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История Англии с древних времен до эпохи реставрации монархии

Учебное пособие
по лингвострановедению

Часть 1

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A History of England (Reader)
Part 1: from Ancient Times to Restoration

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Предлагаемое пособие представляет собой первую часть курса истории Англии - от древнейших времён до эпохи Карла II. Книга знакомит читателя с особенностями исторического развития страны, политическим строем и культурной жизнью Англии указанных эпох.

Пособие составлено в соответствии с требованиями программ МГУ по страноведению и истории стран изучаемого языка и рассчитано на студентов филологических, лингвистических факультетов, факультетов иностранных языков и перевода. Оно может быть также рекомендовано к изучению студентам-регионоведам, историкам и политологам.

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ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Предлагаемое пособие представляет собой первую часть курса истории Англии - от древнейших времён до эпохи Карла II. Книга знакомит читателя с особенностями исторического развития страны, политическим строем и культурной жизнью Англии указанных эпох.

Источниками послужили работы как зарубежных, так и отечественных специалистов. В основе структуры данного пособия лежат названия глав книг «История Англии. Тексты для чтения» (1-я часть) Г.С. Усовой и «История Англии для детей» Ч. Диккенса. Текст глав частично заимствован из указанных работ, а частично написан нами (41, 51, 63). Также во многие главы нами были включены дополнения, иллюстрации, отрывки из историографических источников, цитаты из оригинальных документов, из художественной, биографической и публицистической литературы. Исторические события тесно увязываются с реалиями современной Англии, например: Habeas Corpus, Stone of Scone, Prince of Wales, Tories and Whigs и т.д.

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Курс «История Англии» может предварять курс страноведения англоязычных стран либо сопутствовать ему. Дисциплину рекомендуется вести два семестра, она рассчитана на 72 учебных часа. Отдельные материалы пособия могут использоваться при изучении специальных дисциплин (лингвокультурологии, истории языка, лексикологии, стилистики и др.).

В качестве методической рекомендации предлагается ряд этапов работы с пособием: 1) задание на прочтение параграфов дома, ответы на контрольные вопросы; 2) задание на пересказ параграфов или разделов параграфов дома (на каждое занятие готовится 3-5 пересказов, возможен индивидуально-адресный подход); 3) на каждом занятии рекомендуется читать краткую обзорную лекцию на русском языке по материалам следующих параграфов; 4) также рекомендуется просмотр на занятиях или в качестве самостоятельной работы дома научно-популярных и художественных фильмов по соответствующим периодам истории.

Мы выражаем благодарность Галине Корман и Татьяне Галянской за помощь в подготовке и оформлении учебного пособия.
1. FIRST MEN ON THE TERRITORY OF ENGLAND

Nobody knows when the first men appeared on the territory of the British Isles, nobody can tell exactly. Contemporary archaeologists believe it happened in the Upper Palaeolithic (the Stone Age), between 40,000 and 10,000 years ago. Still, permanent settlements were only established within the last 6,000 years, in the Neolithic (the later Stone Age). The very oldest things we can find in that country are some rough stone tools which dropped from the hands of the men who made and used them in the old days when this island was not an island, but the part of the continent now called Europe. Wild animals and wild men could walk everywhere: there was no English Channel or Irish Sea and nothing could stop them.

We do not know what became of those men. The Cave Men lived after them, their tools were better made: they had harpoons to catch fish and arrow-heads to catch birds. But nobody knows what became of the Cave Men. The most interesting things which the Cave men left to us are their drawings of animals they saw before them: the great long haired mammoth, the reindeer, the oxen. Many of such drawings we can see in the caves of England and France.

The earth-ball rolled on year after year, century after century, and at last, as the ground sank in some places and rose in others, the sea rushed in over the lowest parts and formed the North Sea, the English Channel and the Irish Sea. After this men appeared again in this country from over the sea, now that it was an island; many different tribes followed each other, the new peoples came here, pushed the others to the north and to the east, even to Ireland and to Scotland.

The first tribes on the territory of Britain were the non-Indo-European tribe of Iberians (circa 10,000-3,000 B.C.), who migrated from the Iberian Peninsula. Around 2,500 B.C. the Beaker culture arrived, introducing drinking and food vessels, constructed from clay, later bronze and iron tools.

From that era date huge artificial constructions, such as the massive artificial mound with a flat top called Silbury Hill and the great circular earthwork ditch at Avebury. In many parts of the country we can find long and round grave-mounds called barrows, which are believed to belong to the people of these times. There are skeletons and bones in them together with the rough cups – you can see them in the museum below the Cave men's tools. Sometimes a little child had a whole barrow to itself; sometimes many people are buried together. We find in these barrows very interesting ornaments, brooches and necklaces, there are also the tools of bronze. As time went on the people in different parts of the country began to use iron tools.

Around 800-700 B.C. the Celts arrived from the continent, deriving from the Hallstatt and La Tene cultures. We call them Britons. Brythonic and Goidelic were the spoken languages during those times. Brythonic gave rise to Welsh, Cornish and Breton; or Goidelic gave rise to Irish, Scots Gaelic and Manx.

Around the 75 B.C. another Celtic tribe, the Belgae made their way across the English Channel into southern Britain. The Belgae brought with them a sophisticated plough that revolutionized agriculture in the rich, heavy soils of their new lands. They also introduced coinage to Britain and conducted a lively export trade with Rome and Gaul, including corn, livestock, metals and slaves.

We know a little about the ancient Celts from the visits of some travellers, who came to look for the tin in different parts of the island. When the travellers returned home they often wrote books about what they could see on that island, and from those books can read of the barns full of corn, about the sweet drinks which the natives offered to them, and so on. Pytheas of Massilia wrote of his trading journey to the island around 325 BC. Ptolemy in his Geographia asserts there were around 20 different Celtic tribes in the area.

A few centuries later, in the first century B.C., a kind of light lit the country, with the help of which we can see a better picture of how the people who lived in it. It was Julius Caesar, who came to Britain in 55 B.C. In his Commentarii de Bello Gallico Caesar describes the
mores and morals of Celts. He mentions that “most of the inland inhabitants do not sow corn, but live on milk and flesh, and are clad with skins. All the Britons, indeed, dye themselves with wood, which occasions a bluish colour, and thereby have a more terrible appearance in fight.” Other Roman writers also describe some facts of Britannia, as the Romans called it. Pliny the Elder mentions the tin trade from southern Britain. Tacitus writes that there was no great difference in language between the people of southern Britannia and northern Gaul and noted that the various nations of Britons shared physical characteristics with their continental neighbours.

Comprehension questions

1. When did the first men appear on the territory of Britain? What did they leave behind them?
2. Speak of the earliest tribes in Britain.
3. What languages did the Britons speak and what later languages developed from them?
4. What do the Greek and Roman writers tell us about Britons?

2. HOW THE BRITONS LIVED

The people who came to trade with the Britons often stayed there, on the south coast of England, which is now called Kent, and they taught the Britons some useful arts. Little by little, strangers mixed with the Islanders, and the savage Britons became a bold people, very brave and strong.

There were many forests in the country, and many swamps. The country was misty and cold. There were no roads, no bridges, no streets, no real houses, only straw-covered huts in a thick wood. They had a ditch round several houses, and a low wall made of mud, or some trees put on one another. The people planted little or no corn, but they had cattle. They made no coins, but they had metal rings for money. They had very coarse cloth, but they were very clever in building fortresses. They made boats of twigs, covered with the skins of animals, but seldom sailed far from the shore.

Their crafts were rather developed; bronze urns, bowls and torques illustrate their metalworking skills. They made swords of copper, but they bent when the blow was strong, because they were soft. They made light shields, short daggers, and spears.

The Britons were divided into twenty to forty tribes; they lived in urban settlements, around the capitals of their tribal chiefs.

They were very fond of horses. The standard of Kent was the picture of a white horse. The people taught their horses very well, so that the animals understood and obeyed every word of command.

The Britons had a strange and terrible religion — the Religion of the Druids. The druids were the priests, who also pretended that they were enchanters. They met together in dark woods, which they called Sacred Groves; and they taught there young men who came to them as pupils and who sometimes stayed with them for twenty years. The Druids glorified the pursuits of war, feasting and horsemanship. They controlled the calendar and the planting of crops and presided over the religious festivals and rituals that honoured local deities.

These Druids built great temples and altars, open to the sky, the remains of some of them we can see now. The most extraordinary of these is Stonehenge, thought to have been erected c.2500-2000 BC.
Of the Celtic peoples, Hermann Noelle wrote:

The Celtic culture as a whole, developing very early on about 1000 BC, and reaching its finest expression around 500 BC, is a fundamental part of Europe's past. This is not to underrate the subsequent influence of the Latin and Germanic peoples on this part of Europe. But the Celtic foundation was already present. Thus, European culture is inconceivable without the Celtic contribution. Even when the presence of the Celts in their original territory is no longer obvious, we must acknowledge the fact: they are at the root of the Western European peoples who have made history. (cited from [Williams http://www.britannia.com])

Comprehension questions

1. What kind of people were ancient Britons?
2. Describe their villages, dwellings, way of life.
3. What tools did they make?
5. How is the heritage of Celts evaluated?

3. THE COMING OF THE ROMANS

The Britons, who gave their name to the island, were Celts, but they were not the only Celts who lived there; in the west and north there were others called Gaels. The Britons who lived in the south had some trading connection with the Continent, chiefly in minerals.

Now, in the century just before the birth of Christ, one of the Mediterranean nations succeeded to conquer all the others, so that it became master of the whole of the then known world.

This was the Roman nation and a great Roman soldier and ruler who stands out in this first century B.C. was the first to tell us about Britons. He lighted for us that dark period of history. His name was Julius Caesar (100 B.C. - 44 B.C.), the great general and a politician of Rome.

When we study the calm, determined face of Julius Caesar in the gallery of Roman portraits in the British Museum we shall soon understand what made him so strong and powerful. He always could do everything he believed best and he could control others. He
was always at work: he conquered different peoples, looked after his soldiers, — and yet he found time to write books about his travels, which our students read when they learn Latin.

In 55 B.C. he wanted to subdue the Gauls, but when he found that the Britons helped them, he decided to attack the islanders. Julius Caesar with his army landed in Britain one summer day, and the Britons were so frightened, that they fled inland, and Caesar had not so much cavalry as to pursue them. So he returned back to Gaul, but in the following year came back. Again he did not conquer Britain but he described the country to the civilised Roman world, and the Romans knew all the particulars about Britons and remembered well that the warriors on the island painted their faces blue to terrify their enemies, that they had the chariots with scythes on their axles, that they had strong hill-camps fortified with stakes and logs of wood. After some time the Romans could send enough soldiers to meet the British wild warriors and to subdue all the country of the plains. It happened in 43 A.D., when the Emperor Claudius (10 B.C. - 54 A.D.) sent his expedition to Britain.

Later the Romans built a line of forts between the rivers Clyde and Forth to protect the southern parts from the wild Caledonians (A.D. 84). About forty years later the Emperor Hadrian built a double wall between the rivers Tyne and Solway — the Hadrian Wall. We can still see the remains of these walls in our days; a railway runs in that direction now. In the A.D. 140s on the orders of the Emperor Antoninus Pius the Antonine Wall was constructed between the Firth of Forth and the Firth of Clyde.

Little by little, as the Roman soldiers gained ground, some Britons went to the west, to the moors of Cornwall, to the mountains of Wales and Cumberland. In these parts we now find the people whose forefathers were Ancient Britons. However, this exodus was not even comparable to the exodus that came later, when Anglo-Saxons began their cleansing of the Celts.
Most of the Britons settled down among the Romans, from whom they learned many things. They helped the soldiers to drain the marshes and cut down trees, and to make the fine roads which crossed the country, and are still a pleasure to use, so well and straight they are.

The early Britons had two brave chiefs who resisted the Roman conquest. One of them was Boadicea, the queen of the Iceni, one of the British tribes. The statue of her, showing her standing in a war chariot with two wild horses, calling to her soldiers to fight, stands on Westminster Bridge in London, facing the Houses of Parliament.

In the first century A.D. Boadicea fought the Romans with all her might and led her people in battle, but the enemies were stronger. At last she killed herself because she did not want to become a prisoner.

Caractacus was another British chief. He also lived in the first century after Christ. Caractacus lost everything when he fought to drive out the Romans. The Romans took him to Rome as a prisoner with his wife and children. He did not behave at all as a frightened captive, but proudly, as a free-born man, and he said to the Roman emperor: "You fight to gain the whole world, and to make everybody your slaves. I fought to keep my own land, and for freedom".

For about four hundred years Britain was part of the Roman Empire. The thousands of soldiers who came during these centuries from every part of the empire left many remains on the soil of the country, especially in the cities founded by the Romans in London, York, Winchester and Bath. There are the altars they set up to their gods, their weapons and armour, the memorial stones put up to honour their memories. They built many beautiful country villas — in the sunniest and healthiest places, with a fine view, among gardens with fountains and statues. When danger arose, they buried much money and jewellery.

We can well picture the life in those villas, as we look at the fine pavements, the shoes of the ladies and children, the lamps, writing materials and other treasures which we found among their ruins. Some of the pottery and glass were made in Britain, the Britons could learn very quickly.
London (Lat. Londinium) rose and became an important city in Roman times. About twenty feet below the pavements of the City of to-day we find the remains of its greatness. The strong walls built for its protection ran on the lines of our Underground Railway. There are many stations in London Underground with the word "gate" in their names — Aldgate, Moorgate and so on. In the Roman time from these gates in the walls started the great roads which passed over the country — like the great main lines of railways at the present time — they connected the City with their stations at Lincoln, York, Chester and many others. Traders brought there their goods.

Comprehension questions

1. The early contacts of Britons with Rome.
2. The Roman Empire and Julius Caesar.
3. The first arrival of Romans in Britain.
4. The Roman invasion. The Hadrian Wall.
5. Describe the Celtic revolts against the Roman rule.
6. The Roman heritage in Britain.
While Britain lived under Roman rule, the Roman Empire was beginning to become weak. It had many enemies on the continent, and it was impossible to have enough men for the protection of Britain. In 408 A.D. the legions dislocated on the island were called back to Rome to defend it from Goths. (To no avail, as it turned out, as the Goths succeeded in occupying Rome in 410 A.D.)

In the year 410 the islanders had to defend themselves against Picts and Scots. The Britons quite forgot by those times how to fight all together, they were used that the Romans took care of them, but now the Romans left them and returned to their own country, leaving behind their walls, their cities and their villas, camps and theatres. There were many a sad good-bye, because often Romans had British wives and relatives, and they felt despair in their hearts going away from those they loved dearly and to leave them in great danger.

The Britons were also in despair and even wrote a letter to Rome, asking soldiers to come back and help them; the letter is so sad that it is called "the groans of the Britons". "The barbarians draw us to the sea", they wrote, "the sea drives us back to the barbarians. We shall either be killed or drowned". Many sad relics are found in the caves, where whole families took refuge when their homes were destroyed.

At the beginning of the 5th century, Vortigern, the Romano-British overlord, was assailed on many fronts. Aside from Irish and Pict invaders on his northern and western frontiers, there were Germanic raiders on his eastern coasts, and from within he faced a challenge of his rival Aurelius Ambrosius, who had powerful allies in Gaul. In great despair he called to their strongest enemies — the Germanic tribe known as Jutes, who came very soon. The Saxons, another Germanic tribe, from the land between the Weser and Elbe, soon followed, and not long after that - the Angles (who came from the European coast of the North Sea, near neighbours of the Jutes in Jutland). Those were the Germanic tribes belonging to the Ingvaeone group.

The conquest of Britain by the Anglo-Saxon tribes (the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes) is well described by Bede the Venerable in his “Historia ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum” and in “Historia Brittonum”. According to them, in 449 AD the Germanic tribes headed by the mercenary chieftains Hengist and Horsa landed on the island of Thanet in the Thames estuary. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle records that Hengist and Horsa sent word to the Angles describing "the worthlessness of the Brythons, and the richness of the land" and asked for assistance. At the same time the Saxon commanders, understanding Vortigern’s weakness, recommended they bring in more of their countrymen to help. Vortigern agreed, and nineteen more ships landed. In order to pay these warriors, Hengist suggested they be granted land in Kent. By the time Vortigern realized his control was slipping away, it was too late.

The migration of a whole people, bringing its language and customs, began.

There were long cold winters on those flat and sandy shores round the south-east corner of the North Sea, from where the newcomers into England came. The meadows by the marshes, the dark woods behind them could not give enough food for the people who lived around; as time went on, more and more tribes of the same family of nations pushed nearer to the sea, till all were overcrowded.

Each spring, "when the birds began to twitter in the sunshine, and the brooks and the rivers ran gaily singing to the sea", some of the youngest and strongest of the people took their boats and went to find new good homes, where they could hunt, and fish, and grow corn to feed their families.

It was quite a terrible sight in Kent and other places, when the long, narrow boats, ornamented with dragon or some other heads came swiftly to the shore. The tall, strong men with flowing hair and bronzed faces, glittering swords and shields, jumped ashore one
after the other, and very soon became masters of some good piece of land, situated either near the mouth of a river or in a bay. The newcomers began to build their homes, their towns and villages.

