorkshire ; Manchester cottons became famous under Henry VIII. ; whilst during the reign of Elizabeth, the Cutlers' Company of Sheffield, and the iron-works of Birmingham were established. Charcoal was still used, however, for the smelting of iron, as it had been for about two thousand years.

With the view of improving home-manufactures, alien craftsmen were encouraged to settle in England, if they brought with them a new industry which might ultimately benefit Englishmen. Foreign artisans had settled in England shortly after the Norman Conquest. Under Edward III., Flemish weavers, fullers, and dyers were invited to set up their looms in England. Other settlements of Flemings were encouraged by Henry VII. Religious persecution abroad drove both Flemish and French artisans to England during the reign of Elizabeth. Between 1561 and 1570 various bands of Netherlanders made their homes in the east of England. About four thousand Flemings established themselves in Norwich alone. In 1582, numbers of French Huguenots settled in London, Coventry, and other places, where they practised the art of silk-weaving.

In these early days there were no factories for the wholesale production of goods. The 'domestic' system of manufacture was then the rule. This, however, was not confined to the towns. It spread even to the rural districts; and, for many years, the hum of the spinning-wheel was a familiar sound of the countryside. The wool was distributed by the merchant or weaver. With the view of increasing the output, it frequently happened that more than one loom was set up in the cottages of the more enterprising inhabitants, and the practice of hiring looms became common. In order, therefore, to prevent overcrowding, the Weavers' Act of 1555 made it illegal to set up more than one loom in any cottage. It may be claimed that the passing of such an act pointed to the coming of the factory-system of manufacture at some future date.

The impetus thus applied to English manufactures resulted in a vast extension of trade. By degrees, therefore, London supplanted Antwerp, Bruges, and other continental cities as the leading trading-mart of Europe.

129. The extension of trade and the influx of alien craftsmen led to a considerable increase in the population of England. There was, in consequence, an increased demand for food-stuffs. Agriculture, therefore, began to receive greater attention. **Agriculture.**

About the middle of the sixteenth century, a 'slump' in sheep-farming came about. Flanders was no longer the only country famous for weaving, and Europe had ceased to rely so completely upon the output of English wool. The enclosing of land continued chiefly with the object of securing more plough-land.

The influx of refugees from the Continent led to an improvement in our methods of agriculture. New crops began to be cultivated. Kent became famous for hop-growing. Root crops, such as carrots and celery, were also introduced. The value of such root crops as the winter feed of cattle was recognised, and their extensive cultivation for this purpose resulted in an improvement in the health of the people, for a supply of fresh meat was obtainable all the year round.

Improved methods of tillage also led to larger and better crops. An important factor in the general improvement was the increased demand for labour, for the soil yielded a higher return on the outlay than had formerly been the case. Agriculture was becoming a profitable undertaking, and the prosperity of English farmers was assured.

130. At the beginning of Elizabeth's reign the necessity of making some provision for the poor and destitute, of whom there were very many, was recognised. The prodigality of Henry VIII. had resulted in increased taxation, in the dissolution of the monasteries, the extension of enclosures, and the debasement of the coinage.

The Poor Law of Elizabeth (1601). A vast army of homeless wanderers had been created: unemployment was widespread. Under the vagrancy laws passed by Henry VIII. and his successor, 'sturdy' (that is, able-bodied) beggars were severely punished if found seeking alms. Whipping and slitting of the ears were among the prescribed penalties. 'If any man or woman, able to work, should refuse to labour and live idly for three days, the same should be branded with a red-hot iron on the breast with the letter V, and be handed over as a slave for two years to the person informing against such idler.' For any subsequent offence the accused person was liable to be hanged. Certain exceptions were provided for by the law. Vagrants who were 'lame, crippled, infirm, or suffering from some terrible disease such as leprosy,' might beg, provided they obtained the requisite licence to do so.

In the last year of Edward VI.'s reign (1558), a law was passed providing for the appointment of two collectors in each parish. Their duty was to call upon every person of means to ascertain how much such persons would contribute weekly towards the relief of the poor. All promises were recorded. The collectors then employed the poor in useful labour, and paid them from the funds collected. Persons who did not keep their promises were denounced by the bishop of the diocese. It appears, however, that this voluntary means of assisting the poor was inadequate for the purpose. In 1563,

therefore, another law was enacted which provided for the levying of a tax upon those who had refused to contribute to the relief of the poor. The penalty for non-payment of this tax was imprisonment.

Poor relief by voluntary means having failed, other methods had to be adopted, and in 1601 the first Poor Law Act appeared on the Statute Book. The Act provided for the appointment of Overseers of the Poor, whose duty it was to raise, 'weekly or otherwise,' a sufficient sum for the relief of the poor by taxing every householder in the parish. But only those unable to work were entitled to financial assistance. By means of the sum raised work was provided for the able-bodied poor, as well as suitable manual training for the children of paupers. The Act further provided for the punishment of any able-bodied persons unwilling to work.

An immediate effect of the Act was the reduction of wages. Labourers were thus driven to seek poor-relief, the cost of which fell upon the parish as a whole. In this way unscrupulous employers made profit at the expense of the public. Other defects of the Act may thus be summarised : (1) No adequate provision of employment for the able-bodied poor was made, as required by the Act ; (2) the training of parish-apprentices was not carefully supervised : hence ill-treatment resulted. But in spite of these shortcomings, the Poor Law Act of Elizabeth continued, with slight modifications, until 1834.

131. Although the number of 'wandering poor' was great during the Tudor Age, the period was marked by the display of much extravagance, especially in Elizabethan Tudor times. Because of the miserly disposition of Fashions. Henry VII., little luxury in dress was evident in his reign. But increased national prosperity under succeeding monarchs led to noticeable changes in the fashions of dress.

The most singular fashion of the Elizabethan age was the frill or ruff. This was at first merely a loose linen or cambric collar. It is recorded, however, that Queen Elizabeth wore a higher and stiffer ruff than any other person in Europe because of some defect in the formation of her

throat. But the Queen was jealous lest her subjects should adopt ruffs equally high: hence restrictions were imposed with regard to their dimensions. Ruffs were worn so high, however, that both wire and starch were requisitioned to prevent them flapping against the neck of the wearer. By the Puritans, who detested finery of any kind, starch was described as 'devil's liquor.'

Another fashion of Elizabethan times was the stomacher, that is, a kind of long, pointed bodice. Its general adoption was the outcome of a flattering desire on the part of courtiers to assume the long, slender waist of Elizabeth's own figure. The desired effect was produced in masculine attire by making the doublet long and bringing it to a point in front. Precious stones bedecked the stomacher; whilst the doublets of men were of the finest texture, brilliant in colour, and usually slashed—that is, cut here and there—in order to show the rich lining.

In Queen Mary's reign, the farthingale or hooped petticoat became fashionable. During the succeeding reign, the size of the garment was gradually extended until it reached enormous dimensions. Upon its extensive surface, ladies of fashion were wont to display costly jewels and exquisite embroidery. The farthingale, like the ruff, was of Spanish origin.

It is worthy of note that, prior to the Tudor Period, gloves were worn only by men. Since Tudor days, however, they have formed an essential feature of a lady's outdoor attire.

132. The long reign of Elizabeth (1558 to 1603) marks an important epoch in English history. It was an age of great **Elizabethan** men—great in learning, in statesmanship, and in **Worthies**. brave and noble deeds.

To Elizabeth's wise and favourite statesman, Lord Burghley, reference has already been made. Another minister of the age was Sir Francis Walsingham.

Of the many men of action who distinguished themselves during the reign of the virgin Queen, mention must be made of famous navigators such as Sir Francis Drake, Sir Walter Raleigh, John Hawkins, Sir Richard Grenville, Martin Frobisher,

John Davis, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, and Lord Howard ; and to such brave soldiers as the Earl of Leicester, the Earl of Essex, and Sir Philip Sidney. As already indicated, Sir Francis Drake was the first Englishman who sailed round the world. Grim old John Hawkins, the originator of the slave trade, thought it no sin to sell African negroes into lifelong slavery in the West Indies. Both Drake and Hawkins perished at sea, striving to the end to extend the boundaries and increase the greatness of the dominions of their beloved Queen. Sir Walter Raleigh colonised part of North America which he named Virginia, as a tribute to Elizabeth. He accompanied Sir Francis Drake on his last voyage, but escaped the fate which befell his leader, who was drowned during a storm. Raleigh's own end, however, was extremely sad, for he was beheaded during the succeeding reign. Sir Richard Grenville was another explorer, eager to found colonies in America. With 'his one little ship,' the *Revenge*, he faced a Spanish fleet and died of wounds after fighting bravely 'for a day and a night.' Of Lord Howard, the commander of the English fleet against the Spanish Armada, some account has already been given.

There were also sailors equally brave who yet fought not against human foes. Such were Martin Frobisher, John Davis, and Sir Humphrey Gilbert. These bold seamen attempted again and again to discover a 'north-west passage,' that is, a sea-route to the Pacific *via* the north of America. Their object was to promote England's trade with India and the East. But the ice of the polar regions proved to be a foe unconquerable.

The Elizabethan era was also famous for literature. Of the many distinguished writers of both prose and verse, a brief account of two only must suffice. Among poets, William Shakespeare stands pre-eminent. England's greatest dramatist was born at Stratford-on-Avon, in 1564 ; and there he died, in 1616, at the early age of fifty-two. But his work lives on, containing as it does something that appeals to all. In addition to his other poetical works, he wrote no fewer than thirty-seven plays which are as fresh to-day as in Elizabeth's time. His body lies buried in the church of his native town ; and

thither thousands of pilgrims journey annually to pay their tribute of respect to the memory of one who has bestowed on posterity a lasting blessing.

Second only to Shakespeare of Elizabethan poets was Edmund Spenser. The most famous of his poems is *The Faerie Queene*, wherein Elizabeth, depicted as Gloriana, sends forth brave knights, representing certain virtues, to rid the world of all that is evil.

133. Great as was the Tudor Period for discovery, commerce, manufactures, and literature, yet people found time to indulge **Tudor** freely in all kinds of sports and pastimes. **Christ-**
Pastimes. mas, Candlemas, Easter, May Day, Plough Monday, Lammas Tide, Shrovetide, Michaelmas, Seedcake Day, All Hallows Eve, and every available holiday was eagerly seized upon as a time for public merry-making. Sunday also was regarded as a day of recreation. All able-bodied persons devoted their leisure-time to vigorous outdoor games. They played football, hockey, and tennis, practised archery at the butts and martial exercises with the quarter-staff, single-stick, sword, and lance.

Other forms of sport, however, which have now become illegal, such as bull-baiting, bear-baiting, cock-fighting, dog-fighting, and boar-fighting, were popular with rich and poor alike. It is said that Queen Elizabeth, even in her old age, found delight in attending such brutal exhibitions.

A popular form of entertainment in the sixteenth century was the masque. This was a kind of dramatic performance in which certain imaginary or allegorical characters were represented. On great occasions, too, splendid pageants were arranged. In Sir Walter Scott's *Kenilworth*, a vivid account is given of the gorgeous pageants prepared by the Earl of Leicester, in 1575, when Queen Elizabeth visited him at Kenilworth Castle in Warwickshire. At that time, William Shakespeare was a boy of eleven years of age; and it is probable that he was taken to witness the spectacle at Kenilworth—Stratford-on-Avon being only a few miles distant.