The Britons under Vortigern resisted and began to win important victories, pushing back their enemies, but the Saxons treacherously deceived them. Hengist sent to Vortigern an offer of peace. Vortigern accepted, and Hengist prepared a feast to bring together the British and Saxon leaders. However, he instructed his men to conceal knives beneath their feet. At the right moment, Hengist shouted "nima der sexa", and his men massacred the unsuspecting Britons. However, they spared Vortigern, who ransomed himself by giving the Saxons Essex, Sussex, Middlesex, and other unnamed districts. In all, during this massacre some 300 leading Romano-Celts were slaughtered, and the Celtic command of England never fully recovered from this blow.

Following the destructive assault of the Saxons, the survivors gathered together under the leadership of Ambrosius, who is described as "a gentleman who, perhaps alone of the Romans, had survived the shock of this notable storm. Certainly his parents, who had worn the purple, were slain by it. His descendants in our day have become greatly inferior to their grandfather's excellence." He was of high birth, and had Roman ancestry; he was presumably a Romano-Briton, rather than a Roman from elsewhere in the empire, though it is impossible to be sure. It also appears that Ambrosius was a Christian: the 6th-century British cleric Gildas says that he won his battles "with God's help." Ambrosius organised the survivors into an armed force and achieved the first military victory over the Saxon invaders. However, this victory was not decisive: "Sometimes the Saxons and sometimes the citizens [meaning the Romano-British inhabitants] were victorious." It is impossible to know to what degree Ambrosius actually wielded political power, and over what area, but it is certainly possible that he ruled some part of England. Ambrosius Aurelianus is supposed to be either himself a prototype for Artorius, King Arthur, or someone from Arthur's entourage.

One more of the few-recorded actions between the Romano-British and the Germanic invaders is mentioned in a poem by Aneirin from around 600 A.D. He describes how the Gododdin of Lothian (near Edinburgh, now part of Scotland), a Romano-British tribe controlling the eastern end of the Antonine Wall, spent a year preparing for a raid against the Angles of Northumbria. The warlord Mynyddog lavishly feasted his followers, giving them mead and wine. Then with three hundred leading horse warriors and their followers, Mynyddog rode south to attack the Angles at the Battle of Cattraeth in Yorkshire. They wore coats of mail, leaf-bladed swords and had gold torcs around their necks. As brave and well equipped as they were, they nevertheless came to grief at the hands of the Angles. All three hundred were slain, and the realm of the Celts was pushed further back. Lothian wouldn’t be recovered by the Scots for centuries.

The transmigration of the Anglo-Saxon tribes lasted for 150 years and ended in their occupation of most English territory. The Britons fought against the conquerors till about 600 but they were eventually done to the world and retreated. The territory of Britain was divided as follows: the Saxons and the Angles occupied the territories south and north off the Thames: the Saxons in Sussex, Essex, and Wessex, and the Angles along the eastern coast. The Jutes (who came from the Juteland Peninsula in Europe) settled on the Peninsula of Kent and the Isle of White. The Celtic tribes travelled to Brittany (Bretagne) in France or were ousted to the outskirts of the island: to Wales, Cornwall and Cumbria.

The tongue of the Anglo-Saxons was West-Germanic, different from the Celtic language of Britons. As the Celts were driven off their land, their language was eradicated, too. According to the linguist Mario Pei, the antipathy between the Anglo-Saxons and Britons was such that very few Celtic words came into the Anglo-Saxon language of that period (crag, dun, combe). Most borrowings from Celtic took place at a
later period: glen, heather, clan, bard, plaid, slogan from Scots Gaelic; colleen, whiskey, blarney from Irish; eisteddfod, flannel from Welsh.

Comprehension questions

1. Why did the Romans leave Britain?
2. Against whom did the Britons have to defend themselves? Why were they unable to?
3. What did "the groans of the Britons" say?
4. What is Vortigern known for?
5. What happened in 449 A.D.?
6. Who was Ambrosius Aurelianus?
7. What is known about the tribe of Gododdin?
8. Where did the Anglo-Saxon tribes settle? Why was their settlement devastating for the Celts?
9. What linguistic fact does M. Pei note?

5. ANGLO-SAXON CONQUEST. STRUGGLE BETWEEN THE TRIBES. CONVERSION TO CHRISTIANITY

By the end of the 7th century the invaders had conquered the territory which was later named the Kingdom of Anglia (under King Egbert of Wessex, who united England in one feudal state in the 9th c.). Moving northward they reached Fort of Firth and in the West they got as far as Cornwall, Wales and Cumbria.

The Germanic tribes who settled in Britain in the fifth century originally had no state unity and permanently waged wars. In the sixth century there were nine small kingdoms in
Britain: Deira, Bernicia (Angles), East Anglia (Angles), Mercia (Angles in the north, Saxons in the south), Essex, Middlesex, Sussex, Wessex (Saxons), and Kent (inhabited by Jutes). Later Deira and Bernicia were united and named Northumbria. There was no concord among the kings, and no peace among the kingdoms. Each ruler desired to gain the supreme power and subordinate the others. At the end of the 6th c. there were seven kingdoms (The Heptarchy): Northumbria, East Anglia, Wessex, Essex, Sussex, Kent and Mercia. Later they united into four kingdoms: Northumbria, Mercia, Wessex and Kent.

At first the kingdom of Kent was the most prominent of them all. Northumbria, which appeared as a result of the forcible unification of Deira and Bernicia, gained the dominating position in the 7th century. [Blair 1969] Edwin, the King of Northumbria, enlarged the borders of his kingdom and built the citadel Edinburgh.

In the 8th century Mercia became the most powerful kingdom. [Halliday 1983] The zenith of her power is associated with the name of King Offa, who was received in Europe as a respectable ruler and upheld close diplomatic relations with Charlemagne. He was considered by Charlemagne the overlord of south Britain.

At the beginning of the 9th century the dominating position passed over to Wessex. This kingdom dominated and united nearly all the territory of Britain, its capital Winchester becoming the capital of Britain. The Wessex king Alfred the Great (849-901), the enlightened monarch, played an important role in the strengthening of the Wessex position, as he increased the fleet, strengthened the army, built new fortresses and forts, set up the England’s first school for feudal lords, invited scholars and writers to England and himself translated from Latin.

In the 9th AD Egbert, the King of Wessex, defeated Mercia’s troops and became the first king of all all England (the Kingdom of Anglia). The country was divided into the administrative units, the counties, headed by King’s officers – sheriffs. Several counties were united under the power of earls, who became major feudal lords.

Drawing parallels between Russia and England as regards the evolvement of their statehood, we cannot fail to notice differences, as well as correspondences between them. The democratic rule with the help of people’s assembly (a veche) had existed in the Russian territorial communes longer than folkmoot in the Anglo-Saxon tribes. In Russia the people’s rule with elected chieftains and voyevodas had been extended well into the 8-9th c. (recorded at different times by Procopius of Caesarea (6 c. A.D.), Jordanus, Arab chronicles etc.). In England folkmoots and elected chieftains and thegns still existed in the 5 c. (Octa, Eosa, Hengist, Horsa), but already in the 7-8 c. they were replaced by kings who sat on the throne as hereditary rulers.

The perseverance of the democracy from the bottom upwards and the electivity of chieftains in Rus was explained by the prevalence of the collective forms of labour and everyday life, owing to its more rigorous climatic conditions. The class-formation in Rus resulted in mere property differentiation, rather than political differentiation and power seizure by the rich. Gradually, the community-veche structure evolved in the polis-veche one. Several of these polices are known from the ancient Russian chronicles. The Polyans had Kiev for their capital, the Ilmen Slavs — Novgorod, the Drevlyans — Iskorosten, the Krivichies — Smolensk. Like in Ancient Greece, in Russia the polices with their suburbs and communal lands were city-states, with their elected administrations.

In the late 9th c., the Novgorod people’s assembly, seeking to put an end to feudal strife and driven by the need to defend themselves against Khazars, Polovets and other nomads, decided to call Rurik, who had been living in Ladoga, to be their Konung, or leader of a hired guard (according to the Ipatiev Chronicle data, relied upon by the historian V.O. Klyuchevsky). Another version, upheld by some historians, e.g. I.Ya. Froyanov, is that Ruric was a Varangian leader of mercenaries, who, upon the end of war, deposed and killed the Slavonian prince of Novgorod, Vadim the Bold. The Kievan State emerged as
the centre of Ancient Rus when Prince Oleg seized Kiev in 882, and later subjugated the East Slavic tribes, uniting them into one state, about the same time as Egbert of Wessex had tried, with little success, to unite Wessex, Mercia and other territories into the Kingdom of Anglia (circa 830). It should be noted, that Prince Oleg did not (and, obviously, couldn’t) abolish the veches, he had to come to terms with the people’s assemblies. Thus the hereditary princely power in Rus did not interfere with the veche, but rather complemented it. More than once did the veches in Novgorod, Pskov, Pinsk, Smolensk, Lvov, Galich and Kiev refuse credence to princes and even drive them out. Thus the early Russian princes ruled by the agreement with the veche and with its consent.  

Conversion to Christianity

The Anglo-Saxons, settling on the British Isles, knew only the gods of their forefathers, they were pagans. The pagans had many gods. There were Woden, the god of war; Thor, the god of thunder; Freya, the goddess of peace, and others. We recall those gods now as we speak of Wednesday (Woden's day), Thursday (Thor's day), Friday (Freya's day). Thus the English knew nothing of Christianity during a long time after Christ was born. But in fact Christianity arrived in Britain long before then, in the 1st century A.D., when Roman artisans and traders arriving in Britain spread among the Britons the story of Jesus along with stories of their Pagan deities.

But let us return to the English.

Christianity came at the pagan Anglo-Saxons from two directions. The Celtic Church, pushed back into Wales, Cornwall, and particularly Ireland, made inroads in the north from an early base on Lindisfarne Island. We can still see the crosses in the north of England and in Ireland.

The Roman Catholic Church approached from the south, beginning with the mission of St. Augustine to Aethelbert, King of Kent, in 597. This king became Christian, following the example of his wife, a daughter of the West-Frankish king.

Let us dwell on the second direction. According to Bede, about the year 600 A.D. (in fact, in 597) a monk in Rome was surprised very much when he saw a sad sight of several English boys, they were sold as slaves at the market. The monk decided to send news of Christianity to the boys' country. Later the monk became Pope Gregory the Great and sent a missionary, Augustine, to Britain. It was very important for the development of the country because the people of the island so became nearer to the civilisation of the Continent.

A fine cross was put up at the beginning of the 20th century in the Isle of Thanet, to mark the spot where Augustine, the Roman missionary, landed at the end of the sixth century. He and his clergy had a painted cross and banners, and they went to Canterbury from here, singing hymns and prayers. They set up large stone crosses on their way, when they stopped at many places and told the people the Gospel story.

Kent, following king Aethelbert's example, became Christian; but the other tribes remained pagans for some time.

Comprehension questions

1. What Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were there in the sixth century A.D.?
2. How did they fight for supremacy?
3. Under what king did the Kingdom of Anglia appear?
4. What are the differences and similarities between early Russia and early England?
5. In what two directions did Christianity make inroads in England?
6. When was Christianity introduced in Kent? What does Bede tell about it?
6. EDWIN, THE GREAT KING WHO FOUNDED EDINBURGH, OR EDWIN'S TOWN. BEDE, THE SCHOLAR

Edwin was one of the greatest of the first Christian kings. He lived from 585 till 633 and was the king of Northumbria. It was he who founded Edinburgh — Edwin's burgh, or town. He needed a strong fort to protect the fertile lands in the south and the roads from the north. The great castle rock between the hills and the sea gave the good protection of the town which grew up round its base.

Edwin was a pagan when he married a Christian woman, Ethelberg, the Kent king's sister. The king of Kent made him a condition to baptize his people — and he did it beginning from 626. In 633 Edwin's enemies, kings of North Wales and of Mercia, rose against Edwin and killed him.

A little further north there lived a little later the great scholar and writer, his name was Bede (672-735), the first English historian. People often called him "the Venerable Bede". We know about his life from his autobiographical notes to one of his books.

"I, Bede, a servant of Christ, and priest of the monastery of the apostles Saint Peter and Saint Paul, have with the God's help, composed so far as I could gather it, from old documents or from the traditions of the elders, or from my own knowledge. I was born in the territory of this monastery, and at the age of seven I was given to the Abbot Benedict, and he taught me".

Bede spent all his life learning and teaching, translating and writing books for the pupils who gathered round him.
There is still a copy of Bede's book, written in Latin, in the library of the British Museum, which contains the manuscripts from which we learn the earliest English history. Bede tells us the old story about the handsome, fair, blue-eyed boys who were sold as slaves in the market of Rome, and how a young monk, afterwards Pope Gregory, liked them. When he knew the name of their people, he made a joke on it. "Not Angles, but Angels", he said, "they are so beautiful".

7. HOW THE FURIOUS DANES CAME DOWN UPON ENGLAND

Hardly had Edgar of Wessex become the lord of united Anglia from the Forth to the English Channel, at the beginning of the ninth century, when searovers rushed into it. Again dark and bitter times fell upon these lands. The furious rovers were Danes from the north.

At first they appeared about 787, but then they only visited England for short periods. Like Anglo-Saxons, they, too, came in fine boats, often painted in different colours, sometimes black as night, with high coloured figureheads and the dreaded Raven banner at the mast. They came across the North Sea from their homes in the lowlands of Denmark, in Sweden, and along the coast of Norway. All were of the same stock: Danes; North, or Norse, men; Vikings, or men of the creeks. "From the fury of the Northmen, good Lord deliver us!" was the prayer of the Christians whom they attacked. All the Northmen particularly hated and despised the religion of the Christians. So, flames went up from the monasteries and churches through the whole robbed land, and the people who tried to save their lives there were killed. London was burnt, and the whole country plundered.

But before 855 the Danes only came to England in summer, and for winter they returned home, to the North. Only in 855 they remained on the island for winter and wanted to have a place for living there. No doubt the reason of their decision to make here their own home was because strong Norse kings, Horik II, in the first place, left no room for independent chiefs.

The Danes conquered Mercia and East Anglia, and after that they attacked Wessex.

In the midst of all this, by the end of the ninth century, there uprose Alfred the Great, called by the English the Truth-Teller and the Wise.
Comprehension questions

1. Who was the ruler of Anglia when the Danes began to make raids on the island?
2. Which tribes were actually named the ‘Danes’?
3. What were their tactics in England?
4. When did they decide to stay on the island and why?

8. THE TROUBLED LIFE OF KING ALFRED THE GREAT (8487-900)

Alfred's titles and the stories about his good nature, bravery and industry, which came through the centuries to our times, show how beloved he was by his subjects — more than a thousand years ago.

Alfred seemed to be a very attractive child and promised much, and stories of his boyhood were remembered. Alfred's father the king died in 858 when the boy was ten, but he had still three elder brothers and nobody knew Alfred could be the king some day, but it happened just so. Nothing was heard about Alfred in the days when his two brothers reigned. But that period was very short, they both died soon, and in 866 the third brother Ethelred inherited the kingdom. Then the public life of Alfred begins, and he entered on his great work of delivering England from the Danes. In 868 the two brothers made an unsuccessful attempt to relieve Mercia from the Danes. At first the Danes were quiet for a while, and Alfred made a good use of peaceful time to build many ships, to prevent the sea-rovers' landing. This may be regarded as the beginning of the English Navy. He also did his best to get the country into order, and special militia, the fyrd, was set up. The army was also got together, soldiers were trained to fight.

In 870 the Danes returned, the storm burst, and the year 871 was called "Alfred's year of battles". On January 4th Alfred had a brilliant victory of Ashdown. In April of the same year Ethelred died and Alfred became the king. Nine battles were fought against the Danes that year with varying success; but in the end peace was made and the Danes retired northward. Six years later they returned and drove Alfred to take refuge in Athelney, little island. But next
year, 878, he gathered together the men of different parts of the country and had a great victory over the Danes at Eddington.

As a result of that victory England was divided by a line formed by the river Thames: the country north of this line was given over to the Danes and called the Danelaw; the territory to the south fell to Alfred, who became recognised as the champion of the English against the Danes.

But before that things were against Alfred after returning of the Danes, and he had to hide. He hid one day in a swineherd’s cottage, where the swineherd’s wife was making cakes. Not knowing the king, she let him sit by the hearth mending his bow and arrows, but he had to promise her to see that the cakes did not burn while she went away. The young king sat by the blazing red fire of the hearth, deep in thoughts — so deep that he did not notice the strong smell of the cakes as they burnt to cinders. The housewife returned and, not knowing to whom she was speaking, she scolded the king severely for letting her cakes burn.

Another story from this time tells us that once Alfred ventured alone, disguised as a singer, into the Danish camp night after night to find out their plans. Soon after this he won his great victory.

It was not long before Alfred made his half kingdom very strong. Not only did he organise a national army and create a fleet, but he founded schools and encouraged learning and art in every way. He did all he could to teach his people. As the Danes destroyed the monasteries, there was great ignorance everywhere, for the monasteries had been really schools where the people learned to read and write English and Latin.

So Alfred called together learned men from other countries who understood Latin, and they wrote and translated and taught as hard as they could. Alfred himself worked with them. He continued to study all his life. Some think it was Alfred the Great who began the first history of England in English, called the Anglo-Saxon, or the English Chronicle. There is a copy of this history in the British museum with the words written on it “Alfred had me made”.

Alfred himself translated into English some books in history and geography. And what was still more important, he improved the old laws and made the people keep them.

But at the end of his reign Alfred again had to fight the Danes from overseas and the Danes in the Danelaw. His army and fleet were very useful in those battles.