The old mystery and morality plays, so popular in the Middle

Ages, were ceasing to attract the multitude of Elizabethan days. By degrees, the masque was replaced by plays of a more serious character; and early playwrights such as Christopher Marlowe and Ben Jonson paved the way for the dramatic masterpieces of Shakespeare. The theatre became a great attraction. It was, however, very different from that of our day. The furnishing of the stage was of the most primitive kind; there was little provision for the comfort of the spectators; horseplay and laughter were the order of the day. But the plays which were performed before Elizabeth and her courtiers still charm all classes of society. Shakespeare has indeed been truly described as the 'immortal Will,' for the output due to his genius will live for ever.

The Stuart Period (1603 to 1714)

134. Elizabeth died in 1603, and the Tudor line came to an end. The next heir was James VI. of Scotland, who, therefore, ascended the English throne under the title of **A New James I.** He was the son of Lord Darnley and **Line of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots; hence began a new Sovereigns.** line of sovereigns—the Stuarts. James, who was thirty-seven years of age, had already been King of Scotland for thirty-six years. When he became King of England, the two kingdoms were united under one sovereign. The two countries were to be known as Great Britain; and the Scottish flag of St. Andrew was actually combined with the flag of St. George. This was the first step towards the 'Union Jack,' probably so called because James always signed himself as 'Jacques.' Each country, however, retained its separate Parliament until 1707. Scottish Law and the Presbyterian form of religion were also retained north of the border. But the union under one king was of benefit to both countries. Englishmen and Scotsmen began to know each other better: hence the old hatred diminished. It was no longer necessary to waste

money in keeping up armies to fight each other ; and Scotland soon ceased to ally herself with France in order to further her quarrels with England.

135. James I. was learned, but extremely vain. In his own opinion he was 'the greatest master of kingcraft that ever **'The Divine Right.'** He believed that kings are specially chosen of Heaven, and that the will of the people should bow to all royal commands. This theory of 'Divine Right,' or 'Absolute Monarchy,' was not held by the first Stuart only. Both Elizabeth and Henry VIII. had believed in it ; but their subjects realised that the royal power was used for the public welfare. James I., on the contrary, was constantly, and unnecessarily, imposing his despotic theories upon his people. To the House of Commons he said: 'As it is atheism to dispute what God can do . . . so it is presumption and high contempt in a subject to dispute what a king can do, or say that a king cannot do this or that.'

It is not surprising, therefore, that from the very beginning of the Stuart period there were constant quarrels between King and Parliament. Well has it been said that if Elizabeth's successors 'had inherited her wisdom with her crown, Charles I. might have died of old age, and James II. would never have seen St. Germain.'

136. At the accession of James I. the people of the country were still divided on questions affecting religion. Under **Religious Parties.** Queen Elizabeth, the Protestant form of religion had been restored. There were, however, many Roman Catholics desirous of making the Pope supreme. A third party thought that the country was not sufficiently Protestant. They required a purer form of worship : hence they were called Puritans.

These three parties were still in evidence when James I. came to the English throne ; and each party hoped to secure the favour of the Crown. The Roman Catholics based their hopes of royal support on the fact that the mother of the King had been a Catholic. Those of the Established Church believed that James would favour them because they regarded the King

as head of the Church. By the Puritans he was welcomed, because the Scottish faith resembled their own.

The Established Church was Episcopalian; that is, it was governed by bishops. James was shrewd enough to realise that, as head of the Church, his advice would be sought by both bishops and subordinate clergy. Bishops had been abolished in Scotland, where the rulers of the Church were known as 'presbyters'—that is, ministers or elders chosen by the whole congregation. These Presbyterians had reduced the authority of James over the Church of Scotland to a mere shadow. In England, therefore, his favourite saying was 'No bishop, no King.' By this he meant that those who were opposed to the rule of bishops in Church affairs were also opposed to the government of the King. He, accordingly, supported the Episcopal form of worship—that is, a Church governed by bishops. All the clergy who sought the King's favour preached his favourite doctrine—the 'Divine right of Kings.' Many of the judges also supported the King's claim to rule as an absolute monarch, and so they allied themselves to the Established Church.

137. The English Puritans desired greater liberty of worship. They asked James to make certain changes in the Prayer Book, and to abolish ceremonies which they thought were Popish: for example, they objected to the sign of the Cross in baptism, to the wearing of surplices and other vestments, and to the use of organs and other instruments in worship. If these alterations could be made they were willing to remain members of the Church of England. It was, therefore, suggested that a conference should be held between the leading Puritans and the Episcopalians, or Churchmen, in order to discuss Church questions. James welcomed the suggestion. He thought that such a meeting would give him an opportunity of putting down all who did not agree with him. The conference, at which the King presided in person, was held at Hampton Court in 1604. James soon became vexed, and offended the Puritans. 'No bishop, no King,' was his cry. Some trifling alterations in the

The Hampton Court Conference (1604).

Prayer Book were decided upon, and the Puritans gained nothing more. But the greatest result of the meeting was that an order was issued for the retranslation of the Bible. A number of learned divines were chosen to carry out this work ; and, after seven years of labour, their task was completed. This translation, which is known as the Authorised Version, was published in 1611, and has continued in use down to the present time.

Both Puritans and Roman Catholics were displeased and disappointed at the results of the conference. All were expected to conform to the usage of the Established Church. Failure to comply with this requirement was attended with severe penalties. But persecution only served to make them more tenacious of the faith they held dear.

138. During Elizabeth's reign, laws had been passed against Catholics who refused to attend the services of the English Church. In 1604, James ordered these laws to be enforced again. Catholic priests were banished from London, and many of their followers were treated with great severity. This so angered them that a number of Catholic gentlemen determined to avenge themselves upon the King and his Parliament. A plot was formed to blow up King and statesmen when they assembled for the opening of Parliament on 5th November 1605. The plot was discovered because one of the conspirators wrote to his cousin, Lord Monteaule, a Catholic peer, warning him not to attend at the opening of Parliament. When the letter was shown to the King, he guessed that gunpowder was meant because his father, Lord Darnley, had been killed by gunpowder. Guido Fawkes, who was in charge of the cellar, was discovered. Some of the leaders were tortured and hanged, and the rest of the conspirators were chased from county to county. Most of them were either killed in the skirmishes or were captured and executed. Laws still more severe were then passed against all Catholics in the country.

139. The reign of James I. marks the beginning of the

struggle between the House of Commons and the Crown. This struggle continued throughout the greater part of the Stuart period. It lasted eighty-five years (1603 to 1688). James would willingly have ruled without a Parliament; and for about twelve years of his reign, no Parliament actually met. But as he was frequently in need of money he was obliged to call the Houses of Parliament together from time to time. His first Parliament met in 1604. The House of Commons protested against the King's claim to rule absolutely. They drew up a most important document, entitled 'A Form of Apology and Satisfaction to be delivered to His Majesty,' in which certain privileges claimed by the Commons were set forth, viz.: (1) Their right to control the elections of members; (2) freedom of members from arrest or imprisonment; (3) freedom to speak in Parliament 'whatever their consciences might dictate.' All these privileges were claimed on behalf of the nation at large. For this reason the Commons relied on the support of the nation against royal tyranny.

140. At the beginning of every reign, it was customary for the Commons to grant the sovereign the duties of *tunnage* and *poundage*. James's first Parliament voted these customs for the King's life. **Tunnage and Poundage.** Tunnage was a tax on liquor, 1s. 6d. to 3s. being levied on each tun imported or exported. Poundage was a similar tax on all dry goods imported or exported at rates varying from 3d. to 6d. in the £. This custom originated in the reign of Edward III. The income accruing from the duties was considered sufficient to meet the needs of the royal household.

141. The sum produced by *tunnage* and *poundage* would have proved inadequate for the most economical sovereign. Even Queen Elizabeth, who was regarded as stingy, had found it insufficient; and she had no family dependent upon her. It is not surprising, therefore, that James speedily found himself in debt; for he was not economical. Moreover, his needs were greater than Elizabeth's had been. **Impositions.**

As Parliament refused to make any additional grant, James determined to raise money without its sanction. He resorted to the expedients of forced loans, benevolences, monopolies, and the sale of honours. By means of the last-named, he sold titles to the rich, the new title of baronet being specially created, in 1611, to increase the royal income.

But the most offensive of these unlawful methods of raising money was by means of impositions. These were additional taxes *imposed* on all goods which came into the country ; that is, they were duties levied by the sole authority of the King. James Bates, a Turkey merchant, challenged the right of the King to levy a tax of five shillings per hundredweight on imported currants. The Court of Exchequer, however, decided against Bates : hence the King continued to levy taxes without the consent of Parliament.

142. During the first nine years of his reign, James had a wise adviser in Robert Cecil, son of the great Lord Burghley. **The Favourites.** After Cecil's death in 1612, James chose unworthy favourites, whom he placed in high positions of State. But they were incapable of performing the duties connected with such high offices : hence mismanagement was the result. The first to be thus honoured was a handsome young Scot named Robert Carr. He was created Viscount Rochester, and was admitted to the Privy Council, in 1611. Two years later he was made Earl of Somerset, and was married to Lady Essex, daughter of the Earl of Suffolk ; and shortly afterwards was appointed Lord Treasurer. After a time, this favourite and his wife were disgraced. Then George Villiers, a handsome, clever, graceful, and scheming man, came into power. He not only succeeded in persuading James to do whatever he suggested, but he also exercised a sinister influence over the heir to the throne, Prince Charles. Villiers was promoted rapidly until he was at last created Duke of Buckingham. Through his influence the King committed many unwise acts. He advised James to seek the assistance of Spain in his financial difficulties. Acting on this advice, James made a friendly treaty with the King of Spain, and

even offered to marry his son, Charles, to a Spanish princess. This greatly enraged Parliament, for both Lords and Commons detested the Spaniards. But the journey of Prince Charles and Buckingham to the Spanish Court ended in failure, for they failed to come to terms with King Philip. In spite of his many mistakes, however, Buckingham continued to act as the King's chief adviser till the end of the reign. Upon him James spent vast sums of money, and thus widened the breach between himself and Parliament.

143. In 1618, James I. committed an act of gross injustice. He allowed Sir Walter Raleigh to be executed. References have already been made (see pars. 124, 125, 132) to the gallant deeds of this distinguished man against the forces of Spain, both at sea and on the mainland of America. But Raleigh was not only a brave sailor and explorer; he was a favourite at the court of Queen Elizabeth; he was a scholar, a historian, a poet, and an orator. **Execution of Sir Walter Raleigh.**

Raleigh was a son of Devon, the native-county of many other 'sea-dogs.' He was born at Budleigh, in 1552; and was educated at Oxford. With the advent of the Stuarts, however, his capacity for further public service was abruptly terminated. In 1603, he was accused of taking part in a plot against James I. He was tried and condemned to death, but was not executed. For thirteen years (1603 to 1616) he was imprisoned in the Tower, where he wrote a *History of the World*. Raleigh then prevailed upon the King to permit him to lead an expedition to Guiana in search of gold on condition that he did not interfere with the possessions of the King of Spain. The Spaniards, who were informed of the expedition, drew him into a quarrel. No gold mines were found, and so Raleigh returned to England empty-handed. By order of James I., he was executed on the old charge of treason. In reality, he was put to death in order to placate the King of Spain for the loss his country had suffered at the hands of English seamen.