Comprehension questions

1. When and how did Alfred’s public life begin?
2. Which important battles did Alfred the Great win?
3. Where did the borderline between West Saxon England and Danelag lay?
4. What important cultural achievements in England did Alfred bring about?

9. AFTER ALFRED’S DEATH

As we learnt from the previous chapter, Alfred won important victories over Danes at Athelney in 876 and Eddington in 878. The subsequent peace with the Danish leader Guthrum gave the Danes control over much of eastern England — Danelaw, or Danelag. On the other hand, by 890 Alfred’s authority was acknowledged over all the remainder of England.

Alfred, who fought the Danes and made his kingdom very strong and grand, died in 900. His work was carried on by his son and a very brave daughter and three grandsons, and for a time it seemed as if the Danes were going to settle down as part of English nation without further trouble.
The long Danish swords in the Anglo-Saxon Room of the British Museum remind us of the way in which they swung them round the battle; and the combs recall the flowing hair for which they are so famous.

The country was divided into separate kingdoms. Fierce fighting went on among them for many a long day. The tribes that fought against the English in the north were united at last under a king called Kenneth, in the first part of the tenth century.

Scotland, too, at that time, suffered much from the Northmen, who poured out of their creeks, called fiords, to the creeks of Scotland. Right round the coast they went, taking many islands along it.

The name of the King Edgar is also well known in England (944-975). He was called the Peaceful King, which shows that he lived on good terms with his neighbours.

There had been a revolt in Mercia just before Edgar became the king, and then he succeeded to his brother and, though he had some trouble at first restoring order in his kingdom, but he succeeded so well in it that in 975 he was recognised an overlord of Britain. Dunstan, the abbot of Glastonbury, helped Edgar, and their great object was to create a united nation of English and Danes, and Dunstan was wise enough to let the Danes live under their own laws and customs.

Comprehension questions

1. Who were King Alfred’s successors?
2. What did Edgar of Mercia and Dunstan try to do?

10. DANEGELD (987?-1016)

After the Peaceful King's death Ethelred the Unready became the king. He was called "the Unready" because that means — "taking no counsel", and he really did not like to take anybody's counsel. Just at that time the Danes once more began to make descents upon the English coasts, and Ethelred the Unready bought them off with money — people called that money "the Danegeld" ("the Dane Money"). The Danes took that money and came away, but soon they returned and required more "geld". Ethelred was a weak and cruel man, and the Danes, who understood it very well, used it. Matters became worse and worse, and at last Ethelred fled away through the Channel to Normandy to his wife's relations. And so Canute, the Danish king, who also ruled Norway, added England to his empire. But Canute was wise enough to keep English laws for Englishmen, and the country lived in peace for a time. Canute gave to the Scottish king the land between the river Forth and the Chaviot Hills. For centuries these hills remained the border between Scotland and England.

One of the greatest English poets Rudyard Kipling (1865-1932) wrote a very witty poem about the Danegeld:

It is always a temptation to an armed and agile nation
To call upon a neighbour and to say:
"We invaded you last night — we are quite prepared to fight,
Unless you pay us cash to go away".
And that is called asking for Danegeld,
And the people who ask it explain
That you've only to pay them the Danegeld
And then you'll get rid of the Dane!
It is always a temptation to a rich and lazy nation
To puff and look important and to say: —
"Though we know we should defeat you, we have not the time to meet you. We will therefore pay you cash to go away". And that is called paying the Danegeld; But we've proved it again and again, That if once you have paid him the Danegeld You never get rid of the Dane. It is wrong to put temptation in the path of any nation, For fear they should succumb and go away; So when you are requested to pay up or be molested, You will find it better policy to say: — "We never pay any-one Danegeld, No matter how trifling the cost; For the end of that game is oppression and shame, And the nation that plays it is lost!"

Comprehension questions

1. How is Ethelred’s nickname translated from OE?
2. Why was it unwise on Ethelred’s part to pay Danegeld?
3. What kind of king was Canute?

11. EDWARD THE CONFESSOR

The son of Ethelred the Unready, Edward, lived in Normandy, after his father and mother saved themselves there, and Edward was brought up there. He was called The Confessor because he grew in a monastery and cared more for a quiet, learned life, and for attending services at churches than for lighting or looking after business. His mother Emma, the wife of Ethelred the Unready, was the daughter of Richard the Fearless, duke of Normandy.

When the bloodline of Danish kings had dried up, Edward was called back to be king, but he was not at all fitted to take part in all those fightings in his fatherland during such a difficult and anxious period of time. He brought many Norman nobles with him, and the people were discontent of it.
Edward's greatest pleasure was in building churches, and the most beautiful of all was the Abbey of Westminster — it was built after the pattern of the churches he knew and loved in Normandy, with rounded windows and arches. This abbey church in Westminster has been entirely rebuilt by later kings.

In 1042 Edward's brother died and all the people received Edward to be the king.

The king's personal tastes inclined much more to foreigners than to Englishmen, and he fell more and more into the hands of those from beyond the sea.

It is said that Edward promised his cousin, William of Normandy, that he should be the king of England after his death; in any case, William decided to become the king. The gentle, rosy-faced king, Edward the Confessor, died in January, 1066. He was buried in the fine new church, finished only a few days before. Later, a beautiful tomb was raised over him, which we can see today in its present place in the Abbey.

Comprehension questions

1. Speak on Edward the Confessor’s ancestry.
2. What is this king most famous for?
3. Why is he viewed as an ambiguous ruler in the history of England?

12. WILLIAM OF NORMANDY COMES TO ENGLAND

The year 1066 which opened thus with King Edward's death was an important year for the English history. The day after the weeping people had crowded the Westminster Abbey to see the funeral of Edward, they came back again to crown the successor whom they had chosen — Harold, the son of Earl Godwin: they knew well that he was brave and wise and that he hated the Normans.

And so, on that bright sunny day, in the keen north wind of January, the roof rang again with joyful shouts of "YES!" when the old archbishop asked: "Do you want Harold for king?"
When William of Normandy heard that Harold became king after Edward, he was furious, and at once set to work to get an army and a fleet together to invade England and secure the crown which he wanted to have so much. He said Harold had promised him the kingdom as well as Edward; but no one could really promise this, because in those days it was the people's right to choose whom they wanted to have.

When William with his army and fleet landed near Hastings, the south coast, in the bright September weather, Harold was at York. He marched his army south by the great Roman road to London in nine days, and very quick that was, when so many had to go on foot.

The battle that followed at Hastings on 14 October 1066 is one of the great battles in the history of England. The Normans were led out by a singer on a fine prancing horse, and the whole army heard his song about the great hero of France and how he fought and won.

Harold took up a strong position on a hill, and so long as his footmen — for he had no cavalry — kept to their cover William's horsemen and archers produced little effect. The duke's only hope was to induce the English to leave their position, and this he succeeded in doing by feigning retreat. Harold's irregular forces broke away and were immediately charged and annihilated by the Norman cavalry. The English centre still stood firm, and only gave way when Harold fell, wounded in the eye by an arrow. The English did their best, but they had no second army to oppose the enemies, and the Conqueror's army was too strong for them. So Harold was killed, and the bravest and best men of England fell fighting around him. As a result, the battle of Hastings gave the crown of England to William of Normandy.

This happened on Saturday, October 15th, 1066.

The Battle of Hastings on the Bayeux Tapestry, an embroidered cloth nearly 70 metres (230ft) long, which depicts the events leading up to the Norman conquest of England concerning William, Duke of Normandy and Harold, Earl of Wessex, later King of England, and culminating in the Battle of Hastings. The English fight on foot behind a shield wall, whilst the Normans are on horses. Two fallen knights are named as Leofwine and Gyrth, Harold's brothers, but both armies are shown fighting bravely. Bishop Odo brandishes his baton or mace and rallies the Norman troops in battle. To reassure his knights that he is still alive and well, William raises his helmet to show his face. The battle becomes very bloody with troops being slaughtered and dismembered corpses littering the ground. King Harold is killed. This scene can be interpreted in different ways, as the name "Harold" appears above a number of knights, making it difficult to identify which character is Harold.
Comprehension questions

1. Who did the Saxon knights choose for their king after Edward the Confessor?
2. Tell about the Battle of Hastings.
3. What does the Bayeux Tapestry depict?

13. THE LONELY CROWNING. THE CONQUEROR'S WORK

By December William had forced the people of the south to recognise him as English king, and he was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day. No shouts of welcome, no bright faces, and when the archbishop asked: "Do you take William of Normandy to be your king?" there was but a sullen mutter; they had to say: "Yes". William was almost alone on this great day.

Freedom for England was gone. The English knights were killed, the poor were in utter misery.

William's first task was to reward his followers which he did by giving much land and goods to the Normans, who helped him to conquer the English crown. For that William confiscated the estates of the English nobles; certainly at the beginning of his reign, when continual revolts had not embittered him, he allowed a number of English landowners to redeem their estates by paying heavy fines, but by the time of his death nearly all the land of England had changed the owners. And the Norman landowners promised William the Conqueror to supply him with fighting men when the king went to war.

This feudal system, as it was called, lasted for many years in England. The chief reason for this system was that the central government was not strong enough to give protection to all citizens, who had to look for help to the richest and strongest man in their neighbourhood. Naturally, so necessary a service had to be paid for, and the way to pay for it was to provide the rich man with the means of living. So the country was divided into a number of units called manors, and every member of the manor was bound to every other member by clearly defined duties, perfectly well known and recognised by the law.

Domesday Book
In 1068 a great revolt against William the Conqueror broke out in Yorkshire, supported by the Danes, and William absolutely devastated the whole country. Another English rising gave William much trouble in 1070 — which led to further confiscation of English lands and building of many Norman castles.

In 1084 another Danish invasion was threatened, and in order to find out the financial and military strength of the country William ordered to prepare a great book called Domesday Book, in which is a description of all the great houses and estates in the kingdom. This book is still in great use.

Comprehension questions

1. What did the Conqueror do when he became the King?
2. What was the fate of English common people, knights, the clergy?
3. What is a feudal manor?
4. What is Domesday Book? Why was it written?

14. SIR RICHARD’S SONG (A.D. 1066)
(A poem by Rudyard Kipling)

From Kipling’s story «Young Men at the Manor»
I followed my Duke ere I was a lover,
To take from England fief and fee;
But now this game is the other way over —
But now England hath taken me!
I had my horse, my shield and banner,
And a boy's heart, so whole and free;
But now I sing in another manner —
For now England hath taken me!
As for my father in his tower,
Asking news of my ship at sea,
He will remember his own hour —
Tell him England hath taken me!

As for my Mother in her bower,
That rules my Father so cunningly,
She will remember a maiden's power —
Tell her England hath taken me!

As for my brother in Rouen City,
A nimble and naughty page is he,
But he will come to suffer and pity —
Tell him England hath taken me!

As for my little sister waiting
In the pleasant orchards of Normandie,
Tell her youth is the time for mating —
Tell her England hath taken me!

As for my comrades in camp and highway,
That lift their eyebrows scornfully,
Tell them their way is not my way
Tell them England hath taken me!
Kings and Princes and barons famed,
Knights and Captains in your degree;
Hear me a little before I am blamed —
Seeing England hath taken me!
How so great man's strength be reckoned,
There are two things he cannot flee,
Love is the first, and Death is the second,
And Love in England hath taken me!

15. THE NORMAN TIMES

When Taillefer, the minstrel, led the Normans to victory of Hastings, tossing and catching his long sword as he rode forwards on his gay, prancing horse, the words of his bold song were in French. What a roar of deep bass voices as the whole army behind him took up the air!

When the voice of the archbishop rang out in Westminster Abbey two months later, on Christmas Day, asking if it were the will of the people that William should be the crowned king, he spoke first of all in French.

But, you will say, all this happened more than 800 years ago; how do you know what they said, and in what language?

Look again into that case in the British Museum, where we received the actual message from the past, in the story of Bede and in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. You will remember that the opened pages tell of the "Angel" boys at Rome, and a great victory over the Danes.

Next to the Chronicle comes a history of the Norman Conquest, in French, because the king and his court, and nearly all the richest people in England, spoke French. There is an old poem written for the children of those times, in French, with English meanings below, just as in the French lessons. The writer of long ago says that he has so arranged it in order that the children may understand what they are reading.

Even the accounts of what was done in the law courts, and at the meetings of the Wise Men, who helped the King to govern the country, were all in French. But the use of the language spoken by Bede and Alfred did not die out, as some thought it would, any more than did the English nation, oppressed as it was. By slow degrees the English and their language rose again. Normans married English wives (as you can read in Rudyard Kipling's poem above), and naturally their children and grandchildren spoke both French and English.

By slow degree the use of French as a separate language passed away, but the English, which we speak now, contains many words brought over by the Normans.

Dover Castle
Another work of William the Conqueror, which lasts to this day, was the making of New Forest in Hampshire. William made it to hunt in, and sorely distressed the poor folk who were turned out of their homes for his pleasure.

Some of the great castles William built to keep the English in order are still standing. The strong square towers, or "keeps", are seen nowadays not only by the banks of the Thames, but at Norwich and Rochester, and many other places. Most of them look strong enough now to stand a siege, and take us back to the age when the nobles shut themselves up in them, and sallied out to make prisoners and to steal and plunder.

Chief among those ancient buildings is the old part of the Tower of London, in which is a most perfect Norman Chapel. It is said that from the gallery of this chapel William the Conqueror and his family looked down on the service going on below.

William spent a good deal of his time in Normandy, and at last died there. His sons behaved very badly to him, and he was alone in his death as he was at his coronation, when all but a few priests rushed out to join in the tumult going on outside the Abbey.

Comprehension questions

1. What was the life of the English under the Norman rule? In which cases was the French language and in which the English was used?
2. Which buildings were constructed under the Conqueror?
3. Why was William’s end pitiable?

16. NORMAN AND SAXON (A. D. 1100)

(A poem by Rudyard Kipling)

"My son", said the Norman Baron,
"I am dying, and you will be heir"
To all the broad acres in England
that William gave me for my share
When we conquered the Saxon
at Hastings, and a nice little handful it is.
But before you go over to rule it,
I want you to understand this; —
"The Saxon is not like us Normans. 
His manners are not so polite,
But he never means anything serious 
till he talks about justice and right.
When he stands like an ox in the furrow
with his sullen set eyes on your own,
And grumbles, "This isn't fair dealing",
my son, leave the Saxon alone. 

You can horsewhip your Gascony archers,
or torture your Picardy spears;
But don't try that game on the Saxon;
you'll have the whole brood round your ears.
From the richest old Thane in the country
to the poorest chained serf in the field,
They'll be at you and on you like hornets,
and, if you are wise, you will yield.
But first you must master their language,
their dialect, proverbs and songs.
Don't trust any clerk to interpret
when they come with the tale of their wrongs.
Let them know that you know what they're saying;
let them feel that you know what to say.
Yes, even when you want to go hunting,
hear'em out if it takes you all day.
They'll drink every hour of the daylight
and poach every hour in the dark.
It's the sport not the rabbits they're after
(we've plenty of game in the park).
Don't hang them or cut off their fingers.
That's wasteful as well as unkind,
For a hard-bitten, South-country poacher
makes the best man-at-arms you can find.

Appear with your wife and the children
at their weddings and funerals and feasts.
Be polite but not friendly to Bishops;
be good to all poor parish priests.
Say "we", "us" and "ours" when you're talking,
instead of "you fellows" and "I".
Don't ride over seeds; keep your temper;
and never you tell 'em a lie!

Comprehension questions

1. What does the poem tell of the life and relations between the Norman barons and their Saxon subjects?
17. WILLIAM RUFUS

Now that the king in England was the feudal chief of his vassals and commanded the national resources, succession of the crown was a right of inheritance.

After William the Conqueror's death his second son William, called Rufus, or Red, because of the colour of his hair was an heir. When he became the English King he had immediately to face a rising of the Norman barons in favour of his elder brother Robert, who had succeeded to the duchy of Normandy; and William Rufus won a victory largely to the help he received from his English subjects.

William II appointed Anselm, Abbot of Bec, as Archbishop of Canterbury in 1093. But very soon the king began to quarrel with his archbishop, who was not prepared to allow any encroachments upon the dignity or power of the Church. When Anselm said that he wished to go to Rome to receive the archbishop's pall at the hands of Pope Urban, Rufus replied by refusing to acknowledge Urban as Pope at all, but when the king sent for the pall to bestow it upon the archbishop himself, Anselm refused to receive it. However, a compromise was arrived at, and Anselm settled down to his work.

Rufus was born some years before the conquest of England, but the exact date is unknown (about 1056). He seems to have been his father's favourite son, and people often saw him in his father's company. That's why he succeeded to the English Throne.

On the second of August, 1100, in the first year of the twelfth century, a certain man named Walter Tirel fled over the Channel from Southampton. He was in desperate anxiety for his ship to go quickly. He was a knight who had been hunting in the New Forest with William Rufus, and suddenly the king was shot by some arrow — perhaps, quite by accident. But the king was killed, and Walter Tirel was close to him at that moment, and he was so frightened that rushed away to Normandy.

But afterwards a certain Ralph of Aix was accused in that crime also, and Tirel, from a safe distance, solemnly protested his innocence. Even in our days you can see the stone set up in the beautiful forest, to mark the spot. But there was no mourning for the Red King; people were glad when he died.