144. In the meantime, the persecution of the Puritans

continued. It soon became evident that there was little chance of these unfortunate people worshipping in their own way. The more determined, therefore, decided to leave their native land. In 1609, a small body of Puritans crossed to Amsterdam and Leyden, where they secured that religious toleration denied at home. But they realised that they were merely pilgrims. They did not wish their children to grow up in a foreign land. Nine years later, therefore, they determined to strike a bold stroke for freedom, and to plant the standard of religious liberty in the New World.

A grant of land in America was obtained from the London Company in 1618. Two years later, on 22nd July 1620, a party of about one hundred and twenty pilgrims sailed from Holland in a little vessel called the *Speedwell*. At Southampton they joined other pilgrims in a larger vessel, the *Mayflower*. The expedition set sail for America on 5th August; but, owing to the necessity for repairs, they put into Plymouth. On 6th September 1620, the *Mayflower*, with exactly one hundred emigrants on board, commenced the journey across the Atlantic, the *Speedwell* having proved too unseaworthy to continue the voyage.

The 'Pilgrim Fathers' hoped to land in Virginia; but the little vessel was driven ashore near Cape Cod, after a perilous voyage of sixty-three days. The hardships encountered were sufficient to daunt the stoutest of hearts. It was early winter, and the shore offered little protection against the piercing winds. Privation and disease thinned the ranks of the emigrants; but others arrived, and, by dint of perseverance, the little colony began to prosper.

Charles I., who succeeded his father in 1625, was still more intolerant; consequently, many other Puritans joined their comrades in America. Thus, by degrees, other settlements were formed, including New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Maine, and Connecticut. By 1633, the colonists had paid the London Company the sum due for the land originally granted. Five years later, John Harvard, one of the settlers, endowed a

college from which sprang the present University of Harvard.

The noble example set by the Pilgrim Fathers, in 1620, was one of the causes of that expansion which has brought about the establishment of our world-wide empire. They struggled bravely for religious liberty—and they secured it.

145. After the dissolution of the first Stuart Parliament in 1611, three years elapsed before another Parliament was convened. The second Parliament, which met in April 1614, only lasted two months, and did not pass a **Monopolies.** single Bill. But among its members were three men who were destined to become famous—Pym, Wentworth, and Eliot. From June 1614 to January 1621, James again ruled without a Parliament. The quarrel between the King and the Commons was thus aggravated. Financial pressure, however, at last compelled him to call Parliament together again in January 1621. Parliament was very angry because James had been granting monopolies. Elizabeth had granted them, but had desisted because of the opposition of her people. A monopoly was a grant from the sovereign or Government conferring upon one or more traders the sole right of selling certain articles, such as glass, gold and silver thread, leather, starch, iron, salt, etc. The monopolists charged as much as they liked for the articles. Other traders who tried to sell such goods without the King's permission were severely punished. The House of Commons attacked monopolists so vigorously that the worst offenders were impeached. This means that they were brought to trial before the House of Lords, where they were accused or prosecuted by the Commons. Sir Giles Mompesson, one of the worst offenders, was banished for life. Francis Bacon, the great Lord Chancellor, was also impeached for receiving bribes in his capacity as a judge. He had really only accepted presents, which most judges at that time received. His punishment was a heavy fine of £40,000, dismissal from office, and imprisonment in the Tower during the King's pleasure.

Lord Chancellor Bacon, however, had rendered distinguished

service to the nation, not only as a statesman but as a philosopher. The King accordingly remitted the heavy fine, and set him at liberty. By way of compensation for the loss of his office, Bacon also received from James a pension of £1800.

But the action of the Commons was a lesson to all courtiers and officials. It taught them that they were liable to be brought to trial if they acted unjustly, in spite of any favour the King himself might show towards them. Three years later (1624), an Act altogether abolishing monopolies was passed by the fourth Parliament of James I.

146. The third Parliament of James I. won another great victory over the King, who sought to make himself absolute. **The Great Protestation.** James was desirous that Prince Charles, the heir to the throne, should wed the Infanta Maria of Spain. Such a marriage, however, would not only have brought England into intimate relationship with Spain, but would also have made the Roman Catholics the dominant party in the country. But the people of England detested the Spaniards and would willingly have gone to war against them. The proposed union was a subject of paramount importance to the nation, and was accordingly discussed in the House of Commons. James, however, declared that this was a matter with which the House of Commons must not interfere, and asserted that all privileges were granted by the Crown. This roused the anger of the Commons, who thereupon passed a resolution to the effect that the liberties and privileges of Parliament are 'the ancient and undoubted birthright and inheritance of the subjects of England.' The House of Commons claimed the right to discuss every matter concerning 'the King, the State, the defence of the realm, the Church of England, the making of laws, and the redress of grievances.' This Protest was recorded in the *Journal* of the House. James's reply was to destroy the page of the *Journal* on which the offending Protest appeared, and to dissolve Parliament; and Sir Edward Coke, Pym, and other members of the House were lodged in the Tower.

The *Journal* of the House of Commons for the year 1621 may

still be seen in the Library of the 'House.' Close inspection reveals the fact that some of its pages have been violently torn from the record.

147. James I. died of ague on 27th March 1625, and was buried in Henry VII.'s chapel at Westminster. He was succeeded by his second son, Charles. At the Accession of outset of his reign, Charles I. married Henrietta Maria, sister of Louis XIII., King of France. This marriage offended the Puritans, because the new Queen was a Roman Catholic. Charles believed, even more firmly than his father had done, in the Divine Right of Kings. He resolved not to yield to his Parliament in any way. Thus the struggle between King and Parliament continued. The Queen exercised a dangerous influence over her husband, for she wished him to become as absolute as was her brother in France. Charles summoned Parliament in June 1625, and demanded liberal 'grants' in order to carry on the war with Spain. But the House of Commons granted tunnage and poundage for one year only, although for two hundred years it had been customary to vote these duties for the life of the sovereign. 'The House' refused to vote more money unless ministers other than Buckingham were consulted. Charles, in anger, dissolved his first Parliament. As he was in need of money, however, he ordered tunnage and poundage to be collected without the consent of Parliament. More money being needed, the King called together a second Parliament. Instead of granting the required sum, the House of Commons at once demanded the impeachment of Buckingham. Charles thereupon dissolved Parliament, and resorted to other methods of raising money. He asked wealthy people to give him money. But so few responded to the invitation that the King sent round officers to force people to lend money for his needs. All who refused to do so were imprisoned. To increase the size of his army, the King caused people to be seized in order that they might be compelled to serve as soldiers. People were also forced to provide board and lodging for the soldiers; consequently, there were many disputes between civilians and

the military. These quarrels were not settled in the ordinary law courts, but by a court martial, over which a military officer presided.

Charles, however, was unable to raise sufficient money for his needs, in spite of the illegal measures resorted to. His straitened circumstances compelled him, in 1628, to summon his third Parliament.

148. It met in March 1628. Charles caused great offence by his opening speech: hence when he asked for 'supplies,' **The Petition of Right.** the Commons replied that 'redress of grievances and supplies should go hand in hand.' This motion was voiced by Sir Thomas Wentworth (afterwards Lord Strafford), who had not then joined the King's supporters. Among other distinguished members of the 'House' who were opposed to the King's misrule were Sir John Eliot, John Pym, John Hampden, Sir Edward Coke, Selden, and Oliver Cromwell.

Charles was accused by the Commons of having violated the conditions of the Great Charter. The King was accordingly requested to conform to the requirements of Magna Charta, the principles of which were now embodied in the famous document, the Petition of Right, known as the 'Second Great Charter' of English Liberty. Its main provisions were: (1) That no person should be compelled to make a gift, loan, or tax to the King without the consent of Parliament, and that no person should be punished for refusing to do so; (2) that no person should be imprisoned without cause shown; (3) that the practice of billeting troops in private houses without permission of the owners should cease; (4) that civilians should not be tried by military courts in times of peace. Charles gave unwilling consent to this Petition, in June 1628, and was then granted a sum of money by Parliament. The Commons then demanded that Buckingham should be dismissed. Charles, however, dissolved Parliament, and appointed his favourite to lead an expedition to France. Buckingham was murdered at Portsmouth by a private enemy before he could set sail.

149. From 1629 to 1640 there was no meeting of Parliament. The King's two chief helpers during this period were Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, and William Laud, **Absolute Archbishop of Canterbury.** Wentworth, formerly **Rule.** an opponent of the King, had espoused the royal cause after the death of Buckingham. He was made Deputy of Ireland, where he ruled with an iron hand. His motto was 'Thorough,' and he succeeded in forcing the Irish Parliament to obey him. Archbishop Laud, who was bitterly hostile to the Puritans, created great discontent in England. The Courts of High Commission and Star Chamber, established under Elizabeth and Henry VII. respectively, were revived. All the clergy who refused to conduct the Church services in accordance with Laud's ideas were brought before the High Commission Court and punished by fine, imprisonment, or exile. Before the Star Chamber Court were brought all who opposed the absolute rule of the King. A lawyer named Prynne, who had written a book against play-acting, together with a clergyman named Burton and a doctor named Bastwick, were sentenced to have both their ears cut off, their noses slit, to pay a fine of £5000, and be imprisoned for life. Money was raised by every illegal means—monopolies, benevolences or forced loans, tunnage and poundage, and enormous fines for refusal to pay. But the tax that roused the greatest indignation was that known as ship-money. In Danish times this tax had been levied only on sea-board towns in time of war. It was now imposed on both inland and seaport towns in order to provide a fleet to clear the English Channel of pirates. Some people, however, stood resolutely out against this tax; and amongst others John Hampden, a Buckinghamshire gentleman, refused to pay it—not because it was excessive, for it did not amount to very much, but because he objected to the King's arbitrary rule. His cause was tried before the Exchequer Court, where the majority of the judges decided against him. Hampden's case did the King much harm, for Englishmen saw that Charles was seeking to place himself above the law.

150. In spite of the discontent prevailing in the country,

there was no rebellion in England at this stage. But a fatal mistake with regard to Scotland was made by **Scottish National Covenant (1638)** Laud. Over the Church of Scotland there were bishops at that time; but the worship there was of a Puritan character. Laud advised the King to force the use of the English Prayer Book upon the Scottish churches. A special liturgy was drawn up similar to that in use in the English churches; and the Scottish ministers were required to read it in their churches on 23rd July 1637.

But the Scots were opposed to any innovations in religion. Clergy and laity alike detested the English Church, its bishops, and its Prayer Book. At St. Giles' Cathedral, Edinburgh, when the minister attempted to read the prescribed liturgy, a riot ensued. Resistance became general; and, by the beginning of 1638, a declaration called the 'Covenant' was drawn up in which the Scots bound themselves to resist innovations. The Covenant was placed, at first, in Greyfriars Church, Edinburgh; but, so great was the multitude desirous of signing, that the document was laid upon a tombstone in the churchyard. Charles led a small army to the Scottish Borders with the view of suppressing the resistance of the Scots. The Scots, however, were prepared with a force of over 20,000 men, whilst the King had no means of providing additional troops. Under these circumstances, Charles was compelled to negotiate with the Scots to whom he promised the settlement of their religious affairs by the Scottish General Assembly. In due course the General Assembly met and resolved that the Scottish national church should be Presbyterian.