Comprehension questions

1. What was the intrigue around William Rufus and Archbishop Anselm? Do you agree that it suggests the desire of the English Crown to be independent from the Roman Church?
2. What is known about Rufus’s death?
18. FINE SCHOLAR, OR THE LION OF JUSTICE

As we have already mentioned, William the Conqueror had four sons: Robert, duke of Normandy, Richard who was killed while he was hunting, his favourite William Rufus, and the youngest son was Henry (1068-1135). After William II’s death Robert of Normandy again claimed the English throne, but the youngest brother secured English support by publishing a charter (Charter of Liberties) promising better government, and so gained the crown.¹

Henry I in his youth had a nickname Beau Clerk, which means ‘a Good Scholar’, because he liked learning and wisdom. He often repeated that the unlettered king is only a crowned ass. We know almost nothing else about Henry's youth except that he was born on English soil and he was the favourite of his mother, the queen Matilda of Flanders, William the Conqueror's wife.

In his later years people called Henry I also the Lion of Justice, for when there was peace in England he would not suffer his barons to wax proud and to do as they willed, but, like his father William I, he held them in check with a strong hand. And Henry tried to help the common folk and made it easier for them to come before the king's justices and have right to them when the barons oppressed them. And though King Henry did so not so much because he cared for the common folk as because he wanted to keep the barons from growing too powerful, yet it was the common folk who were the gainers.

Henry I had pleased the English very much by marrying a princess who was the daughter of Queen Margaret of Scotland, belonging to the old royal family of Alfred and Edgar. The people felt now that they had some hope for better days. Queen Matilda, or Maud, (1080-1118) was a good woman, and she helped her husband in many ways.

Henry reorganised the Courts of Law. The duties of the king's officers and the king's council were rearranged and a new smaller body of advisers created, called the King's Court.

Comprehension questions

1. What kind of person was Henry I? What important achievements were there during his government?
2. Why were the English pleased with that king?

19. WHEN THE WHITE SHIP WENT DOWN

Henry I had the only son William. We do not know very much about him except that his father was very fond of him and that he disliked the people of Normandy, which his father had conquered. But there is one deed of his which we like to recall, because it shows he could think of another's safety before his own, and by it he lost his life at the age of eighteen.

Prince William's father was constantly in war with the King of France, who resented the presence of the English in Normandy, and especially of King Henry, who had unjustly taken it from his brother Robert and his son.

In 1120 Henry made peace with the King of France, and set sail from Barfleur, in Normandy, on his return to England. The wind was favourable, and the vessel was soon out of sight of land. Prince William and his courtiers were not ready to start with the king, and it was not until nightfall that they left the port, for the stupid courtiers gave wine to the sailors, and then the rowers were not in a fit condition to take the boat safely across the Channel. The boat was called the Blanche Nef, or the White Ship, and was commanded by the same man who had rowed the Prince's grandfather across to the conquest of England 54 years before.

¹ The document addressed abuses of royal power by his predecessor, his brother William Rufus, as perceived by the nobility, specifically the over-taxation of the barons, the abuse of vacant sees, and the practices of simony and pluralism. The charter of liberties was generally ignored by monarchs until in 1213.
Some of the sensible people refused to trust themselves to the incapable sailors, and those who remained in the boat soon repented doing so. There was no moon, and the man who was steering drove the vessel on to the dangerous rocks near Alderney. There were nearly 300 people on board, and they managed to lower a boat, and put Prince William with a few others into it. Then the Prince remembered his half-sister, and ordered the little boat to return to rescue her. But directly the small boat got alongside the ship, the frantic people jumped into it, and, of course, the boat was sunk.

It is said that only two men got away from the wreck. One was captain, who afterwards drowned himself, when he knew the Prince was lost; the other was the butcher of Rouen, who clung on to the mast, and was picked up by a fishing boat next day. He told the news of the wreck, and how Prince William lost his life, and how 140 young men of noble families had died.

Nobody dared to tell the king the fate of his only son, but at last the nobles sent a weeping page to him with the sad news. It is said that King Henry fainted and nobody ever saw him smile again.

Comprehension questions

1. What do we know about Prince William’s character?
2. Describe the Blanche Nef tragedy.

20. THE WHITE SHIP (after Charles Dickens)

When king Henry I made peace with the French powers, he went to Normandy with his son Prince William and a great retinue; he wanted the Norman nobles to acknowledge the Prince as his successor and to contract his own second marriage as his first wife Queen Maud by nickname the Good unhappily died. Henry wanted to marry the daughter of the Count of Anjou. Both these things were triumphantly done; and on the twenty-fifth of November 1120 the whole retinue prepared to embark at the Port of Barfleur, for the voyage home.

On that day, and at that place, there came to the King Fitz-Stephen, a sea-captain, and said:

"My liege, your father served your father all his life, upon the sea. He steered the ship with the golden boy upon the prow, in which your father sailed to conquer England. I beseech you to grant me the same office. I have a fair vessel called the White Ship. I pray you, Sire, to let your servant have the honour to steer you in the White Ship to England!"

"I am sorry, friend", replied the King, "that my vessel is already chosen, and that I cannot therefore sail with a man who served my father. But the Prince and all his company shall go with you in the fair White Ship".

An hour or two afterwards, the King set sail in the vessel, that he had chosen, accompanied by other vessels, and, sailing all night with a fair and gentle wind, arrived upon the coast of England in the morning. While it was yet night, the people of some of these ships heard a faint wild cry come over the sea, and wondered what it was.

Now, the Prince bore no love to the English, and had declared that when he came to the throne, he would yoke them to the plough like oxen. He went aboard the White Ship, with one hundred and thirty youthful nobles; among them were eighteen noble ladies. All that gay company, with their servants and fifty sailors, made three hundred souls aboard the fair White Ship.

The Prince commanded to make merry; and the sailors drank out three casks of wine; and the Prince and all the noble company danced in the moonlight on the deck of the White Ship.

When, at last, the vessel shot out of the harbour, there was not a sober seaman on board. But the sails were all set, and the oars all going merrily. The gay young nobles and the
beautiful ladies wrapped in mantles of bright colours to protect them from the cold, talked, laughed and sang.

Crash! A terrible cry broke from three hundred hearts. It was the cry of the people the distant vessel of the King heard faintly on the water. The White Ship had struck upon a rock!

Fitz-Stephen hurried the Prince into a boat with some Nobles.

"Push off", he whispered; and rowed to land. "It is not far, and the sea is smooth. The rest of us must die".

But, as they rowed away, the Prince heard the voice of his sister Marie, calling for help. He never in his life had been so good as he was then. He cried in an agony: "Row back at any risk! I cannot leave her!"

They rowed back. As the Prince held out his arms to catch his sister, so many people leaped in, that the boat was overset. And in the same instant the White Ship went down.

Only two men floated. They clung to the main yard of the ship, which had broken from the mast, and now supported them. By-and-by, another man came swimming; when he pushed his long wet hair aside, they knew it was Fitz-Stephen.

"Where is the Prince?" said he. "Gone! Gone!" — the two cried together. "Only we three have risen above the water!" The captain with a ghastly face, cried: "Woe! woe to me!", and sunk to the bottom.

The other two clung to the main yard for some hours. At last, one of them said faintly: "I am chilled with the cold, and can hold no longer. Farewell, good friend!" So, he dropped and sank; and the poor Butcher of Rouen alone was saved. In the morning, some fishermen saw him flowing in his sheep-skin coat, and got him into their boat — the only man who told this dismal tale.

For three days, no one dared to carry the news to the King. At last, they sent to him a little boy, who, weeping bitterly, and kneeling at his feet, told him that the White Ship was lost with all on board. The King fell to the ground like a dead man, and never, never afterwards, was seen to smile.

21. THE CIVIL WAR

After Prince William's death, having no more sons, Henry I proposed to the Barons to swear that they would recognize as his successor his daughter Matilda, whom he married to the eldest son of the Count of Anjou, Geoffry, surnamed Plantagenet, because he liked to wear a sprig of flowering broom (Gene in French) in his cap for a feather. The Barons took the oath about the succession of Matilda (and her children after her) twice — but they had no intention to keep it.

In 1135 Henry died of indigestion. His remains were brought over to Reading Abbey to be buried.

The King was no sooner dead than all the plans he had laboured at so long crumbled away like a hollow heap of sand. Stephen, whom Henry had never mistrusted or suspected, started up to claim the throne.

Stephen was the son of Adela, the Conqueror's daughter; her husband had been the Count of Blois. After Henry I's death Stephen hastily found a false witness, a servant of the late King, and the man swore that the King had named Stephen for his heir upon his death-bed.

Matilda and her husband were haughty and unpopular; a woman's rule was risky; so the Archbishop of Canterbury crowned Stephen on the false evidence of the servant.

Matilda and her husband immediately fled to Normandy. An old Chronicle of that time gives us an account of Matilda escaping from Oxford with her companions, over the Christmas snows, all dressed in white, so as not to be seen. Fighting went on, and the Barons began building castles again, and taking people's property from them and doing as they liked.
"The land bore no corn", wails the historian, "you might as well try to till the sea as the land for the wickedness that is done to it".

David, the King of Scotland, was Matilda's uncle, so he was glad of an excuse to make war on Stephen; and there was a famous battle fought in Yorkshire, called the Battle of the Standard, because the banners of three great churches of Yorkshire were taken into the fight (1138). King David was decisively defeated in that battle, but the victory was not of much use to Stephen, for the King of Scotland kept Cumberland and did not acknowledge Stephen as his lord.

After that Robert of Gloucester, Matilda's half-brother, fled to his sister and took her side.

Everything in England was thrown into confusion. When in the same year Matilda and Robert landed in England, civil war broke out. It was feudalism at its worst — absolute anarchy. At first Matilda was successful, capturing Stephen at Lincoln. She was proclaimed queen. But her haughty temper alienated the Londoners, and she had to retire to Oxford.

Fortune now favoured Stephen: he regained his liberty in exchange for Robert of Gloucester and hastened to besiege Matilda in Oxford. Matilda escaped, but the war went on till 1147, when Robert of Gloucester died. The peace that followed was not much better than the war, for barons were more powerful than the king himself and did everything they liked. It was almost a relief when Matilda's son, Henry of Anjou, invaded England in 1153. It was arranged that Henry should in due course succeed Stephen, whose son and heir had lately died.

Comprehension questions
1. Why did the Civil War in feudal England begin?
2. What troubles did it bring upon the country?

22. WHAT CHARLES DICKENS WROTE OF THIS CIVIL WAR

“Although King Stephen was, for the time in which he lived, a humane and moderate man, the people of England suffered more in these dread nineteen years, than at any former period even of their suffering history. In the division of the nobility between the two rival claimants of the Crown, and in the growth of what is called the Feudal system (which made the peasants the born vassals and slaves of the Barons), every Noble had his strong castle, where he was the cruel king of all the neighbouring people. He practiced every cruelty he wanted. And never were worse cruelties committed upon earth, than in wretched England in these nineteen years.

The writers, who were living then, describe them fearfully. They say that the castles were filled with devils rather than with men; that the peasants, men and women, were put into dungeons for their gold and silver, were tortured with fire and smoke, were hung up by the thumbs, were hung up by the heels with great weights to their heads, were torn with jagged irons, killed with hunger, broken to death in narrow chests filled with sharp-pointed stones. In England there was no corn, no meet, no cheese, no butter, there were no tilled lands, no harvest. Ashes of burnt towns, and dreary wastes, were all that the traveller, fearful of the robbers, could see in a long day's journey; and from sunrise until night he would not come upon a house.”

Comprehension questions
1. According to Dickens, what power did each feudal baron enjoy?
2. What cruelties against people were committed in those times?
HENRY II

When Stephen died, Matilda's son became the King Henry II. It was in 1154. Henry Plantagenet, as he was called, was just twenty-one, when he became the English King (he was born in 1133 and died in 1189), so he ruled for 35 years, and that was very long for that time.

Henry's wife, Eleanor, was a French princess, so, besides being King of England, he was lord of half France (don't forget that his father had been the Duke of Anjou, and that Henry was on his own right the Duke of Normandy!). And so his dominions stretched from the north of England to the Pyrenees, the great mountains, which separate France from Spain. Much as he had, he was always going to war and planning to get more; especially he wanted to be king over the whole of the British Isles.

Henry soon restored order in England, because he ordered to destroy castles. He prohibited the private wars which made the country weak; he revived the old laws and customs. He instituted trial by jury, at any rate in land disputes: twelve knights had to be sworn and to decide the dispute; he allowed paying some money instead of the military service.

In everything Henry II tried to follow the example of his grandfather, Henry I. He succeeded in making the Scotch King give him Northumberland, Cumberland and Westmorland, all south of the Cheviot Hills. He tried to get Wales and Ireland, but without much success. The only Englishman who was ever Pope of Rome lived at this time, and he made Henry II a present of Ireland, because it was said that all islands belonged to the Pope, and that he could do what he liked with them.

Naturally, the Irish did not agree to this. They preferred their own wild ways, with their chiefs who always fought and struggled together; and though Henry succeeded in establishing some order in the part of Ireland that was near to England, things were as bad again, and even worse, when he returned to London. A French King said about Henry, with amazement: "The King of Ireland is now in Ireland, now in England, now in Normandy. He may be rather said to fly than to go by horse or boat!"

Comprehension questions

1. How long did Henry II rule?
2. What territories was he King of? What was his chief desire concerning his realm?
3. What steps did he take to restore order?
4. How did he gain the territories in Scotland and Ireland?

(by Charles Dickens)

Once upon a time, a worthy merchant of London, named Gilbert a Becket, made a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, and was taken prisoner by a Saracen lord. This lord, who treated him kindly and not like a slave, had one beautiful daughter who fell in love with the merchant; the merchant returned her love; and she wanted to become a Christian and run away with him to a Christian country and there to marry him. The merchant once found an opportunity to escape, and he did not trouble himself about the Saracen girl, but escaped with his servant Richard, who had been taken prisoner along with him; and when they arrived in England, the merchant forgot her. The Saracen lady then left her father's house in disguise to follow the merchant; she made her way, under many hardships, to the sea-shore. The merchant had taught her only two English words of which LONDON was one, and his name, GILBERT, the other. She went among the ships, saying "London! London!" again and again; at last, the sailors understood that she wanted to find an English vessel that would carry her to London; so they showed her such a ship, she paid to the captain with her jewels and sailed away.

The merchant was sitting in his counting-house in London one day, when he heard a great noise in the street; and soon Richard came running in with his eyes wide open and his breath almost gone, saying: "Master, master, here is the Saracen lady!" The merchant thought Richard was mad, but Richard said: "No, master! As I live, the Saracen lady is going up and down the city, calling: "Gilbert! Gilbert!" Then, he took the merchant by the sleeve, and pointed at the window; and there they saw her among the gables and water-spouts of the dark dirty street, in her foreign dress, so forlorn, surrounded by a wondering crowd, and passing slowly along, calling: "Gilbert! Gilbert!" When the merchant saw her, and thought of the tenderness she had shown him in his captivity, and of her constancy, his heart was moved, and he ran down into the street; and she saw him coming, and with a great cry fainted in his arms.

They were married without loss of time, and Richard (who was an excellent man) danced with joy the whole day of the wedding; and they all lived happily afterwards.

This merchant and this Saracen lady had one son, Thomas a Becket. He it was who became the favourite of King Henry the Second.

Comprehension questions

1. What does the legend say about Thomas a Becket’s origin?

25. HOW THOMAS A BECKET WAS KILLED

In Henry II’s work of administration he was splendidly supported by Thomas a Becket who became his Chancellor. Becket had received his training in business and diplomacy in the household of Theobald, archbishop of Canterbury. Recommended by his patron to the king, he had shown the greatest zeal in the royal service, and had fully deserved the high office he received. Henry required a man who would share his own ideas of good government to do in the Church the same as he himself was carrying out in the State. No one seemed better qualified than Becket, and, apparently against his own will and better judgement, he was made Archbishop of Canterbury (1162).

Becket was clever, gay, well educated, brave; had fought in several battles in France; had defeated a French knight in single combat, and brought his enemy's horse away as a token of his victory. He lived in a noble palace, he was the tutor of the young Prince Henry, his riches were immense. The King once sent him as his ambassador to France; and the French people,
seeing him, cried out in the streets: "How splendid must the King of England be, when this is only the Chancellor!"

Charles Dickens tells us the following story about the King and Thomas a Becket. The King sometimes jested with his Chancellor about his splendour. Once, when they were riding together through the streets of London in hard winter weather, they saw a shivering old man in rags. "Look at the poor thing!" said the King. "Would it not be a charitable act to give that aged man a comfortable warm cloak?" "You do well, Sir", answered Becket, "to think of such Christian duties". "Come!" cried the King, "then give him your cloak!" It was made of rich crimson trimmed with ermine. The King tried to pull it off, the Chancellor tried to keep it on, both were near rolling from their saddles in the mud, when the Chancellor submitted, and the King gave the cloak to the old beggar: much to the beggar's astonishment and much to the merriment of all the courtiers. For courtiers are not very eager to laugh when the King laughs, but they really do enjoy a laugh against a Favourite.

But when he was made the Archbishop, Becket, quite of a sudden, completely altered the whole manner of his life. He turned off all his brilliant companions, ate coarse food, drank bitter water, lived chiefly in a little cell, washed the feet of the thirteen poor people every day, and looked as miserable as he could. And the people began to talk about him even more than in the days when he was a Chancellor.

The King was very angry; and then the new Archbishop began to claim estates from the noble people as being Church property. Then he declared that no power but himself should appoint a priest to any church in England.