The King appealed for advice to Strafford, who was, at the time, in Ireland. Strafford advised Charles to summon Parliament in order to obtain supplies for the raising of a force sufficient to overcome Scottish resistance. But the new 'House,' instead of voting the requisite supplies, began to discuss the 'illegal' acts of the King. Charles, in anger, accordingly dissolved the assembly of 1640, which, as it sat for only three weeks, is known as the Short Parliament.

151. In November 1640, Charles was driven, by the force of circumstances, to convene another Parliament. For several months, after the dissolution of the Short Parliament, he had again attempted to rule as an absolute monarch ; but funds were needed for the Scottish campaign.

**The Long
Parliament
(1640-1660).**

The Long Parliament is so called because its *legal* existence extended over twenty years. It actually 'sat' for thirteen years, and was at last dissolved by Charles II. in 1660. In the meantime, however, it had been dismissed and another one convened by Cromwell. But this action was not in accordance with constitutional procedure. The events connected with the earlier years of the Long Parliament may be thus briefly summarised : (1) Under the leadership of Pym and Hampden, the Earl of Strafford was impeached. For eighteen days the trial continued. Then the Commons, in order to prevent his acquittal, introduced and passed a Bill of Attainder, *i.e.* an Act of Parliament in which he was declared guilty and worthy of death, and his property forfeited to the State. On 12th May 1641, the great Earl, who had loyally served his King, was beheaded. (2) Others who had supported the King's tyranny were also impeached. The chief of these was Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, who was committed to the Tower. There he remained for four years before being brought to trial. He also was beheaded in 1645. (3) A Triennial Act was passed, in February 1641, requiring that a new Parliament should be convened (by the King or otherwise) at least once every three years, such Parliament not to be dissolved or prorogued, except with its own consent, under fifty days. (4) Abolition of the Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission, July 1641. (5) In December 1641, a document known as the Grand Remonstrance was drawn up, in which were enumerated the various acts of tyranny of which the King had been guilty. This resulted in the 'House' being split up into two parties—the King's Party and the People's Party. The Grand Remonstrance was passed by a majority of eleven only. (6) In January 1642, the King ordered the arrest (for treason) of Pym, Hamp-

den, Holles, Haslerig, and Strode, who favoured the adoption of more stringent tactics against the royal tyranny. As the Commons refused to give up the five members, Charles went to the House himself with a body of armed men in order to take them by force. But the members in question had made their escape in time, and the King had to withdraw without arresting them. The quarrel between the two parties in the State was now brought to a head, and civil war could no longer be averted.

152. Both King and Parliament set about raising an army sufficient to compel by force of arms that which more peaceful measures had failed to achieve. The King **The Great Civil War** (1642-1646) appealed for a guard 'to surround his person.' Parliament, in return, raised an army 'for its defence.' On Monday, the 23rd August 1642, the royal standard was unfurled at Nottingham; and the eventful drama commenced. To his banner flocked the majority of the nobility and gentry; but, by no means, all. The Parliamentary forces were composed largely of the trading-classes, Puritans, and farmers, with a small percentage of the nobility. At the outset, the two forces were ill-matched; for the Cavaliers were, for the most part, excellent horsemen, whilst the Roundheads were chiefly infantry with little training and experience in military affairs. The honours, during the earlier stages of the struggle, lay with the dashing Royalist cavalry. Each side, however, was imbued with the justice of a cause—the Royalists for the King and the Church, and the Parliamentarians for the 'privileges of the People's House' and a steadfast hatred of Romish principles and practices which they feared the King was desirous of establishing.

Each side was fortunate in having great leaders. Among the Royalist generals were the King himself, Prince Rupert (his nephew), Lord Falkland, and the Earl of Newcastle. The Parliamentary forces were led by the Earl of Essex, the Earl of Manchester, Sir William Waller, Lord Fairfax, and Oliver Cromwell. To the last named is due the honour of trans-

forming a band of men quite unaccustomed to fighting into the dauntless 'Ironsides.'

The chief events of this unfortunate struggle may be thus briefly summarised: (1) At Chalgrove Field, in Oxfordshire (1643), the Parliamentary side lost one of its champions in John Hampden, who received a wound that proved fatal. (2) Lord Falkland was killed at the battle of Newbury (1643). (3) The 'Solemn League and Covenant' signed by the Scots, September 1643—an agreement by which they promised to render military assistance to the Parliamentary forces on condition that Presbyterianism should be established in England. (4) Death of Pym, December 1643. (5) Royalists utterly defeated at Marston Moor, near York, 1644, chiefly by means of 'Cromwell's Ironsides.' (6) 'The New Model' army was formed (1644)—that is, the Parliamentary army was remodelled or reorganised by the formation of regiments in which men were enlisted for a definite term of service at a stated rate of pay, and were properly drilled and trained in the use of arms. (7) By the 'Self-denying Ordinance' (1645), members of Parliament were required to resign their military commissions; but Cromwell, at his own request, was permitted to retain his 'command' in the army as lieutenant-general. (8) Battle of Naseby, 14th June 1645, in which the Royalists, commanded by the King in person, were utterly routed by the Roundheads under Lord Fairfax, assisted by Cromwell and Ireton.

153. From the battlefield of Naseby, Charles fled first to Wales, and afterwards to Newark, where the Scottish army was encamped. In return for the sum of £400,000 Charles I. a to cover their expenses in the war, the Scots Prisoner. handed over the King to the Parliament. For a long time Charles was kept a prisoner in Holmby House, Northamptonshire. Although his cause was lost, he was still recognised as lawful King, and at this time there was no thought of doing violence to his person. In the meantime, differences arose between the Parliament and the army, because (1) Parliament was desirous of disbanding the army on account of the ex-

pense involved in its upkeep ; and (2) in all matters of religion the New Model would be satisfied with nothing short of absolute independence, whilst the majority of the Parliament wanted to see the Presbyterianism of Scotland established in England.

The dispute between the Presbyterians and the Independents, that is, between the victorious army and Parliament, roused fresh hopes in the breast of the captive King, who was transferred by the Independents from Holmby House to Hampton Court. From this place of confinement Charles escaped to the south coast, where he hoped to find a vessel to convey him to France. He was, however, obliged to seek refuge at Carisbrooke Castle in the Isle of Wight (November 1647).

In the meantime, Charles had succeeded in persuading the Scots to invade England. Risings in his favour also took place in Kent, Essex, and Wales. Thus commenced the Second Civil War (1648). The insurrections were put down by Cromwell and Fairfax ; after which, the army determined to bring Charles to trial. But it was first necessary to take steps to ensure that Parliament would not thwart them in this design. Accordingly, Colonel Pride, with a detachment of soldiers, was deputed to stand at the door of the 'House' to turn away those members who were known to be averse to sit in judgment on their sovereign. In December 1648, ninety-six members were thus forcibly expelled ; which left a majority in the House who were prepared to vote as the army should direct. This residue of the Long Parliament, consisting of fifty-three members, is known as the Rump.

154. The Rump Parliament speedily resolved to bring the King to trial on the charge of having 'wickedly designed to subvert the ancient and fundamental laws of the kingdom.' A High Court of Justice, composed of men opposed to the King, was specially appointed to try him. Charles was brought before this court, which sat in Westminster Hall, on 20th January 1649. An eminent lawyer named Bradshaw presided. The King declined to acknowledge the right of such a court to try him ; but, after a trial lasting a week, he was condemned to death as a

traitor, a tyrant, and a murderer. On 30th January 1649, King Charles I. was beheaded on a scaffold erected in front of his own palace at Whitehall.

155. After the execution of Charles I., no king ruled in England for eleven years (1649 to 1660). Instead of being a kingdom, the country was called a Commonwealth **The Commonwealth** or free State—that is, a form of government in which the power rests with the people. But the country was really ruled by the army of Independents under Cromwell. The Rump of the Long Parliament—that is, those members who had survived ‘Pride’s Purge’—remained in power to legislate, and the executive functions of State were placed in the hands of a Council of forty-one members, of which Bradshaw was President and John Milton, the poet, was Foreign Secretary. Both the House of Lords and the Kingship were abolished; the former being regarded as ‘useless and dangerous,’ the latter as ‘unnecessary, burthensome, and dangerous.’

156. But the country was by no means unanimous on these points. To many people the execution of Charles I. was an impious and unwarrantable act; and their hopes **Ireland and Scotland.** now centred in his son, afterwards Charles II. In Ireland and Scotland Royalist risings occurred. Cromwell was sent to quell the disturbances in Ireland. There he behaved with ruthless severity. Drogheda and Wexford were stormed with terrible slaughter, 2000 men being put to the sword at Drogheda alone. Cromwell believed that such measures were necessary in order to teach the Irish a lesson. But the Irish hated the English more than ever after such treatment. In Scotland, Prince Charles had been acknowledged as King, after agreeing to sign the Covenant and to become a Presbyterian. Cromwell therefore crossed to Scotland with his victorious army, and inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Scots at Dunbar. Another Scottish army, taking Charles with them, invaded England and reached Worcester before Cromwell overtook them. On 3rd September 1651, the anniversary of Dunbar, Cromwell’s Ironsides utterly routed the Scottish army at Worcester. This was the last of

Cromwell's great victories; he spoke of it as his 'crowning mercy.' After Worcester Charles became a fugitive, and after many times narrowly escaping capture, he found an asylum in France.

157. Meantime, the Rump was becoming increasingly unpopular. Some of its members accepted bribes. Others **The Rump** used their power in their own interests. But **Dismissed.** a law had been passed by which the Long Parliament could not be dissolved without its own consent. (See par. 151.) At last Cromwell decided to get rid of it. On 20th April 1653, he marched into the House of Commons, accompanied by a body of soldiers, expelled the members, ordered the removal of the mace ('that bauble'), and locked the doors. This was an unlawful act; but it met with the approval of the nation whom the Rump had never really represented. Cromwell claimed to have acted thus from a high sense of duty; for, said he, 'I have sought the Lord night and day that He would rather slay me than put upon me the doing of this work.'

158. Cromwell and his officers then chose a new Parliament of 140 members who were mainly Independents. This assembly **Barebones** is known as the Barebones Parliament because **Parliament.** one of its prominent members was named 'Praise-God Barebones' (or Barbon). Such names were common amongst the Puritans. The Barebones Parliament, after a brief life of five months, dissolved itself—December 1653.

159. The man who was at the head of the army was now to rule the State under the title of 'Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and of the Dominions thereto belonging.' A document **The Instrument of Government** called the 'Instrument of Government' was **(1653).** drawn up in December 1653, conferring the title of Lord Protector upon Cromwell. Provision was also made for a Council to assist him, and a House of Commons to be elected every three years. There was, however, to be no House of Lords. In September 1654, the first Protectorate Parliament met. Cromwell found this, his first Parliament,

difficult to control: hence, in January 1655, he dissolved the assembly and determined to govern alone. But the first Protectorate Parliament was remarkable because it contained representatives of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

160. With the view of holding the Royalists in check, Cromwell determined to rule firmly. He divided England into ten districts, over each of which he placed a military officer, known as a major-general. A tax of 10 per cent. was imposed on all Royalist incomes in order to defray the expenses of the military rule which had been established. The freedom of the press was restricted, theatres and other places of public amusement were closed, and employers were held responsible for the good conduct of their servants. By way of contrast, however, it should be noted that Cromwell permitted the Jews to settle again in England, the Quakers received his protection, and judges were allowed to perform their duties unfettered by any restrictions. It may be said, therefore, that Cromwell's rule, although despotic, aimed at the general uplifting of the public morals.

161. In 1656, Cromwell was drawn into a war with Spain. He, therefore, summoned another Parliament—the second Protectorate Parliament. But about a hundred members whom he regarded as hostile to his policy were prevented from attending. The initial effort of the second Protectorate Parliament was directed towards minimising the authority of the major-generals. In May 1657, an address known as the ‘Humble Petition and Advice’ was drawn up by Parliament and presented to the Lord Protector. Cromwell was therein requested: (1) to take the title of King; (2) to establish an upper or second chamber, *i.e.* a House of Lords, the peers for which were to be created by Cromwell; (3) that the major-generals should be withdrawn; (4) that the excluded members of the Commons should be permitted again to take their seats.

Three of the four requests were conceded by Cromwell, who also received the right of naming his successor. But he declined to take the title of King lest he should offend the

army. For the second time, therefore, he was installed Lord Protector, but he ruled the country with all the authority of a monarch. The House of Commons, however, soon quarrelled with the 'Other House': and in February 1658, the Parliament was dissolved. Thus the 'Humble Petition and Advice' came to nought. Some months later, Cromwell was preparing to summon another Parliament when he was seized with illness. He died on 3rd September 1658, the anniversary of his great victories at Dunbar and Worcester.

162. The foreign policy of Cromwell was as vigorous as his rule at home. Under Henry VIII. and Elizabeth the English navy had made definite progress; but, during **The First Dutch War** (1652-1654), the troubled years of the Great Civil War, English commerce had suffered. Dutch sailors had become the world's carriers—'the Waggoners of the Sea.' They had also assisted Charles I. in his struggle with Parliament. But Cromwell succeeded in compelling all foreign powers to regard the Commonwealth Government with respect.

With the view of restoring English trade, a Navigation Act was passed in October 1651. It provided that 'no goods were allowed to be exported to the colonies or imported thence into England, except in English or colonial-built ships, the property of English subjects, having English commanders, and a crew three-fourths of whom were English.' This dealt a distinct blow at Dutch shipping, and war was declared in July 1652.

Led by Blake, Monk, Vane, and Penn, the English fleet met the Dutch under Van Tromp, De Witt, and De Ruyter. In November 1652, Van Tromp defeated Blake off the Naze. He then bound a broom to his masthead and sailed down the Channel, thus intimating that he had 'swept the English from the seas.' His boasting, however, was premature; for the Dutch suffered many defeats subsequently. After one such victory over Van Tromp, Blake fixed a whip to the mast-head of his ship in token that he would 'flog the Dutchman out of the narrow seas.' Thus originated the 'streaming pennant' which is still a familiar sight in British shipping. In July 1653, Blake utterly defeated Van Tromp off the Dutch coast

in a three days' battle, during which the gallant Dutch admiral was killed. By the first Treaty of Westminster (1654), by which the war was terminated, it was agreed that (1) the Dutch should lend no further aid to English Royalists; (2) Dutch seamen should salute the English flag.

From this date (1654), England has remained mistress of the seas. But the quarrel with the Dutch was not ended. During the reign of Charles II. two other outbreaks occurred between England and Holland.

163. The great Protector, who died at the early age of fifty-nine, had performed a gigantic task. Peace had been restored at home, the respect of foreign powers had been **Richard Cromwell** secured, and a great measure of religious freedom won. In accordance with one of the provisions of the Humble Petition and Advice, Richard Cromwell had been named as his father's successor. But he was quite unfitted for the position of Protector; and, in May 1659, he resigned the office.

164. After the resignation of Richard Cromwell, a year of anarchy ensued. The Rump of the Long Parliament was restored, and again expelled. Royalist risings occurred. Army leaders quarrelled among themselves. On 3rd February 1660, General Monk entered London at the head of a large army, and declared in favour of a freely-elected Parliament. Every one was weary of the unsettled state of affairs: hence the Long Parliament (including those members who had been expelled by Pride's Purge in 1648) was restored. A majority was accordingly found in favour of dissolution and the election of a properly-constituted assembly. Thus, by its own act, the Long Parliament was dissolved on 16th March 1660, after having 'sat' from 1640 to 1653, and again from 1659 to 1660.

165. On 25th April 1660, the new Parliament met. It consisted of the two Houses of Lords and Commons. As, however, no royal writs had been issued for its election, it was known as the Convention Parliament. Its first act was to issue an invitation to Charles II. to return as King. Charles had spent several

wearry years as a wanderer in France, Holland, and Germany.

The Declaration of Breda (1660). In 1660, he was at Breda, in Holland, where he was kept well-informed of the progress of events in England. His reply to the invitation of the Convention Parliament is known as the Declaration of Breda. Its principal contents were : (1) promise of a general amnesty to all, 'excepting such persons as shall hereafter be excepted by Parliament,' who within thirty days should acknowledge his sovereignty ; (2) freedom of worship to be permitted ; (3) questions relating to estates to be settled by Parliament ; (4) arrears of pay were to be allowed to Monk's army.

The Declaration of Breda was received with joy by both the Lords and the Commons ; and, on 29th May 1660, his thirtieth birthday, Charles II. was welcomed to his capital amid scenes of the wildest rejoicing.

166. For seven months after the Restoration, the Convention Parliament continued to carry out important work, the results of which may be thus briefly summarised : (1) all persons actually responsible for the death of Charles I. were executed ; (2) the bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, Bradshaw, and others who had been buried in Westminster Abbey were disinterred and hanged on the gallows at Tyburn ; (3) the King's revenue was fixed at £1,200,000 per annum for life : it is important to bear in mind, however, that in those days the King was responsible for the payment of all expenses of the court, the fleet, the judges, and ambassadors : hence the sum granted was not excessive ; (4) in return for the 'grant,' the King was required to forgo certain feudal dues ; (5) the army was disbanded after payment of arrears had been made ; (6) an unsuccessful attempt was made to effect a settlement of religious differences ; but Charles was secretly a Roman Catholic, and desired toleration for the Pope's followers ; (7) Parliament dissolved, 29th December 1660.

167. Although the army was formally disbanded by the Convention Parliament, the King retained two regiments of foot and one of horse for his personal protection. He felt that

the train-bands were not sufficient for his needs. One of the regiments thus retained was the famous 'Coldstream Guards,' so called because originally instituted by General Monk, at Coldstream on the Tweed. These three regiments, the Coldstream Guards, the Royal Scots, and the Life Guards, constituted a force about five thousand strong. They were maintained by the King himself, and formed the beginning of a *standing army* in England, although at that time they had no legal status.

**Introduction
of a
Standing
Army.**

168. In May 1661 a new Parliament met which existed till January 1679. It is known as the Cavalier Parliament because so many of its members were Royalists. The King's chief minister at that time was Edward Hyde, the Lord Chancellor, who had been created Earl of Clarendon. He had always been a staunch Royalist and an upholder of the Church of England. His hatred of the Puritans led to the passing of a succession of Acts, known as the Clarendon Code. Family worship was permitted them; but if more than five persons in addition to the family were present, such assembly constituted a breach of the Conventicle Act, and the offenders were punished by heavy fines, imprisonment, and even by transportation. In accordance with the Act of Uniformity, Puritan clergy who would not acknowledge the authority of the bishops and use the Prayer Book were turned out of their livings. On St. Bartholomew's Day (24th August 1662), about two thousand clergy were expelled. This date, in reality, marks the beginning of Nonconformity in England. Puritan clergy thus expelled were not allowed to live within five miles of a town (Five Mile Act). But persecution failed to stamp out Puritanism. Its adherents were known as Dissenters or Nonconformists, because they dissented from the English Church—that is, they did not conform to its doctrines and usages. Their chief desire was to have churches of their own where they might worship as they pleased. John Bunyan was one of the Puritans who suffered for his belief. During his imprisonment of twelve years in Bedford Gaol, he wrote his wonderful book, *The Pilgrim's Progress*.

The Clarendon Code.

Earl of Clarendon.

169. Commercial rivalry between the English and Dutch continued. The Dutch African Companies trading to the **The Second Dutch War** coast of Guinea for gold and negro slaves, grew very wealthy. Jealousy led to war, which broke out in 1664. The English were not very successful owing to the incapability of their leaders, General Monk and Prince Rupert. These men had been splendid cavalry officers, but they were not good admirals. In 1667, the King was so short of money that the English fleet was laid up in harbour.

The Dutch, taking advantage of this state of affairs, sailed up the Thames as far as Gravesend, entered the Medway, destroyed three English men-of-war, and captured the Admiral's flag-ship. Clarendon was blamed as being the cause of this lasting disgrace. He fled to Rouen, where he died in 1674. His last years were devoted to the writing of a *History of the Rebellion*.

Six weeks after the Dutch raid, the Treaty of Breda was signed. Both the English and Dutch retained all conquests made during the war. Thus New Amsterdam came into our possession; and, as a compliment to the Lord High Admiral, the King's brother, it was renamed New York. It was also agreed that English ports should be thrown open to Dutch shipping.

170. During the early stages of the Dutch War, a dreadful sickness known as the plague broke out in England. London **The Plague** suffered acutely. The streets were very narrow, (1665). the city was overcrowded, the summer was intensely hot, good drainage and general cleanliness were unknown. For more than half a century the plague had appeared in England at intervals of about five years; but in 1665 the visitation was worse than it had ever been. People died by thousands. All who could do so fled into the country. Grass grew in the streets of London. On the door of every house in which the plague appeared was painted a red cross with the words, 'The Lord have mercy upon us.' A few faithful clergymen and doctors remained in the city; but they were totally inadequate to deal with so many cases of sickness.

Moreover, medical science had not then discovered the cause of such outbreaks. At night, carts went their rounds, each accompanied by a man ringing a bell and crying out, 'Bring out your dead.' The corpses were thrown into huge pits, for coffins could not be provided for so many. It was not till winter came that the sickness gradually decreased.

171. In the following year (1666) another disaster befell London. A fire broke out, on 2nd September, at Pudding Lane, near London Bridge, and burnt for three **The Great** days. A great portion of the city was destroyed. **Fire (1666).** This included 400 streets, 89 churches, 13,000 houses, and many public buildings.* Old St. Paul's, the longest cathedral in England, perished in the flames. At last the fire was arrested by blowing up houses and thus making gaps which the flames could not cross. In spite of the suffering, loss, and inconvenience, the disaster was not without its benefits. Many of the narrow, unhealthy streets were destroyed and replaced by wider ones which admitted more fresh air. London has never since been visited by the plague. Close to the spot where the fire originated, a tall column, 'The Monument,' has been set up to commemorate the event.

172. After the flight of Clarendon in 1667, Charles chose as his advisers in matters of State a group of five noblemen who became known as the 'Cabal Ministry.' The **The Cabal.** origin of the term as applied to the King's advisers is uncertain. It was probably given because they formed a special committee, or 'Cabal' (from the French *cabale*, club), upon whom the King could call for advice whenever he thought it convenient to do so. By some, the word is said to have been formed from the initial letters of the names of the nobles included—Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale. It is important to bear in mind, however, that the above-named did not really form a ministry or cabinet, as we now understand the term, for the King did not usually consult them in a body, nor, indeed, upon all affairs of State.

173. Charles II. was too wise to tax his people without the consent of Parliament. Whenever he needed money which

he could not ask Parliament to supply, he applied to his cousin, Louis XIV. of France. From him he received large sums in return for certain promises made. In 1670, Charles entered into a most disgraceful agreement with the King of France.