Now, at that time the Church claimed powers almost as strong as the State itself; she had her own laws and her own courts. To a strong King like Henry II, this division of authority seemed intolerable.

The quarrel went on. The Archbishop tried to see the King. The King would not see him. The Archbishop tried to escape England. The sailors on the coast refused to take him away.
Then Becket resolved to do his worst in opposition to the King, and began openly to set the ancient customs at defiance.

The struggle went on and on. At last Becket secretly departed from the town; and, travelling by night and hiding by day, he got away to Flanders.

Becket remained on the Continent for six years, sometimes busy with appeals to the Pope and sometimes with intrigues against Henry.

At last the news came to Becket that Henry II had had his eldest son Henry secretly crowned by the Archbishop of York. So he sent a messenger to England who brought Becket's letter in which he excommunicated the Archbishop of York and several bishops who assisted at the ceremony. In 1170 Thomas a Becket returned to England, and the common people were glad to meet him. Becket tried to see the young prince, who had once been his pupil, but the King prevented him from doing it. On Christmas Day Becket preached in the Cathedral of Canterbury and told the people that he had come to die among them; and that it was likely he would be murdered. And then he excommunicated three knights, his enemies.

The King fell into a mighty rage; and, when the Archbishop of York told him that he never would hope for rest while Thomas a Becket lived, Henry cried out hastily before his court: "Have I no one here who will deliver me from this man?" There were four knights present, who, hearing the King's words, looked at one another, and went out.

They rode away on horseback, in a very secret manner, and on the third day after Christmas arrived at Canterbury. At two o'clock in the afternoon they appeared before Archbishop accompanied by twelve men. They neither bowed nor spoke, but sat down on the floor in silence, staring at the Archbishop.

Thomas a Becket said at last: "What do you want?"

They answered that they wanted the excommunication taken from the Bishops. Thomas a Becket refused. Then the knights went out with their twelve men, and put on their armour, and drew their shining swords, and came back.

The attendants of Thomas a Becket implored him to take refuge in the Cathedral: they thought the knights would dare to do no violent deed. He went to the Cathedral with no hurry, and having the Cross carried before him as usual. When he was safely there, his servants would fasten the door, but he said "No!" — it was the house of God and not a fortress.

The knights came in, through the darkness, making a terrible noise with their armed tread upon the stone pavement of the church. One of the knights struck at his head, but, with his blood running down his face, and his hands clasped, and his head bent, he stood firm. Then they cruelly killed him close to the altar; and the body fell upon the pavement, which was dirtied with his blood and brains.

The four guilty knights rode away on horseback, looking over their shoulders at the dim Cathedral, not knowing that they rendered the King the worst possible service and made Becket a martyr in the Church's cause.

Comprehension questions

1. Speak about the youth of Thomas Becket and Henry Anjou. Which facts prove that they were good friends?
2. How did Becket change when he was made the Archbishop?
3. What caused Henry II’s anger? What events happened during the years of the two prominent people’s animosity?
4. How was Becket killed and how was he venerated afterwards?
26. FOUR SONS AGAINST THEIR FATHER

Henry II had four sons: the eldest, Henry, his appointed heir, Richard, Geoffrey and John, his father's favourite. After Thomas a Becket's death King Henry had much trouble, fighting with France and Scotland; and his own sons began to rebel against their father. Queen Eleanor, the King's wife, supported them.

King Henry decided that he had all that misfortunes because of his guilt in Becket's death. He went straight to Canterbury; and there he dismounted from his horse, took off his shoes, and walked with bare and bleeding feet to a Becket's grave. There he lay down on the ground, lamenting in the presence of many people; then he went into the Chapter House, and, removing his clothes from his back and shoulders, made eighty Priests beat him with knotted cords, one after another. It happened so that on that very day a complete victory was obtained over the Scots.

After that Henry II very quickly went to Rouen and submitted his rebellious sons Henry and Geoffrey. Richard resisted for six weeks; but, being beaten out of castle after castle, he at last submitted too, and his father forgave him.

The forgiveness only gave the ungrateful princes time and possibility to gather new forces and to rebel again. Sometimes the brothers fought with one another, sometimes they united with one another to have a victory over the others.

At last Prince Henry died in 1183, at the age of twenty-seven years old, during his war against his brother Richard and their father the King. There was a short interval of peace, but in 1184 Geoffrey and John combined with their father's leave to make war upon Richard, now the heir of the English Crown. In 1186 Geoffrey died, and there were only two of them left. Prince John had solemnly sworn to be faithful to his father.

Sick at heart, wearied out by the falsehood of his sons, and almost ready to lie down and die, the unhappy King, who had so long stood firm, began to fail.

King Henry was sick in bed, when they brought him the list of the deserters from their allegiance, whom he was required to pardon. And he saw that Fate has prepared him one more heavy sorrow. The first name upon this list was John, his favourite son, in whom he had trusted to the last.

"O John! Child of my heart!" exclaimed the King. "O John, whom I have loved the best! Have you betrayed me too!" And then he lay down with a heavy groan and said; "Now let the world go as it will. I care for nothing more!"

The King told his attendants to take him to the French town of Chinon — a town he was fond of for many years. He wildly cursed the hour when he was born, and cursed the children whom he left behind him.

Comprehension questions

1. What penance did Henry II do for the murder of Thomas Becket?
2. Describe the strife of his sons and Eleanor against Henry.
3. What events resulted in Henry’s undoing?

27. KING HENRY'S DEATH

(After Charles Dickens)

As, one hundred years before, everybody left the Conqueror in the hour of his death, so now the attendants left his descendant.

Richard was said in after years, by way of flattery, to have the heart of a Lion. It would have been far better, I think, to have had the heart of a Man. His heart, whatever it was, had cause to beat remorsefully within his breast, as he came — as he did — into the solemn
abbey, and looked on his dead father's uncovered face. His heart, whatever it was, had been a black heart.

There is a pretty story told of this reign, called the story of fair Rosamond. It relates how the King loved the Fair Rosamond, who was the loveliest girl in all the world; and how he had a beautiful bower built for her in the Park at Woodstock; and how it was in a labyrinth, and you could find it only by a clue of silk. How the bad Queen Eleanor, becoming jealous of Fair Rosamond, found out the secret of the clue, and one day, appeared before her, with a dagger and cup of poison, and proposed her to choose between those deaths. How Fair Rosamond, after shedding many piteous tears and offering many useless prayers to the cruel Queen, took the poison, and fell dead in the midst of the beautiful bower, while the birds sang gaily all around her.

Now, there was a fair Rosamond, and she was the loveliest girl in all the world, and the King was certainly very fond of her, and the bad Queen Eleanor was certainly made jealous. But I am afraid — I say afraid, because I like the story so much — that there was no bower, no labyrinth, no silken clue, no dagger, no poison. I am afraid fair Rosamond retired to a nunnery near Oxford, and died there, peaceably.

Comprehension questions

1. How did Henry II die?
2. What does the legend of Fair Rosamond say?

**EXTRACTS FROM THE BALLAD “FAIR ROSAMOND”**

*by Thomas Delone, 1612*

When as King Henry ruled this land,
The second of that name,
Besides the Queen, he dearly loved
A fair and comely dame.
Fair Rosamond, fair Rosamond,
Her name was called so,
To whom our Queen, dame Ellinor,
Was known a deadly foe.
The king therefore, for her defence
Against the furious Queen,
At Woodstock built such a bower,
The like was never seen.
And when his grace had passed the seas
And into France was gone;
With envious heart, queen Ellinor,
To Woodstock came alone.
"Take pity on my youthful years",
Fair Rosamond did cry,
And let me not with poison strong
Enforced be to die"
But nothing could this furious queen
Therewith appeased be;
The cup of deadly poison strong,
As she knelt on her knee,
She gave the comely dame to drink,
Who took it in her hand,
And from her bended knee arose,
And on her feet did stand:
And casting up her eyes to heaven,
She did for mercy call;
And drinking up the poison strong,
Her life she lost withall.
Her body then they did entomb,
When life was fled away,
At Godstow, near the Oxford town,
As may be seen this day.

28. RICHARD THE CRUSADER

In 1189, after Henry's death, Richard became the King of England. There is a statue of him set up in front of the House of Lord at Westminster. It is a fine figure on the great strong horse, clothed in armour, made of little rings of metal, and holding aloft the long spear he used against enemies far away from England. During the ten years of his reign he was nearly always away, and his wife was the only queen of England who never entered the country.

A pitiable event occurred on the day of Richard's Coronation — the flagellation of Jews. When he was crowned, Richard barred all Jews and women from the ceremony, but some Jewish leaders arrived to present gifts for the new king. Richard's courtiers stripped and flogged the Jews, then flung them out of court. When a rumour spread that Richard had ordered all Jews to be killed, the people of London began a massacre. Many Jews were beaten to death, robbed, and burned alive. Many Jewish homes were burned down, and several Jews were forcibly baptised. Some sought sanctuary in the Tower of London, and others managed to escape. Realising that the assaults could destabilise his realm on the eve of his departure on crusade, Richard ordered the execution of those responsible for the most egregious murders and persecutions, including rioters who had accidentally burned down Christian homes. He distributed a royal writ demanding that the Jews be left alone. The edict was loosely enforced, however, and the following March there was further violence including a massacre at York. It is about these times that the Scottish writer Walter Scott wrote in his famous novel Ivanhoe.
Of all things in the world Richard liked fighting and adventure best, and in his time the most exciting adventures were to be had during the Crusades to the Holy Land, at the eastern part of the Mediterranean Sea. King Richard, who was a strong restless man, was mightily impassioned to go on a Crusade to the Holy Land, leading a great army. As great armies could not be raised to go, even to the Holy Land, without a great deal of money, he sold the Crown Domains, and even the high offices of State; recklessly appointing noblemen to rule over his subjects, not because they were fit to govern, but because they could pay high for the privilege. Money was squeezed out of everybody — barons, people and even the clergy — to pay for Richard's "holy" wars, and to get him out of prison, when afterwards Richard fell into the hands of enemies.

Richard then appointed two Bishops to take care of his kingdom during his absence, and gave great powers and possessions to his brother John, to secure his friendship. John was a sly man, no doubt, he said to himself: "The more fighting, the more chance for my brother to be killed; and when he is killed, then I become King John!"

King Richard and his troops went to Messina, in Sicily, which was appointed as a place of Richard's meeting with his old friend, French King Philip. King Richard's sister had married the king of this place, but he was dead now, and his uncle Tancred had usurped the throne, cast the Royal Widow into the prison, and took possession of her estates. Richard fiercely demanded his sister's release, the restoration of her lands; as he was very powerful, Tancred yielded to his demands.

But Richard then had a quarrel with Philip — he had promised to marry Philip's sister, and now he did not want to fulfil his promise: he had fallen in love with a beautiful lady, Berengaria of Navarre. The peace was made when Richard satisfied Philip's injured pride by paying him a large sum of money. In the spring of 1189 (the beginning of the third Crusade) Philip set out for Acre, which was strongly held by the Turks, but Richard stayed to keep Cyprus, whose emperor had captured part of his shipwrecked fleet, before rejoining him.

The Crusades against Muslims are a series of religious expeditorial wars blessed by the Pope and the Catholic Church, with the stated goal of restoring Christian access to the holy places in and near Jerusalem. The most famous of them occurred between 1095 and 1291. The immediate cause of the First Crusade was the Byzantine emperor Alexius I Comnenus's appeal to Pope Urban II for mercenaries to help him resist Muslim advances into territory of the Byzantian Empire. In 1095 Pope Urban II raised both religious and secular motives for the Crusade, talking of the feudal love of tournaments and warfare. He urged the barons to give up their fratricidal and unrighteous wars in the West for the holy war in the East. He also suggested material rewards, regarding feudal fiefdoms, land ownership, wealth, power, and prestige, all at the expense of the Arabs and Turks. He said they could be defeated very easily by the Christian forces. When he finished, his listeners shouted "Deus volt" (God wills it). This became the battle cry of the crusaders. Urban put the bishop of Le Puy in charge of encouraging prelates and priests to join the cause. Word spread rapidly that war against unbelief would be fused with the practice of pilgrimage to holy sites, and the pilgrims' reward would be great on earth, as in heaven. Immediately thousands pledged themselves to go on the first crusade. Pope Urban's speech ranks as one of the most influential speeches ever made: it launched the holy wars which occupied the minds and forces of western Europe for two hundred years. The First Crusade is described by some scholars as a barbarian invasion by the western European mercenaries of the Byzantine empire and ultimately brought about the ruin of Byzantine civilization. In Henry II's lifetime, in 1187, there was the news in Europe that the Turks had captured Jerusalem. The general excitement and indignation induced the English King Henry and French King Philip to take the Crusaders' vows and promise to go to the rescue of the Christians in Palestine and to defend the God's tomb. There were widespread allegations that the Christians who went to pray at the spots that were so sacred to them were treated poorly. So the Christians of France, England and other European countries determined to get up expeditions and to do their best to get the Holy Land away from the Muslims.
The Christians had been besieging Acre for four years. Saladin, the leader of infidels, thought the town so important that he had brought a great army to besiege the besiegers, who now included the Dukes of Austria and Burgundy as well as the kings of England and France. At the height of the summer, 1191, Acre surrendered, and Philip of France, on the plea of ill health, returned home.

Victorious at Acre, the Christians were much weakened by their own dissensions. Wherever the united army of Crusaders went, they agreed in few points except in gaming, drinking, and quarrelling in a most unholy manner; in indulging in debauches amidst the people, among whom they tarried, whether they were friends or foes; and carrying disturbance and ruin in quiet places.

The army at last came within sight of the Holy City of Jerusalem, but, being then a mere nest of jealousy, and quarrelling, and fighting, soon retired and agreed with the Saracens upon a truce for three years, three months, three days and three hours. Then the English Christians, protected by the noble Saladin from Saracen revenge, visited Our Saviour’s tomb; and then King Richard embarked with a small force at Acre to return home, as he had been disquieted by the news from England, where John had stirred up a rising of the barons against the government.

But he was shipwrecked in the Adriatic Sea, and had to pass through Germany, because the French King now became his bitterest enemy and France was quite impossible as the way home. Richard also had quarrelled with Leopold of Austria and with Henry VI of Germany, so both those ways were as dangerous, but the quicker one lay through Germany, and Richard determined to make the attempt in disguise. In doing so, he fell into the hands of both his enemies. Leopold of Austria handed him over to Henry VI, now emperor.

Richard was put into prison. The King of France pretended that the English King had designed to poison him in the East, and charged Richard with some other crimes. So Richard was brought before the German Court. But he defended himself so well that many of the assembly were moved to tears by his eloquence. It was decided that he should be treated during the rest of his captivity in a manner more becoming his dignity than he had been and that he should be set free on a very high payment.

2 Saladin, the Western name for the ruler Salah al-Din ibn Ayyub, was the great Muslim general who confronted the Crusaders in the Near East.
At last his mother, Queen Eleanor, took the ransom to Germany, and Richard was released. The King of France at once wrote to John: "Take care of thyself. The devil is unchained!"

Prince John had reason to fear his brother, for he had been a traitor to him during his captivity. He had secretly joined the French King, had vowed to the English people that his brother was dead, and had tried to seize the crown.

Prince John hastened to King Richard, fell on his knees before him and asked for pardon. "I forgive him", said the King, "and I hope I may forget the injury he has done me, as easily as I know he will forget my pardon".

As soon as King Richard was welcomed home by his enthusiastic subjects with great splendour, as soon as he had been crowned once more at Winchester, he resolved to show the French King that the devil was unchained indeed, and made war against him in great fury.

The French war was in progress when a certain Lord named Vidomar, Viscount of Limoges, chanced to find in his ground a treasure of ancient coins. As the King's vassal, he sent the King half of it; but the King claimed the whole. The King besieged the lord in his castle, swore that he would take the castle by storm and hang every man of its defenders on the battlements.

There was an old song in that part of the country, saying that an arrow, by which King Richard would die, would be made in Limoges. It may be that Bertrand de Gourdon, one of the young defenders of the castle, had often sung it or heard it sung and remembered the words, when he saw from his post upon the ramparts the King, attended only by his chief officer, riding below the walls. He drew an arrow, took steady aim and struck the King in the left shoulder.

Although the wound was not at first considered dangerous, it made the King retire to his tent. The castle was taken, its defenders were hanged — except Bertrand de Gourdon.

The wound became mortal because of the bad treatment; the King knew he was dying. He ordered to bring Bertrand to his tent. The young man was brought there, heavily chained. King Richard looked at him steadily. He looked as steadily at the King.

"Knave", said King Richard. "What have I done to thee that thou should take my life?"
"Thou with thine own hands hast killed my father and my two brothers. And you will certainly hang me. Let me die now, by any torture. Thou too must die; the world is free of thee, and I helped that!"

Again the King looked at the man steadily, again the young man looked steadily at him. Perhaps, some remembrance of his generous enemy Saladin, who was not a Christian, came into the mind of the dying King.

"Youth!" he said, "I forgive thee. Go unhurt!"

Then, turning to his chief officer, King Richard said: "Take off his chains, give him a hundred shillings, and let him depart".

He sank down on his bed and died. His age was forty-two, he had reigned ten years. His last command was not obeyed, for the chief officer hanged Bertrand de Gourdon.