He promised to declare himself a Roman Catholic, and to assist the French against the Protestant Dutch. In return, Louis undertook to pay Charles II. a large sum of money, and to send French troops to England in case of insurrection.

This agreement is known as the Secret Treaty of Dover. But Charles knew very well that he dared not attempt to restore the authority of the Pope in England. Thus he was acting dishonestly towards both the French King and the English Parliament.

174. In 1672, Charles openly joined Louis by declaring war against the Dutch, who were thus assailed by the French ashore and by the English at sea. This produced a storm of indignation in England, where the people were opposed to the establishment of the Roman Catholic religion by the suppression of the Protestant Dutch. By the Treaty of Westminster (1674), the Dutch agreed to pay £300,000, and to acknowledge England's supremacy at sea.

175. It was evident that the King wished to favour Roman Catholics. Parliament, therefore, passed a law known as the Test Act (1673). This Act required all who held any office in the army, navy, Church, or State, to declare themselves members of the Church of England. Unless they could take the test, they were driven from office. One result of this act was that the King's brother James, being a Catholic, was deprived of the office of Lord High Admiral. Clifford and Arlington, two of the Cabal Ministry, were also dismissed from their positions. Parliament thus asserted the right to dismiss the King's counsellors.

176. Six years later (1679), the Habeas Corpus Act was placed on the statute book. The Latin title of the Act means 'You must produce the body.' This is an instruction to the gaoler to bring his prisoner into court for trial without

undue delay. For centuries it had been customary to give every person accused of wrong-doing the opportunity of defending himself in 'Open Court.' Both Magna Charta and the Petition of Right declare it illegal to arrest any one except upon some definite charge. But the law had been frequently evaded under Tudor and Stuart rulers. Such a course was possible for several reasons, viz. : (1) a judge sitting alone could not order a prisoner to be brought up for trial during vacation ; and it frequently happened that only one judge (or even no judge at all) was available during the long holiday periods ; (2) the law applied only to prisoners *in England* : it was therefore a not uncommon practice to get round it by sending prisoners out of England, *e.g.* to the Channel Islands ; (3) no time-limit was definitely stated, within which the gaoler was required to produce his prisoner in court ; (4) the law applied only to *criminal* charges : hence, any person arrested on a *civil* charge might be kept in gaol indefinitely without a trial.

The Habeas Corpus Act remedied this state of affairs by making it unlawful to keep an accused person in prison without a fair trial. Gaolers were thus directed to produce their prisoners for trial not later than the second sitting of the court after the arrest. The Act also forbade the arrest of any person, for the same offence, who had once been tried and set free by order of the court. Severe punishment was to be inflicted for any breach of the Act.

177. As Charles II. had no children who could claim the throne, his brother James was regarded as heir. But James was a Roman Catholic. Attempts were, therefore, made by Parliament to pass an Exclusion Bill to prevent any Roman Catholic succeeding to the throne. On two occasions (1679 and 1680) the Bill was passed by the Commons, but rejected by the Lords. At that time Parliament was split up into two parties—Whigs and Tories. It is uncertain what these names really mean ; but it is said that the word 'Tory' means 'robber.' 'Whig' is a Scottish word meaning 'sour milk.' It was applied to those who favoured the

Exclusion Bill. The Tories usually supported the King in his claim for power, whilst the Whigs believed that Parliament should be paramount. Though these titles were at first only applied in derision, they ultimately became permanently attached to the said parties.

178. For four years, up to the time of his death, Charles did not convene Parliament. On his death-bed he admitted that **Argyle and Monmouth.** he was a Roman Catholic, and the last rites of the Romish Church were administered. On 6th February 1685, he died, and was succeeded by his brother James. The new King was a Roman Catholic, but he publicly announced that he would support the Established Church. He was, however, determined 'both to rule as an absolute monarch and to establish the Roman Catholic religion.' From the beginning of his reign, James II. broke the laws. Taxes were levied without the consent of Parliament, and the King openly attended the Catholic services. In 1685, two risings took place in favour of the Protestant Duke of Monmouth. The first was headed by the Earl of Argyle, who invaded the west of Scotland. He was betrayed, captured, and executed. A month later, the Duke of Monmouth landed at Lyme, in Dorset. He asserted that he was the son of Charles II., and therefore the rightful heir to the throne. The country people of Dorset and Somerset flocked to his standard. A royal force, including John Churchill (afterwards the famous Duke of Marlborough), utterly defeated Monmouth at Sedgemoor, near Bridgewater. Monmouth escaped to the New Forest, but was captured and executed as a traitor.

179. After the battle of Sedgemoor, many of Monmouth's followers were executed without a trial. Others were put in **The Bloody Assizes (1685).** prison, where they were kept two months awaiting trial. James appointed a brutal judge, named Jeffreys, to try these unfortunate prisoners. From town to town Jeffreys went trying the poor peasants who had supported the Protestant duke. Over 300 persons were condemned to death. More than 800 were sold as slaves and sent to work in the West Indies. An old lady, named Alice

Lisle, was executed because she had hidden two of the fugitives in her house. For his services in the Bloody Assizes, Jeffreys was raised to the dignity of Lord Chancellor.

180. The ease with which the Protestant rebellions had been put down encouraged the King to proceed with his plans. He thought, as his father Charles I. had thought, that he had the power to dispense with (*i.e.* put aside) the laws as he pleased. Judges who acted fairly were, therefore, removed; **Tyranny of James II.** and men who favoured the King's lawless action were appointed in their stead. James was determined to force his form of religion upon the country. The army was increased to 30,000, and Catholic officers were put in command. Catholics were also put in the chief places of the Government, and in high positions in the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. In 1687, James issued a Declaration of Indulgence which removed all the severe laws against Catholics and Dissenters. Hundreds of Dissenters were set free from prison. But they speedily discovered that the King had only granted them freedom in order that Catholics might become masters of the country.

181. In April 1688, James issued a second Declaration of Indulgence. This he ordered all clergy to read from their pulpits. Very few ministers obeyed the royal command, and those who did so found that the congregation would not remain to listen. **Trial of the Seven Bishops (1688).** William Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, and six other bishops drew up a petition begging James to excuse the clergy from reading, in God's House, a declaration that was against the law. James said that they were trying to stir up rebellion. He therefore ordered them to be arrested and sent to the Tower. Their trial took place in Westminster Hall on 29th June 1688. Amidst wild enthusiasm, the verdict 'Not Guilty' was given. There was great rejoicing among the people when it was known that the bishops were to be set at liberty. Even the Royal Guards, who were in camp at Hounslow, cheered on receipt of the news. This greatly displeased James, for he had hoped to put down all opposition by means of his soldiers.

182. On 10th June 1688, whilst the bishops were awaiting trial, the queen gave birth to a son. This was a great disappointment to the nation. James had two daughters, **Birth of a Royal Prince.** Mary and Anne. Mary, the elder, was the wife of William, Prince of Orange, a sturdy Protestant. By the nation at large, Mary was regarded as the heir to the throne. But the birth of the Prince dispelled all hope of a Protestant succession. It was felt that the young prince would be educated as a Roman Catholic. The nation, however, was determined to bring about a change.

183. The acquittal of the seven bishops proved that the nation was opposed to the King; and no sooner was the **Invitation to William of Orange.** verdict announced than an invitation was despatched, by special messenger, to William, Prince of Orange, requesting him to come to England as King. This invitation was signed by seven leading nobles of England.

184. William of Orange sailed from Holland with a small army of about fourteen thousand men. On 5th November **Landing of Prince William.** 1688, he landed at Brixham, on Torbay, where he was joined by many English leaders, among whom was John Churchill, afterwards the famous Duke of Marlborough. Then commenced an uninterrupted march to London, which city he entered on 19th December 1688.

185. In the meantime, James announced various concessions in the hope of restoring confidence in his rule. No one, however, **Abdication of James II.** came forward in his support. Before the Prince of Orange entered London, James had fled to France, where he was welcomed by Louis XIV., who placed at his disposal the beautiful palace of St. Germain. This was the home of the exiled King until he died in 1701. His wife and infant son had preceded him to France.

186. After the flight of James II. there was no King in England. A Parliament could not, therefore, be convened. On 22nd January 1689, however, a Convention was called together, which declared that James had broken the laws of the country,

had abdicated, and had thereby rendered the throne vacant. A great revolution had thus been effected without a drop of blood being shed. The long struggle between King and Parliament had ended; and Parliament had proved victorious.

187. After much discussion it was agreed that William and Mary should reign as joint sovereigns. William alone was to govern; Mary was to be Queen in name only. William died first, Mary was then to rule. After both were dead, their children, if any, were to be heirs. If they died childless, then Mary's sister, Anne, was to be Queen. But the Crown was only offered to William and Mary on condition that they agreed to keep certain laws. In November 1689, these laws were summed up by William's first Parliament in the famous Bill of Rights. This 'Third Great Charter of English Liberties' contains a list of the unlawful acts of James II. It also lays down: (1) that a King has no power to set aside the laws made by Parliament; (2) that he has no right to permit any of his subjects to break the laws; (3) that he has no authority to levy taxes, or to keep an army in times of peace, without the consent of Parliament; (4) that members of Parliament ought to be freely elected, and have liberty to debate in Parliament upon any subject; (5) that Parliament ought to meet regularly; (6) 'that no Roman Catholic, or person married to a Roman Catholic, may occupy the English throne.' Since 1689, all accessions to the English throne have been in accordance with the provisions of the Bill of Rights.

188. In 1689, a famous law, known as the Toleration Act, was passed. People were beginning to see that it was useless to expect every one to worship in the same way. Attempts to make Puritans and Roman Catholics attend the services of the Church of England had led to rebellion. The Act, therefore, gave to Dissenters freedom to worship in chapels of their own, on condition that they took an oath to be loyal to William and Mary. But the same freedom was not bestowed upon Roman Catholics and Uni-

tarians. High positions in the State and in the army could only be held by members of the Church of England. About four hundred clergy of the Church of England refused to take the oath of loyalty. They believed in the Divine Right of Kings, and still regarded James II. as their lawful sovereign. The Archbishop of Canterbury and six other bishops also refused to swear loyalty to William and Mary. Their offices were, therefore, conferred on others. For more than a century they and their followers formed a separate Church, and were known as Non-Jurors.

189. England had accepted William as King; but Scotland and Ireland were not so willing to do so. The Stuart sovereigns were of Scottish descent: hence there were many Jacobites (*i.e.* supporters of James II.) in the northern part of the kingdom. Some of the Highlanders, accordingly, took up arms against William.

John Graham of Claverhouse, now Viscount Dundee, led the clans of the North against William's troops. The Highlanders rushed down the steep Pass of Killiecrankie, and put the enemy to flight. But Claverhouse was killed early in the battle. It was, therefore, easy to come to terms with the Highlanders, who were mostly poor. William provided a sum of £15,000 for distribution among the chiefs of the clans, and thus gradually secured their submission.