There is an old tune yet known, by which this King is said to have been discovered in his captivity. Blondel, a favourite minstrel of King Richard, as the story relates, seeking his Royal master, went singing it outside the gloomy walls of many foreign fortresses and prisons; until at last he heard it echoed from within a dungeon, and knew the voice, and cried out: "O, Richard, o my King!" You may believe it, if you like. Richard was himself a Minstrel and a Poet. If he had not been a Prince too, he might have been a better man, perhaps, and might have gone out of the world with less bloodshed.

Comprehension questions
1. What happened during and after Richard’s coronation?
2. What were the Crusades?
3. What kind of man was Richard I?
4. Describe the siege of Acre and the truce with Saladin.
5. How did Richard get imprisoned?
6. What unpleasantries awaited him in England?
7. How did Richard’s life finish?

29. KING JOHN, CALLED LACKLAND

There is an old English popular ballad everybody knows not only in England, but also in Russia, because the great poet-translator S. Marshak translated it into Russian with true skill. It begins with the following lines:

"I'll tell you a story, a story anon,
Of a noble Prince, and his name was King John,
For he was a prince, and a prince of great might,
He held up great wrongs, he put down great right".³

Yes, the hero of this ballad is the very Prince John (1167-1216), Henry II and Queen Eleanor's youngest son, King Richard Lionheart's brother, who brought such a bitter distress to his father at the deathbed of Henry II, when the King knew that the favourite son was the first in the list of those who fought against him. The very Prince John who deceived the whole English people and his brother Richard, when the latter was absent from the country.

In his early age John was given the nickname of Lackland, because, being the youngest in the family, he indeed had no lands of his own, unlike his elder brothers. But Henry II was very anxious about John's future, and John was endowed with castles and lands on both sides of the Channel, the vacant earldom of Cornwall was reserved for him (1175); and he got the lordship of Ireland (1176). In 1185 John was sent to govern Ireland, but in a few months he returned, covered with disgrace, because he offended the loyal chiefs by his childish insolence, and entirely failed to defend the people from the hostile Irish.

We have already told about his next deeds from the story of Richard, let us not repeat it.

John became the English King in 1199, at the age of thirty-three years. His little nephew Arthur also had the claim to the throne; but John made fine promises to the nobility, and got himself crowned at Westminster within a few weeks after his brother Richard's death. Charles Dickens writes: "I doubt whether the crown could possibly have been put upon a meaner coward, or a more detestable villain, if England have been searched from end to end to find him out".

Indeed, it is difficult to say anything good of him. He seems to have been cruel to everybody, and to have had no friends. When the barons would no longer serve him, John wrung money out of his subjects, and hired foreign soldiers to fight for him in Scotland, Wales and Ireland. He had not been king for a very long time, when he lost not only Normandy, so that the English kings were no longer Dukes of Normandy, but the other parts of France that had belonged to his mother Eleanor.

As to the boy Arthur, his sister's son, claiming for the English throne, John with the help of his men seized him in his bed and sent to the castle of Falaise in Normandy. Then the King

³ Послушайте повесть
Минувших времен
О доблестном принце
По имени Джон.
Судил он и правил
С дубового трона,
Не ведая правил,
Не зная закона.
took secret counsel with the worst of his nobles how to get rid of Prince Arthur. Some said: "Put out his eyes and keep him in prison". Others said: "Have him stabbed". Others: "Have him hanged". Others: "Have him poisoned".

King John sent certain ruffians to Falaise to blind the boy with red-hot irons. But Arthur shed such piteous tears that the warden of the castle could not bear it and, at his own risk, he sent the savages away.

But one dark night, when Arthur lay sleeping, his jailer aroused him and told him to come down the staircase to the foot of the tower. The boy hurriedly dressed himself and obeyed. When they came to the bottom of the winding stairs, and the night air from the river blew upon their faces, the jailer trod upon his torch and put it out. In the darkness Arthur was hurriedly brought down into a boat, where he found his uncle and one other man.

The boy knelt to them, and prayed them not to kill him. But they stabbed him and sunk his body in the river with heavy stones. When the spring morning broke, the tower door was closed, the boat was gone, the river sparkled on its way, and never more was any trace of the poor boy seen by mortal's eyes.

The news of this atrocious murder spread throughout England and awakened the real hatred for the King.

The French King Philip ordered John (as the holder of the territory in France John was Philip's vassal) to come before him and defend. King John refused; King Philip declared him false, perjured and guilty, and made war. Very soon King Philip deprived him of one-third of his dominions. And, when the fighting took place, King John was always found either to be eating and drinking or to be running away.

In 1205 Archbishop of Canterbury Hubert died. The Pope claimed, as Popes did then, to have the right of ruling the churches of all the Christian countries, and he chose the next Archbishop of Canterbury, but John refused to accept his choice. So the Pope sent an order that, till the king gave way, all churches in England were to be closed; no bells were to be rung, calling the people to service; no one was to be baptized, married and even buried by the clergy. This made everyone suffer, especially the poor, for they were used to getting help from the monasteries and clergy. This order from the Pope was called an interdict, or forbidding. But John only got more and more angry and violent.
At last, weary of negotiation with the obstinate King, Pope Innocent, himself really the most powerful Prince in Europe, declared John imposed, and ordered the King of France to invade England. Then John hastened to submit to the Pope (1213). As a result, England itself was surrendered to Innocent.

During John's reign the nobles had to suffer from all kinds of feudal laws. At last, they demanded a confirmation of the charter of Henry I. In the British Museum hangs a copy of the Great Charter, often called by its Latin name, Magna Carta. It was forced from John, with great courage and difficulty, by the barons. In it he had promised certain rights to the people, so that they might live in safety under good government. This Great Charter was drawn out from the Charter, which Henry II gave to the people, when he became king, which, again, was established upon the laws of Edward the Confessor and Alfred.

Among the laws were these:

1. The King was not to make the people pay taxes without the consent of the Great Council.
2. No one was to be punished for any wrong-doing without a proper trial according to the law of the land.

The charter went beyond simply addressing specific baronial complaints, and formed a wider proposal for political reform, albeit one focusing on the rights of free men, not serfs and unfree labour. It promised the protection of church rights, protection from illegal imprisonment, access to swift justice, new taxation only with baronial consent and limitations on scutage and other feudal payments. A council of twenty-five neutral barons would be created to monitor and ensure John's future adherence to the charter, whilst the rebel army would stand down and London would be surrendered to the king.

There is a little island on the Thames, near Windsor, called Magna Carta Island, and on it John met the barons to put the seal on a lump of wax to show that he signed and consented to keep the promises set out in the Charter.

He was in a furious state of anger all the time. It is said that as soon as the deed was done "he threw himself on the ground, gnashing his teeth and gnawing sticks and straws in his rage".

The Pope soothed him and said he need not keep his word, and crowds of foreign soldiers came to help John to burn and rob and kill all over the country. It was a troublesome time.
As it was now impossible to bear with the country like a wilderness of cruelty, or to hold any terms with such an outlaw of a King any longer, the barons sent to Louis, son of the French monarch, to offer him the English crown. Louis immediately landed at Sandwich and went on to London — King John hastily ran away from Dover, where he happened to be.

In his savage and murderous course, John had now taken some towns and met with some successes. But, "happily for England and humanity, his death was near", as Ch. Dickens says.

John had to cross the Wash, the broad inlet between Lincolnshire and Norfolk. When the tide is out, there are miles of sands, and the long train of carts and wagons, which were carrying the king's treasures, were lost in soft quicksands as the tide came flowing in. Quite lately a handsome cup was washed up near the shore of the Wash, and it is believed to be part of this lost treasure of King John.

Cursing and swearing, John went on to the Swinestead Abbey, when the monks set before him a great deal of pears, and peaches, and new cider — some say poison, too, but there is very little reason to suppose so. All night John lay ill with a burning fever, haunted with horrible fears. Then they carried him to the castle of Newark upon Trent; and there, on the 18th of October, he died at the age of forty-nine, the seventeenth year of his vile reign.

Comprehension questions

1. Why was John called ‘lackland’?
2. What events surrounded the killing of Arthur, John’s nephew?
3. What did Phillip of France do following the killing?
4. Why did ‘England itself surrender to Pope Innocent’?
5. Describe how Magna Carter came into being and what it said.
6. What was the dismal end of King John?

30. HENRY III

At the time of his father's death his eldest son Henry (1207-1272) was but nine years old. The boy was taken by the earl of Pembroke, the Marshal of England, to the city of Gloucester, and then crowned in great haste, when he was ten years old. All that was done, because the Barons remembered the murdered Arthur's sister Eleanor, shut up in her convent in Bristol, and the Barons did not want to maintain her right to the crown. As the Crown itself had been lost with the King's treasure in the raging water, and, as there was no time to make another, they put a circle of plain gold upon the boy's head instead.

A great council met at Bristol, revised Magna Carta, and made Lord Pembroke Regent or Protector of England, as the King was too young.

Lord Pembroke afterwards applied himself to governing the country justly and to healing the quarrels and disturbances that had arisen among men in the days of King John. He improved Magna Carta, and he changed the Forest Laws, so that a peasant was no longer put to death for killing a deer in a Royal Forest, but was only imprisoned.

The King, as he grew up, showed a strong resemblance to his father, in feebleness, inconsistency, and irresolution. The best in him was that he was not cruel.

But Lord Pembroke died in three years of his protectorship, and others replaced him, and this period is known in the English history as the time of great disorder. Henry III was for a long time only a puppet in somebody's hands.

But the English people in those years became more reasonable and strong. When Henry III wanted money for his wars, his buildings (he especially liked to build and rebuild churches and Abbeys), or for his foreign favourites, the people refused to give it to him, unless he promised to keep to the Great Charter and rule by the law of the land. In the great fight
between Henry III and the people about this the name of a great patriot stands out — Simon de Montfort.

"I fear thunder and lightning not a little, Sir Simon", said Henry to him one day, when they were caught in a bad storm, "but I fear you more than all the thunder and lightning in the world".

Henry often made promises over and over again, only to break them. One day, for instance, a great procession of bishops and clergy, with splendid silk robes, carrying lighted candles in their hands, arrived at the Great Hall at Westminster, where Henry awaited them. Then, standing round the King, they spoke strong and terrible words as to what would happen to the king who took away any of the freedom of the land. As their voices died away — and you easily can almost feel the hush after the loud, passionate talking — they flung down the lighted candles, saying:

"May all those who take away our rights perish, as these lights perish!"

The king made solemn promises as the candles were relit, and the bells rang out joyfully to tell the news to the people outside.

But the promises were broken, as usual, and the country had to fight again, and Henry was forced to draw up new laws. The new laws were written in English for the first time since the Norman Conquest. The famous Proclamation of Henry III to his people, written in Middle English on October 18th, 1258, was an important step forward towards English autonomy from France. However, the king broke his word again, and more fighting went on, till at last Simon succeeded in forming a "talking place", called a Parliament, after the French word "parler", meaning to talk.

Actually, England has long had a tradition of a body of men who would assist and advise the King on important matters. Under the Anglo-Saxon Kings, there was an advisory council, the Witenagemot ("meeting of wise men"). As part of the Norman Conquest of England, William I, did away with the Witenagemot, replacing it with a Curia Regis ("King's Council"). Membership of the Curia was largely restricted to the tenants in chief, the few nobles who "rented" great estates directly from the King, along with certain senior ecclesiastics. So Simon may be said to restore the old tradition. But most historians date the emergence of a parliament with some degree of power to which the throne had to defer no later than the rule of Edward I.

The Parliament was a more democratic institution than the old Assembly of the Wisemen had been, though it was, and largely still is in today’s England, a body acting in counsel with what is called today Her Majesty's Most Honourable Privy Council, or simply the Privy Council for short, a committee of the monarch's closest advisors to give confidential advice on affairs of state. This feudal hangover, as well as many other anachronisms, is still preserved in Britain.

In Parliament not only barons and bishops could discuss what was best for the country, but knights from every shire had the right to come and talk; also burgess from the towns had a voice to say what their part of the country wanted done, and how they wished the money to be spent, which they paid in taxes (1254).

Unfortunately Simon's Parliament had little time to show its merits, for almost immediately the barons began to quarrel between themselves; especially the proud Earl of Gloucester with the Earl of Leicester, who went abroad in disgust. Then the people began to be dissatisfied with the barons, because they did not do enough for them. The eldest king's son Prince Edward joined Gloucester against Sir Simon Leicester. At the battle of Evesham Simon was defeated and killed, though he fought bravely. His body was brutalized, cut up and different parts sent to the Lords who had accomplished the most. But the people kept him in their memory. Many years afterwards, they loved him more than ever, and regarded him as a saint, and always spoke of him as "Sir Simon the Righteous".
And even though Simon was dead, the cause for which he fought still lived, and was strong, and forced itself upon the King in the very hour of victory. Henry found himself obliged to respect the Great Charter, however much he hated it, and to make laws similar to the laws of the Great Earl of Leicester, and to be moderate and forgiving at last — even to the Londoners, who had so long opposed him.

The battle at Evesham, where Sir Simon was killed, took place in 1265, and then Prince Edward worked hard to establish peace throughout England.

Comprehension questions

1. How is Henry III generally reputed?
2. What is Lord Pembroke remarkable for?
3. Why was Henry III considered unreliable?
4. What is Simon de Montfort famous for?
5. What kind of legislature is a parliament? What bodies in England preceded it? What was, and still is, the interaction between the Parliament and the Privy Council? Why was the Parliament more democratic than the previous councils?

31. EDWARD I, CALLED LONGSHANKS

In the latter part of the 13th c. and the early part of the 14th c. England, ruled by Edward I, pursued the policy of expansion by subjugating some other countries of the British Isles.

Edward I (1259-1307) was baptized so after Edward the Confessor, for whom Henry III had special veneration, and among the Prince's godfathers was that very Simon Montfort, against whom Edward afterwards fought so fiercely.

As everything was peaceful in England, and the country needed money, Prince Edward took the cross and joined one of the last crusades in 1268.

At first he knew nothing about his father's death in 1272. The Barons, however, proclaimed him King immediately after the Royal funeral; and the people very willingly consented, since most men knew too well by this time what the horrors of a contest of the crown were. So, Charles Dickens tells us, King Edward the First, called, in a not very complimentary way, Longshanks, because of the slenderness of his legs, was peacefully accepted by the English nation.
His legs had need to be strong, comments Dickens, however long and thin they were: for they had to support him through many difficulties on the fiery sands of Asia, where his small forces of soldiers fainted, died, deserted and seemed to melt away. But he had a great spirit and gave the Turks a deal of trouble.

At last, one day, when it was very hot, and all the sandy prospect lay beneath the blazing sun, burnt up like a great overdone biscuit, and Edward was lying on a couch, dressed for coolness only in a loose robe, the messenger with the chocolate-coloured face and his bright dark eyes and white teeth, came creeping in with a letter, and knelt down like a tamed tiger. But the moment Edward stretched out his hand to take the letter, the tiger made a spring. He was quick, but Edward was quick too. He seized the traitor by his throat, threw him to the ground, and slew him with the very dagger he had drawn. The traitor, though, had time to strike Edward with the weapon in the arm: the wound itself was only slight, but it threatened to be mortal, for the blade of the dagger had been poisoned. Thanks, however, to a surgeon better than was often to be found in those times, and to some herbs, and above all, to his faithful wife Eleanor (she was with him in the crusade, devotedly nursed him, and is said by some to have sucked the poison from the wound with her own red lips), Edward soon recovered.

As the King his father had ordered him to return home, Edward began the journey. He had got as far as Italy, when he met messengers, who brought him the news about the King's death. Hearing that all was quiet at home, Edward made no haste to return, but paid a visit to the Pope, and went through various Italian towns.

In England Edward and his Queen were crowned in Westminster with great magnificence. The fountains in the streets of London flowed with red and white wine instead of water; the rich citizens hung silks and cloths of the brightest colours out of their windows, and threw out gold and silver by whole handfuls for the crowd to catch.

Edward I was the ruler whom most historians credit with the establishment of a parliament with some degree of power. He often appealed to Parliament to vote subsidies for wars, which imparted enhanced importance to the Parliament, for it was becoming a permanently acting body. Any attempt on the king's part to impose and collect taxes without the Parliament's consent was doomed to failure, discontent became apparent among the growing bourgeoisie which the barons took advantage of.

In 1290 Edward I issued the Edict of Expulsion of Jews. England's Jews were a source of crown income, the king's personal property, and he was free to tax them at will. But with the Edict of Expulsion, by which Edward formally expelled all Jews from England, he appropriated all Jewish loans and property. After the expulsion, there was no Jewish community in England, until the rule of Oliver Cromwell (1656).

At the end of the century the barons revived their opposition and fearing another civil war, Edward had to convene a Parliament on the 1265 model, of wider representation which was dubbed "The Model Parliament" (1295). As to the structure of English Parliament, its functions and role, they were still vaguely defined. In fact it voted taxes first and foremost, advised the government on certain issues and posed as the highest juridical body, the lords constituting the Court of peers entitled to try cases connected with the lords' offences. There was one chamber at first; later on, early in the 14th c. the Houses separated, the House of Lords being sacred to the highest clergy, bishops and archdeacons and the like, with the lords as hereditary members, always invited to sittings by personal letters from the king; the House of Commons united the knights and burgesses; they were summoned by sheriffs, and the circle of questions offered for their discussion was limited, mostly questions of taxation and subsidies.

One might wonder at knights, who were landowners after all, sitting together with representatives of merchants. This, however, coincided with the state of things in English society at the time. Private wars were made illegal; land was the only asset; wool trade was
developing, and the smaller landowner was going in, more and more, for sheep breeding. The
great barons were still connecting their fortunes with war and plunder, so the lesser
landowners, knights, found more and more in common with the town merchants whose
welfare was also closely bound with sheep breeding and wool trade.

The smaller landowners were steadily forming the class of squires, steering clear of
feudalism, and gaining in importance with its decay.

The clergymen soon formed their own convocation and no longer attended the sittings of
Parliament which thus was becoming a strictly lay organization. The kings of England used
the House of Commons as an ally in their fight against the barons, for a unification of the
country. But this should not lead one to overestimate the Parliament of the time: the wide
masses of the people were not represented there, so it was no more than a selfish upper-layer
body (when we say "burgesses", or citizens, we mean only the wealthiest top layers of the
towns), and its activities had no immediate direct connection with the welfare of the wide
masses of the English people.

The first bold object of Edward I was to unite under one Sovereign England, Scotland and
Wales. Besides that, he was engaged in a war with France.

Wales. Up to that time the Celts of Wales, King Arthur's descendants, had enjoyed relative
liberty in the mountainous regions of northern and western Wales. The Prince of Wales was
Llewellyn. When King Edward came to the throne, Llewellyn was required to swear
allegiance to him, which he refused to do. Three times more the King required Llewellyn to
come and do homage; and three times more the Welsh Prince said he would not. The King
went with his fleet to the coast of Wales and routed Llewellyn's men. The Prince could only
take refuge in the bleak mountain region of Snowdon, in which no provision could reach him;
he was soon starved into an apology, and into a treaty of peace. The King forgave him and
thought that he won Wales (1265).

But the Welsh, although they were naturally a gentle, quiet, pleasant people, who liked to
receive strangers in their cottages among the mountains and to set before them with free
hospitality whatever they had to eat and drink, and to play to them on their harps, and sing
their ballads, were a people of great spirit when their blood was up.
Englishmen began to be insolent to the Welsh and to behave as masters; and the Welsh pride could not bear it. They believed in the legendary prophet Merlin and just at this time some old gentleman with a harp and a long white beard remembered that Merlin had predicted, that when English money had become round, a Prince of Wales would be crowned in London. Now, King Edward had actually introduced round coins; therefore, the Welsh people said this was the time Merlin meant, and rose accordingly, like one man.

King Edward with his army invaded Wales. He crossed the Menai Strait by a bridge of boats (near to that place nowadays we can see a beautiful iron bridge). But the sudden appearance of the Welsh created panic among the English, and they fell back to the bridge. The tide had in the meantime risen and separated the boats; the Welsh pursued them, and they were driven into the sea, and there they sunk in their heavy iron armour, by thousands. After this victory Llewellyn, helped by the severe winter weather of Wales, gained another battle; but the King ordered a portion of his army to advance through South Wales, Llewellyn was surprised and killed (1282). His head was struck off and sent to London, where it was fixed upon the Tower. Llewellyn's brother David, however, still held out for six months, though the King eagerly followed him, and his own countrymen also hunted him. One of them finally betrayed David with his wife and children. He was sentenced to be hanged, drawn and quartered, a punishment especially cruel and vile, and which has no sense in it.

Wales was now subdued. The Welsh people wanted a new Prince, and it was their wish that he would be a man born in Wales and not speaking English. Just at that time the Queen gave birth to a young prince in the Castle of Carnarvon; the King showed the boy in his cradle to the Welsh people, and called him the Prince of Wales, saying that he was born in Wales and did not speak English, everything being true. Since then an heir of the English throne always bore that title — that little Prince very soon became the heir because his elder brother died. The arrangement of the eldest son of each English king being Prince of Wales takes its origin from that event.

Edward I, king of England, conferring the title of prince of Wales on his son, Edward II.
In 1284 Wales became a principality governed separately, including the north and west of Wales; the eastern part of Wales was considered part of England. It was a hard part to hold though, because of the constant incursions of the Welshmen. That was why the border counties were in fact huge holdings of very powerful Marcher Lords.

King Edward built some castles in Wales to take the country in his hands. Disturbances still took place, and the reason was chiefly in the avarice and pride of the English Lords; but they were subdued, and the country never rose again. There is a legend that to prevent the people from rebellion by the songs of their bards and harpers, Edward had them all put to death.

Returning from Wales, Edward turned to making laws. He made some new laws, concerning landowners, which strengthened his position as a feudal king.

The people gained some benefits in Parliament from the good sense and wisdom of this King. Provision was made for the greater safety of travellers; the priests were prevented from holding too much land, and so becoming too powerful; Justice and Peace were appointed in various parts of the country.

Scotland. About 1286 Alexander the Third, the King of Scotland, died of a fall from his horse. He had been married to Margaret, King Edward's sister. As all their children were dead, the Scottish crown became the right of a young princess only eight years old, the daughter of Eric, King of Norway, who had married a daughter of Alexander. King Edward proposed that the Maiden of Norway, as this Princess was called, should be engaged to be married to his eldest son, as the King saw the advantages that might come from a union of England and Scotland. But, unfortunately, as the girl was coming to England, she fell sick, and, landing on one of the Orkney Islands, died there. A great general confusion began at once in Scotland; thirteen claimants to the vacant throne appeared.

They asked King Edward to judge them, as he was known to be a just man. The King went, with his army, to the Border-land, where England and Scotland joined. The Scottish gentlemen met him at the Castle of Norham, on the English side of the river Tweed. But he required these Scottish gentlemen to do homage to him, as their Superior Lord; the Scottish gentlemen, who had not expected this, asked for three weeks to think about it.
At the end of three weeks another meeting took place on a green plain on the Scottish side of the river. Edward insisted to be recognized as the overlord of the country, and then gave his decision in favour of John Baliol (Norham, 1291).

Baliol found himself in no easy position. On the one hand his own nobles could, and did, appeal against him to Edward; and on the other, Edward could make unreasonable and humiliating, even if perfectly legal, demands upon him. The Scottish nation soon came to the conclusion that the English overlordship was intolerable, and it was impossible for Baliol to remain loyal to Edward.

In 1294 Edward found himself in difficulties, because the French King confiscated Gascony from him, which had been granted to Edward by his father. Baliol seized the opportunity and made an alliance with France.

At the same time, a new revolt burst in Wales, and all these were too much. Edward first of all put down the Welsh revolt, and then he had to go to France. Meanwhile, the Scottish people concealed their King among their mountains in the Highlands, and showed a demonstration to resist; Edward then marched to Berwick with an army of thirty thousand foot, and four thousand horses, took the castle and killed its whole garrison, and the inhabitants of the town as well — men, women and children. He marched in triumph through Scotland declaring it part of England, placing garrisons in castles that were speedily built to secure the success and finally departed carrying with him the Scotch Holy of Holies — the Stone of Scone, on which the Scottish kings had always been crowned (it was later made the seat of the Coronation Chair for the English kings). Doubtless by this he intended to symbolize his claim to be "Lord Paramount" of Scotland with right to oversee its King. In the picture you see the Coronation Chair made for Edward I. The seat is the Stone of Scone.

Departing from Scotland in 1286 Edward left an occupation army and a governor to represent him. The Earl of Surrey was left as guardian of Scotland; the principal offices were given to Englishmen; the more powerful Scottish Nobles were obliged to come and live in England; the Scottish crown and sceptre were brought away.

Baliol had the tower of London as a residence, three years later he was allowed to go to Normandy, where he had estates, and where he passed the remaining six years of his life.

Scottish fight for freedom. There was in the West of Scotland a gentleman named William Wallace (1272-1305). He was a man of great size and great strength; he was very brave and daring; he loved Scotland dearly, and he hated England; and he could rouse his countrymen by the power of his burning words. The conduct of the English in Scotland made them intolerable to the proud Scottish people.

One day an Englishman insulted Wallace. Wallace instantly struck him dead and took refuge among the rocks and hills.

After that the Scottish people revolted everywhere, and fell upon the English without mercy. Two English armies poured into Scotland. Wallace with a force of forty thousand men awaited the invaders on the river Forth, within two miles of the town Stirling. Across the river there was only one wooden bridge, called the Bridge of Kildean — so narrow that but two men could cross it abreast. When the English army came up on the opposite bank of the river, messengers were sent over to offer terms. Wallace sent them back with defiance, in the name of the freedom of Scotland. One thousand English crossed the bridge, two abreast; the Scottish troops were as motionless as stone images. Two thousand English crossed, three thousand, four, five. All this time not a feather stirred among the Scottish bonnets. "Let no more English cross!" commanded Wallace, and the whole English army was defeated.

But after a few winter months, King Edward returned from France and took the field with more than his usual energy. He defeated Wallace and killed nearly fifteen thousand of his men, Wallace drew back into Stirling, set fire to the town that it might give no help to the English, and escaped.
Another hero in the fighting for Scottish freedom was Robert Bruce (1274-1329); he later became the Scottish King (1506). Five centuries later one of the greatest sons of the Scottish people, the famous poet Robert Burns (1749-1796), wrote in his poem "Robert Bruce's Address to His Army before the Battle":

"Scots, wha hae' wi' Wallace bled,
Scots, wham Bruce has after led,
Welcome to your glory bed,
Or to victory.
Now's the day, and now's the hour;
See the front o'battle lour!
See approach proud Edward's power —
Chains and slavery!
Wha will be a traitor knave?
Wha can fill a coward's grave?
Wha so base as be a slave?
Let him turn and flee?
Wha for Scotland's King and law
Freedom's sword will strongly draw,
Freeman stand, or freeman fa''?
Let him follow me!"

But Scotland was defeated. In 1303 the Scottish cause looked hopeless. Wallace alone stood out; he lived in the Highland glens, where the eagles make their nests, and where the mountain torrents roared, and where the white snow was deep, and the bitter winds blew round his unsheltered head, as he lay at night wrapped up in his plaid. Nothing could break him, nothing could lower his courage, nothing could make him forget his country's wrongs. But somebody betrayed William Wallace, he was caught and taken to London in 1305. He was tried at Westminster Hall, with a crown of laurel on his head — it is said his wish was so — and was found guilty as a robber, a murder & a traitor. He was dragged at the tails of horses to West Smithfield, and there hanged on a high gallows, taken from there before he was dead, beheaded and quartered. His head was set upon a pole on London Bridge, his right arm was sent to Newcastle, his left arm to Berwick, his legs to Perth and Aberdeen. But Wallace will be remembered in songs and stories, Dickens says: "while there are songs and stories in the English tongue; and Scotland will hold him dear while her lakes and mountains last".

Very soon (1306) Robert Bruce was declared the King of Scotland and was crowned. The Scots set up the rebellious standard again.

King Edward vowed to have his revenge on Bruce. He was already old and sick, and they brought him to the battles in a horse-litter.

Bruce, after losing a battle, fled to Ireland, spent the next winter there, and reappeared the next spring and gained some victories.

The King, who had been laid up all winter but had directed his army from his sick-bed, mounted his horse once more, and for the last time.

He was now sixty-nine years old, and had reigned thirty-five years. He was so ill that in four days he could go no more than six miles. At last, he lay down near the Border, and there he yielded up his last breaths.

Comprehension questions

1. What policy did Edward I pursue?
2. What is known about his character and his young years (the Crusade)?
3. What edict did he issue in 1290?
4. What changes were made in the Parliament? What strata of the population did it represent?
5. Describe Edward's campaign in Wales.
6. Describe the events in Scotland.

32. THE HELPLESS KING EDWARD II

King Edward II (1284-1327), the first Prince of Wales, was twenty-three when his father died. He had a certain favourite named Piers Gaveston, who had great power over him, and the English Lords detested that favourite, who was a very handsome young man. The King made him Earl of Cornwall and gave him big riches, and Gaveston made bad jokes about the English lords, calling one of them the old hog, another the stage-player; another the Jew; another the black dog of Ardenne. The Earl of Warwick, who was the black dog, swore that the time should come when Gaveston should feel the black dog's teeth.

Edward II was not fitted to carry on his father's work either in war or in statesmanship.
In 1308 Edward went to France and married the French Princess Isabel, with whom he returned to England. In 1308 the Lords insisted on the banishment of Gaveston; but the following year, after the King's appealing, the Parliament allowed him to return.
Edward's methods of raising money were, no doubt, no good ones. In 1311 the lords chose a board of seven bishops, eight earls, and six barons, to draw up Ordinances for the control of the King. The most important of these Ordinances were as follows: 1) Charters to be kept. 2) The king to make no gifts without the leave of the Lords. 3) Customs to be collected by Englishmen. 4) Gaveston to be banished. 5) The King's ministers to be chosen with the consent of the baronage. 6) The King not to go to war or leave the country without the consent of the barons. 7) Parliament to be held yearly.
Edward protested, but he had to submit and send Gaveston out of the country. Soon afterwards, however, the King recalled him again. The lords saw that there was nothing to do but to put the favourite to death. The King went to York to collect a force of soldiers, and the favourite shut him up in Scarborough Castle overlooking the sea. The Barons attacked the
Castle and made Gaveston surrender. They took him to another castle and stopped for a night there. In the morning, when the favourite was still in bed, he was required to dress himself and come down into the court-yard. Gaveston started and turned pale, when he saw the yard full of armed men. "I think you know me?" said their leader, also armed from head to foot. "I am the black dog of Ardenne!"

The time was come, when Piers Gaveston was to feel the black dog's teeth indeed. They set him on a mule and took him to the black dog's kennel — Warwick Castle — where they sentenced him to death. In the bright landscape of the beautiful May-day they struck off his head, and stained the dust with his blood.

Gaveston's head was sent to Edward. In his grief and rage the King announced relentless war against the Barons, and both sides were in arms for half a year. But then it became necessary for them to join their forces against Bruce, who had used the time well, while they were divided, and had now great power in Scotland.

But Edward still was unable to control his Lords, and when he went north to raise the siege of Stirling (1314), Lancaster and his friends refused to go with him. Edward succeeded in raising a considerable force without their aid, and met King Robert at the Bannock River. Robert won an easy victory (Bannockburn, June 24, 1314). The King's defeat strengthened Lancaster's position. From 1314 till 1322 the country was practically governed by Lancaster; but his rule was no better than Edward's.

Plague and famine flourished in England. And the King had now a new favourite, Hugh le Despenser. The Nobles leagued against Despenser, because Edward liked him. Before 1322 Hugh Despenser's son, also Hugh, became the second favourite. A quarrel broke out between Roger Mortimer and the younger Despenser. The Despensers soon made themselves as unpopular as Gaveston had been, and Edward's worst foe was to arise in his own family.

In 1323 Queen Isabel with her son went to France. There she met Mortimer, and they both made a plan for invading England and usurping the kingly power. With money borrowed from her brother, the King of France, she raised troops and landed at Orwell (September, 24, 1326) with Mortimer. Edward, deserted by all his friends, was unable to resist. The Queen went to London and met the Parliament. And the Bishop of Hereford, the most skilful of her friends, said: "What was to be done? Here was an imbecile, indolent, miserable King upon the throne; wouldn't it be better to take him off and put his son there instead?"

So they made a deputation to Kenilworth Castle, where the King then was; and there the King came to the great hall, commonly dressed in a poor black gown; and he fell down, and made a wretched spectacle of himself. Somebody lifted him up, and the Speaker of the House of Commons made a tremendous speech, informing that he was no longer a king. Then the Steward of the Household nearly finished him by coming forward and breaking his wand — which was a ceremony only performed at a King's death. When he was asked what he thought of resigning, the King said he thought it was the best thing he could do. So, he did it, and they proclaimed his son king the next day.

The rest of his life Edward II lived in his castle, shamefully humiliated, and was very miserable.

Comprehension questions

1. How is Edward II generally evaluated as a ruler? How did the reign of Edward II end?

33. EDWARD III

58
Edward the Third (1312-1377) was crowned after his Father's resigning, on the 13-th of November, when he was not fifteen years old yet, so he was too young to rule the country. His mother, Queen Isabel, and her favourite Roger Mortimer governed in his name, though nominally his guardian was Henry, earl of Lancaster.

The people themselves did not like Mortimer — first, because he was a Royal favourite; secondly, because he was supposed to have helped to make peace with Scotland — he promised the king's sister Jean, only seven years old, to marry David, the son and heir of Robert Bruce, who was only five years old. The nobles hated Mortimer because of his pride, riches, and power.

In 1328 Edward was married to Phyllippa, a French count's daughter. In two years more, when his son, also Edward, was born, Edward III made a successful effort to get rid of degrading dependence on his mother and her favourite. A Parliament was going to be held in Nottingham, and Lord Montacute recommended the king that Mortimer should be seized by night in Nottingham Castle. But to guard against treachery the great gates of the Castle were locked every night, and the great keys were carried upstairs to the Queen, who laid them under her own pillow. But the Governor of the Castle was Lord Montacute's friend, and he knew a secret passage underground, hidden from the observation by the weeds and brambles, with which it was overgrown; and it went straight to Mortimer's room. At dark midnight they made their way through that dismal place, startling the rats, and frightening the owls and bats; and came safely to the bottom of the main tower of the Castle, where the King met them and took them up the dark staircase in deep silence. They soon heard the voice of Mortimer in council with some friends; and, bursting into a room with a sudden noise, took him prisoner. The Queen cried out from her bed-chamber: "Oh, my sweet son, my dear son, spare my gentle Mortimer!" They carried him off, however, and accused him of having made differences between the young king and his mother, and even of the late King's death (in those times, when they wanted to get rid of a man, they were not very particular of what they accused him). Mortimer was found guilty, and was sentenced to be hanged. Now Edward became King in earnest. It is necessary to add that he treated his mother with every respect and kindness.