190. William's chief minister in Scotland at that time was the Master of Stair. The title of 'Master' was given in Scotland to the eldest sons of lords and viscounts. In 1692, the Master of Stair was guilty of gross cruelty. William had agreed that all Highland chiefs who had fought against him were to be pardoned on condition that they took the oath of loyalty not later than a fixed date. MacIan of Glencoe arrived after the appointed day. The Master of Stair, therefore, determined to punish the whole clan. A party of soldiers was sent to Glencoe. They pretended that they had come as friends; but, on the morning of 13th February 1692, they surrounded the huts of the clansmen. In the darkness of early morning, most

of the Highlanders were cruelly murdered. Those who managed to escape died of cold and hunger amidst the rocks and the snow of the mountains.

This brutal act roused a storm of indignation in Scotland. Both Highlanders and Lowlanders supported the Scottish Parliament in its demand for the dismissal of the Master of Stair; and, to the popular outcry, William was obliged to bow.

191. Opposition to William's rule was also forthcoming from Ireland. Many of the Irish were Roman Catholics: hence they favoured the cause of James II. But there were English and Scottish colonists in Ireland who regarded William as their lawful sovereign. These had been driven from their homes by the native Irish. Their chief place of refuge was Londonderry. James, therefore, determined to capture Londonderry, and thus destroy William's grip on Ireland. He, therefore, laid siege to the city. For 105 days the siege continued. Great hardships were endured. Men who had been well off were glad to eat the flesh of dogs and gnaw hides in the hope of obtaining nourishment from them. At last three ships from England managed to break through the boom and carry food to the starving people. James and his Irish army were then forced to withdraw (1st August 1689).

In the following year (1st July 1690), William defeated James at the Battle of the Boyne. James fled to France in despair, and Ireland was gradually brought under William's government. Many of the Roman Catholics, however, were harshly treated, and were excluded from the Irish Parliament.

192. The Protestant William III. of England and the Roman Catholic Louis XIV. of France had long regarded each other with hatred. Louis had assisted the exiled James against William in Ireland. He had signified his readiness also to support the Jacobites in a struggle with William with the object of putting James on the English throne again. A 'state of war' between England and France was, therefore, declared in 1689.

Although England was allied with Holland, Austria, and

Spain, the French armies proved superior. Louis then attempted to invade England. Off Beachy Head the French fleet defeated the combined English and Dutch fleets in 1690. Two years later, however, the French fleet was shattered off Cape La Hogue.

As neither side could claim a decisive victory, a peace was signed at Ryswick in 1697. Louis XIV. acknowledged William III. as King of Great Britain, and promised to lend no further aid to the Jacobite cause.

193. An important measure known as the Triennial Act was passed in 1694. It provided that three years should be the **The Second** maximum term for any single Parliament. It **Triennial** thus became unlawful for the Sovereign to retain **Act (1694).** a Parliament when it no longer represented the nation: hence the power of the King was reduced. (For the First Triennial Act, see par. 151.)

194. This splendid structure, commenced in the reign of Charles II., was intended to be a magnificent palace. It was **Greenwich** incomplete, however, when William and Mary **Hospital** ascended the throne. After the victory off Cape **Founded** La Hogue, in 1692, Queen Mary ordered the palace **(1694).** to be completed as a home for disabled seamen.

The Queen, in 1694, was stricken with smallpox, and died shortly after the passing of the Triennial Act. Vaccination was then unknown: hence the ravages of smallpox were enormous. After her death, Greenwich Hospital continued to be used in accordance with her wishes until 1865. Pensions were then bestowed upon disabled seamen, and the hospital was converted into a Royal Naval College.

195. After the Restoration, a licenser was appointed by the Crown. His duty was to supervise all printed books and **Liberty of** newspapers. No such could be published without **the Press** his permission. But the licenser had frequently **(1695).** abused his authority. In 1695, therefore, the House of Commons refused to continue the Licensing Acts, and the Press became free. This was a most important step towards the full and complete liberty of the subject.

196. The Duke of Gloucester, the only surviving child of the Princess Anne, died in 1700. Mary had already died childless. It was necessary, therefore, to amend **Act of the conditions laid down in the Bill of Rights Settlement (par. 187).** By the Act of Settlement (1701), it **(1701).** was provided that Anne should be Queen after William's death, if he had no children. In the event of Anne dying childless, the crown was to go to the Electress Sophia of Hanover, who was a Protestant, and a grand-daughter of James I., through his daughter Elizabeth. Further conditions (to apply to the new line of Hanover) were embodied in the Act of Settlement, viz.: (1) the sovereign must be a communicant member of the Church of England; (2) no foreigner can sit in Parliament or hold any office under the Crown; (3) judges cannot be removed from office during good behaviour, and only then on an address to the Crown from both Houses of Parliament. [This has prevented any sovereign from changing the judges to suit his own purposes]; (4) a pardon granted by the Crown cannot prevent impeachment by the Commons.

197. In the first year of Anne's reign (1702), a war broke out which affected almost the whole of Europe. Charles II. of Spain had died childless in 1700, and had bequeathed his throne to the grandson of the French King Louis XIV. It thus became probable that at some future date the thrones of Spain and **War of the Spanish Succession (1702-1713).** France would become united. But the two countries were each very powerful already: hence, such a union would become a menace to the rest of Europe. Moreover, Louis XIV. had declared that the son of James II. was the lawful sovereign of England. France and Spain were, therefore, arrayed against England, Germany, Holland, Portugal, and Savoy.

The theatre of war was extensive, including as it did Spain, the Netherlands, Bavaria, the French frontier, and even the New World, in addition to the action of the rival fleets at sea. Of all the leaders engaged in the gigantic struggle, none was more distinguished than the English general, John Churchill, afterwards known as the Duke of Marlborough. His military

genius was amazing. Victory after victory was secured by him over armies vastly superior in numbers. Among his triumphs may be mentioned the battles of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. In fact, he never lost a battle. It was during the War of the Spanish Succession that the British fleet captured Gibraltar (1704); and, from that time, the 'Key of the Mediterranean' has remained in British hands.

Peace terms were signed at Utrecht in March 1713. France was humbled. Britain gained much, viz.: Gibraltar and Minorca in the Mediterranean, and Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and Hudson's Bay Territory, in America. Louis undertook to lend no further aid to the Pretender (son of James II.), and to recognise the sovereignty of the Hanoverian line in Britain. It was further agreed that the French and Spanish crowns should never be united.

198. The most important feature of Queen Anne's reign was the Union of the English and Scottish Parliaments.

Union of English and Scottish Parliaments (1707). Although the two countries had come under the same sovereign at the accession of James I. in 1603, Scotland still continued to have her own Parliament, laws, and coinage. Moreover, the Scots were not bound by the terms of the Act of Settlement, which provided that the Electress Sophia, or her son George, should rule after Anne's death. There was also much ill-will between the two countries because Scotland was denied equal trading rights with her southern neighbour. Heavy duties had been levied on all goods which the Scots brought into England for sale. Because of these restrictions on her trade, Scotland was far behind England in general prosperity. The Scottish Parliament therefore passed an Act of Security declaring that on Anne's death an independent sovereign should be chosen for Scotland. At first the English were unwilling to grant freedom of trade to the Scots; but they were still more reluctant to let them have a separate ruler. Important concessions were, therefore, made by the English Parliament; and, in 1707, the 'Act of Union of England and Scotland' was passed. Its chief provisions were: (1) from

1st May 1707, the union of the two kingdoms as Great Britain ; (2) the crown of Great Britain to be vested in the Electress Sophia of Hanover and her heirs, being Protestants ; (3) Scotland to be represented in the Union Parliament by sixteen Scottish peers and forty-five 'commoners' ; (4) freedom of trade between the two countries ; (5) Scotland to retain her own courts of justice and the Presbyterian form of religion.

199. Whilst Parliament was striving for mastery over Stuart tyranny, steady progress was being made in many phases of social life. The changes effected varied with the **Rural Life** march of time, with locality, and with social (17th cent.). status. But the progress made in the social condition of the people was neither uniform nor uninterrupted. In some stages, the changes were numerous and rapid : in others, the rate of development was extremely slow. It has been said that little change occurred in the conditions of life during the first forty years of the Stuart period. Thus the England of James I. and Charles I. differed little from that of Elizabeth so far as the mass of the people was concerned. Such was the case especially in rural England.

Prior to the Restoration (1660), court life was extremely restricted, and afforded little attraction to country gentry-people. Consequently, the occupants of the countryside seldom went far from home : in fact, all grades of rural society were busily employed. The country squire was an important personage locally. As a Justice of the Peace, he was responsible for the administration of the Poor Law and the maintenance of law and order in the district. His leisure hours were usually devoted to hunting, fowling, and other outdoor pastimes. For the most part, the country clergy were extremely poor and ill-educated. Ladies of the countryside led a busy life. They were responsible for the entire management of their households, their numerous duties including baking, brewing, needlework, and attendance upon the sick—there being in those days few country doctors.

In spite of the fact that little or no improvement had befallen the lot of the peasant for more than a century, there was no

evidence of discontent. This was due to the lack of capable leaders. A class of tenant farmers had come into existence whose interests differed from those of the labourers employed for hire. It was customary for the unmarried labourer to reside in the farmhouse with his employer. Married labourers occupied separate cottages, and were still at liberty to turn their cows, pigs, and poultry on the common land, for the enclosure system had not yet become general.

But the position of peasant countrywomen was unenviable. They engaged in many forms of agricultural work, especially during the hay and corn harvest. Unmarried women were even employed on the land throughout the year. Spinning and weaving also engaged the attention of women, the work being carried on in the cottages.

Amusements, however, were not lacking. Under Puritan domination, severe restrictions were placed upon many innocent pastimes. But after the Restoration, dancing, archery, leaping, wrestling, masques, wakes, hockey, and the setting-up of may-poles, became common.

200. To-day, the bulk of the population reside in the great towns and cities of England; but, in the seventeenth century, **Town Life** (17th cent.). only a small section of the population were town-dwellers. Nevertheless, the towns were then, as now, the centres of national activity.

The conditions of life in towns, as in the rural areas, varied with social rank. From the diaries of two famous writers, Samuel Pepys and John Evelyn, much may be learnt of the manners and customs, the houses and furniture, of the wealthy during the reign of Charles II. Samuel Pepys was Secretary to the Admiralty after the Restoration: hence he moved among the higher section of London life. Both he and John Evelyn frequently refer to the costly furniture, ornaments, and feasts which were common in the houses of the well-to-do.

It has already been noted (par. 128), how that during Tudor days both trade and manufactures received special attention. Although during the Great Civil War the industrial life of England was considerably retarded, it is nevertheless a fact

that the seventeenth century witnessed a vast extension of commerce. The East India Company, whose charter was granted by Queen Elizabeth in 1600, developed immensely during the Stuart period. Under Cromwell and Charles II., the Dutch carrying-trade was crippled, and the prosperity of Britain thereby enhanced. English manufactures also received further impetus in the seventeenth century on account of the settlements of French Protestants in the country. Many English towns, accordingly, increased in size, wealth, and importance in Stuart days.

Under these improved conditions, the merchants and shopkeepers in towns rapidly gained in wealth and influence. But manufacturing was still a 'domestic' undertaking; the day for the factory had not yet arrived. Each trader employed a number of apprentices. By the Statute of Apprentices, however, the number of such was strictly limited. Moreover, definite conditions of employment were laid down by the Act. Each apprentice was required to serve seven years with a recognised craftsman; and no journeyman-artisan was permitted to engage in any craft unless this condition had been fulfilled. All below the rank of yeoman's son, as well as all withdrawn from agricultural pursuits, were excluded by the same Act from becoming apprentices in towns.

Apprentices were housed and fed by their employers. A strict hand was kept over them, it being not uncommon for a master to administer a sound thrashing to any unruly or lazy apprentice. It frequently happened, too, that journeyman-craftsmen were lodged by their employers: hence overcrowding was common in both town and country.

More attention began to be paid to domestic comfort. Furniture became so plentiful that the wealthy no longer found it necessary to convey beds, bedding, and other household requisites from one residence to another, as had formerly been the practice when a 'change of air' was desired. Carpets were rapidly taking the place of straw and rushes for floor covering. Glass came into use for window-panes, especially towards the end of the century. In 1696 a tax was imposed

on windows in order to meet the loss on the old coinage which was being replaced by 'new-milled' money. This tax continued in operation until 1851.

Barbarous 'sports,' such as bear-baiting, bull-baiting, cock-fighting, and dog-fighting, were popular in every large town, special areas being set apart for them. Duelling was also regarded in Stuart days as the mark of a fine gentleman. Both cock-fighting and duelling continued to find favour until the reign of Queen Victoria, when increasing popular resentment resulted in their prohibition.

All theatres were closed during the Protectorate, the Puritans regarding the stage as harmful to the morals of the people. After the Restoration, however, 'the play' again became a most popular form of recreation in towns. It was at this time that actresses first appeared on the stage, boys having formerly been responsible for personating female characters.

Some idea of the size of towns in Stuart days may be gathered from the fact that the population of the whole country amounted only to about five and a half millions—fewer people than in London alone to-day. Bristol, with a population of less than 30,000, was then the second port in England. Liverpool was a mere fishing-village, whilst the population of Manchester was only 6000. Norwich, then the third city in the country, was the chief seat of the woollen trade.

201. A notable feature of Stuart days was the coffee-house. The now popular beverages—tea, coffee, cocoa—were unknown in England prior to Cromwell's time. When first **Coffee-Houses.** introduced, chocolate was taken as a medicine. Coffee was described by its opponents as a 'sooty drink' calculated to undermine manly vigour. Tea, the last of the trio to appear, was at first so costly that only the wealthy could indulge in it. By 1658, however, there were three coffee-houses in London; and, gradually, the new drinks largely supplanted alcoholic beverages.

After a time it became the practice for men to meet in coffee-houses to discuss the latest news and enjoy the gossip of the day. Every class had its coffee-house, where might be seen

'nobleman in flowing wig and embroidered coat, parson in cassock and band, physician in sable suit and tremendous peruke, broken-down gamesters, swindlers, country yokels, and out-at-elbows literary and theatrical adventurers.' In London, the Tories met at the 'Cocoa Tree'; the Whigs at St. James's; the clergy at St. Paul's; and the lawyers at Dick's. Politicians resorted to the coffee-houses to exchange opinions on matters of current interest; and poets and men of letters—Dryden and Pope, Addison and Steele—gathered there to discuss books of the day, and to be themselves discussed.

202. After the Great Fire, London was rebuilt on healthier lines, with broader thoroughfares and better lighted houses. Its streets, however, were still far from sanitary.

Open sewers and heaps of filth continued to poison the air. Pedestrians had to beware of the mud cast up by passing vehicles. Those who were able to do so either rode or made use of the numerous wherries plying along the Thames. Ere the end of the century (17th), the sedan-chair and hackney-coach were in general use in London.

Streets.

At the time of the Restoration, street-lighting was unknown; consequently thieves and roysterers caused much annoyance to all such as ventured forth after nightfall. Before the end of the reign of Charles II. (1685), some attempt at street-lighting had been made during the winter months by hanging lanterns on the street doors. Shops were distinguished by 'signs'; but dwelling-houses, being without numbers, were difficult of approach at night.

203. Prior to the Stuart period the only means of locomotion were riding, horse-litters, rumbling wagons without springs, and river-boats. The state of the roads was **Means of** deplorable: hence there was comparatively little **Transit.** intercourse between town and country. With the object of improving the roads, the first Highway Act had been passed in 1555, and coaches soon afterwards appeared. But they found little favour, and riding remained the most popular mode of travel as late as the seventeenth century. Stage-coaching, introduced early in the century (17th), did not

become common until near the end of Stuart times. Even then a journey from London to York occupied four days. Vehicles that could accomplish forty or fifty miles a day were described as 'flying-coaches.' As the 'stages' were short, there were inns at frequent intervals along the roads. Coaches were usually accompanied by an armed guard, mounted on horse-back, to defend the passengers from highwaymen. Neighbouring farmers were also frequently required to supply a team of six or eight horses to drag the coach from the mire into which it sometimes sank axle-deep in winter.

204. By the time of Charles I., the Elizabethan ruff had been superseded by an embroidered collar.* Between the Royalist **Stuart** and Roundhead, however, there was a marked **Fashions.** difference in manner of attire. The dress of the former was characterised by great richness; that of the latter, by extreme simplicity. After the Restoration, dress became still more extravagant. Long curling wigs, called perukes, were then adopted by gentlemen of fashion, Charles II. himself having set the example. Even ladies sometimes wore perukes. Shoe buckles and patches on the cheek were other innovations of the same reign. This latter fashion continued until the reign of Anne, when it is recorded Tory ladies wore patches on the left temple, the Whig ladies on the right; while those who supported neither party wore patches on both cheeks.

205. Men of intellect abounded in the Stuart period. Reference has already been made to some of them. Brief mention **Persons of** must, therefore, suffice of a few of the giants in **Note.** literature, science, and architecture, for which the seventeenth century was famous.

Of Stuart architects two were of outstanding merit. Sir Inigo Jones was responsible for the introduction of the Italian style into England. Among his masterpieces may be classed the Banqueting Hall at Whitehall. Sir Christopher Wren designed many churches to replace those destroyed in the Great Fire, and St. Paul's Cathedral is his monument,

Among men of letters, the chief place must be assigned to

John Milton, the poet, who was Foreign Secretary under the Commonwealth. His works include *Paradise Lost*, *Paradise Regained*, *Comus*, etc. Ben Jonson, Francis Beaumont, John Fletcher, and Philip Massinger were eminent dramatists of the period. Dean Swift, author of *Gulliver's Travels*; John Bunyan, writer of the *Pilgrim's Progress*; and Daniel Defoe, author of *Robinson Crusoe*, must also be included among the prominent and popular writers of the seventeenth century. Mention has already been made of the famous diarists, Samuel Pepys and John Evelyn.

The cause of science also received attention under the Stuarts. Charles II. himself was specially interested in chemistry; and the famous Royal Society was founded in 1660. Prominent among its early members were John Evelyn, the diarist, Sir Christopher Wren, the architect, and Sir Isaac Newton, who discovered the Law of Gravitation. Another clever scientist, Dr. Harvey, discovered the 'circulation of the blood,' in 1619.

CHRONOLOGY

PART II (1485-1714)

Tudor Period

- 1485 A.D. Parliament settled the Crown on Henry VII. and his heirs.
 1486 Henry married Elizabeth of York, and thus united the two Houses of York and Lancaster. The Court of Star Chamber revived.
 1492 Columbus discovered the New World.
 1494 . Poynings' Law passed.
 1515 . Wolsey (Archbishop of York) created Chancellor by Henry VII., and Cardinal by the Pope.
 1529 . Fall of Wolsey. Thomas More became Chancellor.
 1530 Arrest and death of Wolsey.
 1534 . Henry VIII. declared 'Supreme Head of the Church of England' (Act of Supremacy).
 1536 . Smaller Monasteries suppressed. The Pilgrimage of Grace.
 1539 Suppression of the Greater Monasteries.
 1543 . Coinage debased by Henry VIII.
 1545 . Act passed for the Confiscation of Gild Property: carried into effect in Edward VI.'s reign.
 1549 . Ket's rising.
 1554 . Execution of Lady Jane Grey. Marriage of Queen Mary and Philip, heir to the Spanish throne.
 1555-1558 The Marian persecution.
 1558 . Loss of Calais.
 1559 . Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity passed.
 1564 . William Shakespeare born.
 1571 . Elizabeth bestows a peerage on William Cecil (Lord Burghley). The Royal Exchange opened by Elizabeth.
 1577-1580 Drake sailed round the world.
 1583 . The High Commission Court established.
 1587 . Execution of Mary, Queen of Scots.
 1588 . Defeat of the Spanish Armada.
 1600 . The East India Company founded.
 1601 . The first Poor Law Act passed.

The Stuart Period

- 1604 A.D. The Hampton Court Conference. 'A Form of Apology and Satisfaction' drawn up by the Commons.
- 1605 The Gunpowder Plot discovered.
- 1606 Colonies founded in Virginia.
- 1611 The Bible retranslated. Title of baronet instituted.
- 1618 Execution of Sir Walter Raleigh.
- 1620 Emigration of the 'Pilgrim Fathers.'
- 1624 . Monopolies declared illegal.
- 1628 . Petition of Right—'Second Great Charter of English Liberty.'
- 1637 John Hampden refused to pay 'ship-money.'
- 1638 . The Scottish National Covenant signed.
- 1629-1640 Absolute Rule of Charles I. (No Parliament met.)
- 1640-1660 The Long Parliament.
- 1641 . The Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission abolished. Execution of Strafford. Grand Remonstrance drawn up by the Commons. First Triennial Act.
- 1642 The Great Civil War commenced.
- 1645 . Execution of Archbishop Laud. Self-denying Ordinance passed. Charles defeated at Naseby.
- 1649 . Trial and execution of Charles I. Irish rebellion crushed by Cromwell.
- 1650 . Defeat of the Scots by Cromwell at Dunbar.
- 1652-1654 First Dutch War.
- 1653 . The Instrument of Government drawn up.
- 1655 . Major-Generals (military governors) appointed by Cromwell.
- 1657 . The Humble Petition and Advice.
- 1660 . The Restoration of the Stuarts. Long Parliament dissolved.
- 1661-1665 The Clarendon Code—a succession of Acts against the Puritans.
- 1664-1667 The Second Dutch War.
- 1665 . The Plague.
- 1666 . The Great Fire.
- 1670 . The Secret Treaty of Dover between Charles II. and Louis XIV.
- 1672-1674 The Third Dutch War.
- 1673 . The Test Act.
- 1679 . Habeas Corpus Act.

- 1685 A.D. The Bloody Assizes.
 1688 . Trial of the Seven Bishops. Abdication of James II.
 1689 The Bill of Rights—'Third Great Charter of English Liberties.' Toleration Act passed Battle of Killiecrankie.
 1692 . Massacre of Glencoe.
 1694 . Second Triennial Act passed (First Triennial Act, 1641). Greenwich Hospital and Bank of England founded.
 1695 . Licensing Acts ceased to operate. Liberty of the Press.
 1701 . Act of Settlement.
 1702 . The *Daily Courant*, the first daily paper, established.
 1702-1713 War of the Spanish Succession.
 1707 . Union of English and Scottish Parliaments.

Tudor Sovereigns

Henry VII.	1485-1509
Henry VIII.	1509-1547
Edward VI.	1547-1553
Mary I.	1553-1558
Elizabeth	1558-1603

Stuart Sovereigns

James I.	1603-1625
Charles I.	1625-1649
[Commonwealth	1649-1660]
Charles II.	1660-1685
James II.	1685-1689
William III.	}	1689- { 1702
Mary II.		
Anne	1702-1714