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The conflict was punctuated by several periods of peace, before it finally ended in the expulsion of the Plantagenets from France (except from the Pale of Calais). The final outcome was a victory for the house of Valois, which succeeded in recovering early gains made by the Plantagenets and expelling them from the majority of France by the 1450s. However, the war nearly ruined the Valois, while the Plantagenets enriched themselves with plunder. France suffered greatly from the war, since most of the

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France was a far richer country than Scotland, and the King decided to conquer it. So he let Scotland alone and pretended that he had a claim to the French throne in right of his mother. Edward invaded France with his forces (1337), but he did little by that, except run into debt. The next year he did better, gaining a great sea-fight in the harbour of Sluys. Philip the French massed the troops on the Flemish border; he had collected a fleet of 500 ships to prevent the English from landing. Edward's success was only short-lived, for the Flemings ran away, leaving their weapons and baggage behind them. Edward's victory (with 300 ships only!) secured for England the command of the Channel. Edward then besieged Tournay, but his money ran short, and he had to return to England for more.

Then a dispute arose between Edward and the French king Philip as to the succession in Brittany. The French were taking English merchant-ships in the Channel, and tried to seize Guienne, so that Edward was to declare war. He despatched an army to Gascony, but on the way he changed his mind, and, as the French were concentrated in the south, determined to attack the north of France, and to march through France to Flanders. He was unable to cross the Lower Seine, as Philip had destroyed the bridges on it, and, followed by Philip's forces on the other side of the river, had to march as far north as Poissy, where he was able to repair a broken bridge. The Somme now lay in his path, and to cross this he had to descend to Abbeville with his army, and near that town he found a ford.

Edward stopped his troops on a hill-side near Cressy. The next day Philip arrived with his army and rashly determined to attack without giving his men a night's rest. The Genoese cross-bowmen, who were ordered to open the battle, complained that their strings were too wet to use; but the Constable of France only called them cowards and urged them on. As they advanced until they were within bowshot, the English archers stood firm, but after the first volley the latter used their longbows, which were not so liable to be damaged by the rain, with such effect that the Genoese flew and threw their own side into confusion. The English archers made the best of their advantage, and fired volley after volley into the confused mass of men and horses, and a number of wild Cornishmen and Welshmen rushed into the thick of the fight on foot and killed many French knights with great knives.

When the French King saw the Genoese turning, he cried out to his men to kill those scoundrels, who were doing harm instead of service. This increased the confusion. King Edward overlooked the battle from a windmill. His son, who was called Edward the Black Prince, he and his division were so much pressed, that the Earl of Warwick sent a messenger to the King, asking him to send more help.

"Is my son killed?" asked Edward.
"No, sire, please God", returned the messenger.
"Is he wounded?" said the King.
"No, sire".
"Is he thrown to the ground?" said the King.
"No, sire, not so; but he is very hard-pressed".
"Then", said the King, "go back to those who sent you, and tell them I shall send no aid; because I set my heart upon my son providing himself this day a brave knight, and because I am resolved, please God, that the honour of a great victory shall be his!"

When the messenger reported these bold words to the Prince and his division, their spirits rose, and they fought better than ever.
By sunset the French were routed and most of their commanders were killed. The horse was killed under the French King with an English arrow, and the knights and nobles, who surrounded him early in the day, were now completely scattered. At last, some of his few remaining followers led him off the field by force.

The battle of Cressy took place in August 26, 1346. George Gordon Byron wrote of this battle in one of his early poems “On Leaving Newstead Abbey”, being proud of his two ancestors who had fallen in it:

"Paul and Hubert too sleep in the valley of Cressy:  
For the safety of Edward and England they fell".

Five days after that great battle the King laid siege to Calais. This siege lasted nearly a year. In order to starve the inhabitants out, King Edward built so many wooden houses for his troops, that it is said their quarters looked like a second Calais suddenly sprung around the first. At the beginning of the siege, the governor of the town drove out "the useless mouths", about seventeen hundred persons. King Edward allowed them to pass through his lines, and even fed them. But later he was not so merciful — five hundred more, who were afterwards driven out, died of starvation. The garrison sent a letter to King Philip, telling him that they had eaten all the horses, all the dogs, and all the rats and mice that could be found in the place; and they must either surrender to the English, or eat one another. Philip could not help them. When they wanted to surrender to King Edward, he said to their messengers: "Tell your general that I require to have sent here six of the most distinguished citizens, bare-legged, and in their shirts, with ropes about their necks; and let those six men bring with them the keys of the castle and the town".

Edward ordered the heads of all the six to be struck off. But the Queen fell upon her knees, and asked the King to give them up to her. He could not refuse her, and so the Queen had them properly dressed, made a feast for them, and sent them back with presents.

In 1348 the terrible disease, the Plague, called the Black Death, diverted the attention of both France and England from war; for in both those countries half the population perished. The Black Death was spreading from the heart of China; it killed the wretched people — especially the poor — in such enormous numbers that there were not enough to till the ground; it killed also the cattle; and so only few working men remained alive. In England the immediate result was some new laws such as the "Statute of Labourers" and the displacement of agriculture by sheep-farming.
In 1355 the French war broke out again. King Edward was unable to take part in it, because he was detained at home by the Scottish war — David of Scotland invaded England at Philip's request. But Edward soon was to retreat from that country, for the Scottish men repaired his cruelties.

The French King Philip died, and was succeeded by his son John. The Black Prince (he got that name because of the colour of his armour) continued to burn and destroy France; and so cruel had the Black Prince been in this campaign, and so severely had the French peasants suffered, that he could find nobody who, for love of money, or the fear of death, would tell him what the French King was doing or where he was. Thus, it happened that he came upon the French King's forces, all of a sudden, near the town of Poitiers, and found that the whole neighbouring country was occupied by a French army. King John cut the Black Prince off with an army four times as large as his. The Black Prince was compelled to fight with very little prospect of victory, but by skilful disposition of his men he won a victory at Poitiers (September, 10, 1356) and captured the French King, who was sent to England.

A palace called Savoy in London was given up to the captive King of France and his son for their residence. The King of Scotland had also been King Edward's captive, so the English success was quite complete. The Scottish King was soon released, but the state in France became very difficult, for the people there rose against the unspeakable cruelty and barbarity of the nobles; and the nobles rose in turn against the people; the insurrection of peasants, called the insurrection of Jacquerie, from Jacques, a common Christian name among the country people of France, awakened terrors and hatreds.

A treaty, called the Great Peace, was at last signed, under which King Edward agreed to give up the greater part of his conquests, and King John to pay, within six years, a ransom of 3 million crowns of gold. He was so beset by his own nobles and courtiers for having yielded to these conditions that he came back of his own will to his palace-prison of the Savoy, and there died.

Edward's health was failing, and the Black Prince, from whom much had been expected, was an invalid. The Prince died in 1376, and his father did not overlive him long.

Comprehension questions

1. Characterise in brief Edward III.
2. The Hundred Years’ War outline.
3. Describe the Battle of Cressy.
4. What is the Black Death?
5. What happened in the Battle of Poitiers?

34. RICHARD II, WAT TYLER, WYCLIF, LOLLARDS AND CHAUCER

In 1376 the King proclaimed the Black Prince's son, Richard (1366-1399), his heir, and in 1377 Edward died and left him the English crown. So he became Richard the Second as a boy of eleven. The Duke of Lancaster, the young King's uncle, commonly called John of Gaunt, had some thoughts of the throne himself; but the memory of the Black Prince was very popular, and he had to submit to his nephew.

As the war with France was still unsettled, the Government of England wanted much money, so a certain tax, called the Poll-tax, was ordered to be levied on the people. This was a tax on every person of the kingdom, male and female, above the age of fourteen, of three four penny pieces a year.
The common people of England had long been suffering under great oppression. They were still the mere slaves of the lords of the land on which they lived, and were harshly and unjustly treated. Perhaps, they were also emboldened by the French Jacquerie.

The people of Essex rose against the Poll-tax, and killed some of the government officers. At this very time one of the tax-collectors, going from house to house, at Dartford in Kent, came to the cottage of a tiler Wat, and claimed the tax upon his daughter. Her mother declared that the girl was under the age of fourteen; the collector brutally insulted Wat Tyler's daughter. The daughter and the mother screamed. Wat Tyler was at work not far off, he ran home and did what every honest father under such provocation might have done — struck the collector dead at a blow.

Instantly the people of that town uprose as one man. They made Wat Tyler their leader; they joined with the people of Essex, who were in arms under a priest called Jack Straw; and, gathering in numbers, as they went along, advanced in a great army of poor men, to Blackheath. It is said that they wanted to abolish all property and to declare all men equal. But it is also said that the King's mother, who had to pass through their camp at Blackheath, on her way to her young son, had merely to kiss a few dirty-faced rough-bearded men, and so got away in perfect safety. Next day the whole mass marched on to London Bridge.

There was a drawbridge in the middle, which William Walworth the Mayor ordered to be raised to prevent their coming into the city; but they soon terrified the citizens and made them lower it again, and spread themselves, with great uproar, over the streets. They opened the prisons; they burned the papers; they destroyed the Duke of Lancaster's Palace; they set fire to the books and documents in the Temple; they made a great riot. Many of them were drunk, but they were very careful to steal nothing.

The young King and the people about him were so frightened by the riotous shouts that they got back to the Tower. This made the insurgents bolder; so they went rioting away, striking off the heads of some whom they met. In a day the King agreed to meet them and grant their requests.

The rebels met the King at Mile-end. They wanted: 1) that neither they nor their children should be slaves any more; 2) the rent of land should be fixed at a certain price of money, instead of being paid in service; 3) that they should have liberty to buy and sell in all markets; 4) that they should be pardoned for past offences.

But Wat Tyler himself wanted more than this. He wanted the entire abolition of the forest laws. He was not at Mile-end with the rest, but broke into the Tower of London and killed the Archbishop and the treasurer.
Next morning the King with a small train of some sixty gentlemen rode into Smithfield, and saw Wat and his people at a little distance. Wat came up to the King to speak to him, and suddenly Walworth the Mayor drew a short sword, and stabbed him in the throat. He dropped from his horse, and one of the King's men speedily finished him.

**Death of Wat Tyler**

His men immediately bent their bows to avenge his fall. If the young King had not had presence of mind at that dangerous moment, both he and the Mayor might have followed Tyler pretty fast. But the King promised to the people at once to do everything they had claimed. And as soon as Richard found himself safe, he unsaid all he had said, and undid all he had done; some fifteen hundred of the rebels were tried and executed with great cruelty. Many of them were hanged on gibbets, and left there as a terror to the country people; and because their miserable friends took some of the bodies down to bury, the King ordered the rest to be chained up — which was the beginning of the barbarous custom of hanging in chains.

All that happened in 1381, when Richard was sixteen years of age. As to the priest called Jack Straw (his real name was John Ball, and he is said to repeat in his preachings: "When Adam delved and Eve span, who was then a gentleman?"), he was taken prisoner at Coventry and executed in the presence of King Richard on the 15-th of July, 1381.

Meanwhile, the ill success of the French war gave the barons the opportunity of interfering with the king's government. In 1386, led by Thomas of Gloucester, the king's uncle, they persuaded the Parliament to nominate a council of eleven for one year to regulate the kingdom and the royal household. When, in 1387, Richard II got the Judges to declare the council illegal, the Lords Appellant — so called, because they appealed the ministers of treason — took up arms and won the battle of Radcot Bridge. The government was now in their hands, and in 1388 the Merciless Parliament impeached the king's favourites.

But Gloucester's power was not to last forever. When the year was out, in 1388, the King, turning suddenly to Gloucester in the midst of a great council, said: "Uncle, how old am I?" "Your highness", returned the Duke, "is in your twenty-second year". "Am I so much?" said
the King, "then I will manage my own affairs! I am much obliged to you, my good lords, for your past services, but I need them no more".

It was not till 1397, however, that Richard decided to take revenge on the Lords Appellant; Gloucester was sent to Calais, where he died; brother of the Archbishop was beheaded; Warwick was imprisoned for life. In the next year the Parliament of Shrewsbury simply registered Richard's will by annulling all the acts of the Merciless Parliament.

Among the Appellants there were two nobles, who were created Dukes of Hereford (the King's cousin) and Norfolk. In 1398 they quarrelled, and Richard banished them both. The Duke of Lancaster, who was the father of the Duke of Hereford, died soon after the departure of his son; and the King immediately seized all his lands, like a robber. The judges were so afraid of him, that they disgraced themselves by declaring this theft to be just and lawful. Richard's avarice knew no bounds. He cared so little for the discontent of his subjects that he took that time, of all others, for leaving England and making an expedition against the Irish.

He was scarcely gone, leaving the Duke of York Regent in his absence, when his cousin, Henry of Hereford, came over from France to claim his rights. His uncle, the Regent, finding the King's cause unpopular, withdrew from the Royal forces towards Bristol. Henry, at the head of an army, came from Yorkshire to London and followed him. They joined their forces.

The stormy weather prevented the King from receiving the news. At last, the King went home, but his men cared nothing for him, and quickly deserted. The King disguised himself as a priest, and went to Conway with his two brothers. But they found there only about a hundred Welsh soldiers. The King's brothers offered to go to Henry to learn what his intentions were. One of the brothers, Surrey, was put into prison. Another, Exeter, who was false, took the royal badge, which was a hart, off his shield, and assumed the rose, the badge of Henry. After this, it was pretty plain to the King what Henry's intentions were, without sending any more messengers to ask.

The fallen King, thus deserted, and pressed with hunger, rode here and rode there, and went to this castle, and went to that castle, to obtain some provisions, but could find none. He rode back to Conway, and there surrendered himself to the Earl of Northumberland, who came from Henry in reality to take him prisoner, but in appearance to offer terms. The King was conducted to the castle of Flint, where his cousin Henry met him, and dropped on his knee, as if he were still respectful to his sovereign.

"My lord", said Henry, "I am come a little before my time; but, with your good pleasure, I will show you the reason. Your people complain with some bitterness, that you have ruled them rigorously for two-and-twenty years. Now, if it please God, I will help you to govern them better in future".

"Fair cousin", replied the King, "since it pleaseth you, it pleaseth me mightily".

After this, the trumpets sounded, and the King was stuck on a wretched horse, and carried prisoner to Chester, where he was made to issue a proclamation, calling a Parliament. From Chester he was taken on towards London. At Lichfield he tried to escape by getting out of the window into a garden; it was all in vain, however, and he was carried on and shut up in the Tower, where no one pitied him. It is related, that his very dog left him and licked Henry's hand.

The day before the Parliament met, a deputation went to Richard and told him that he had promised to resign the crown. He said he was quite ready to do it, and signed a paper. Then he gave his royal ring to his triumphant cousin Henry with his own hand.

Next day the Parliament assembled in Westminster Hall, where Henry sat at the side of the throne, which was empty and covered with a cloth of gold. The paper just signed by the King was read amid shouts of joy, which were echoed through all the streets. Then Henry arose, made the sign of the cross on his forehead and breast; the archbishops of Canterbury and York seated him on the throne.
In the time of Richard II, as well as during his grandfather’s reign, there lived some very important historical figures, who influenced the social and cultural development of England. John Wycliffe (1328-1384), Oxford University professor, spoke with great indignation of the immoral practices of friars dealing in “indulgencies”, papers proclaiming the Pope’s pardon of all sins committed by the buyer in the past, present or future: he spoke of the luxury and worldliness of monks and the inordinate wealth of the church. John Wycliffe was in fact initiator of the movement that was to assume a mighty swing in a couple of centuries, the Reformation. Wycliffe was also an early advocate for translation of the Bible into the common language. He completed his translation directly from the Vulgate into vernacular English in the year 1382, now known as Wycliffe's Bible.

John Wycliffe’s followers, the Lollards, interpreted him much more radically proceeding from all this amiable theory to practice. The Lollards were participators of the anti-catholic plebeian peasant movement. Their first appearance in England is traced back to the thirteen sixties but they achieved official recognition in 1387. Their activation was determined by the growth of social contradictions in the latter half of the 14th c. They were poor wandering priests who preached to the people in the streets of villages and town squares. They condemned the privileges of the catholic church imparting a social tinge to their sermons. They criticized injustice, demanding abolition of villeins’ labour on their lords’ fields, the tithes and taxes. They demanded social equality. The “Lollard heresy” expressed decline in the influence of the church.

One of the greatest English poets, Geoffrey Chaucer (1340?-1400), whose most famous book was "The Canterbury Tales", is often called the father of English poetry. His books were, of course, only manuscripts, as there was no book-printing in England till the end of the next century, when his main books were printed. Due to Chaucer we can gain a most interesting sight of these times. His English is difficult to read, because the language has changed much since those centuries, but his books still live. Most amusing and delightful pictures of the people of his time does Chaucer draw, and we learn much about the customs from them. You can see Chaucer's tomb in Poet's Corner at Westminster Abbey.

Comprehension questions
1. What was the Poll Tax, introduced by Richard II?
2. Describe Watt Tyler’s revolt.

35. HENRY THE FOURTH, CALLED BOLINGBROKE

So Henry IV (1367-1413) had no real right to the crown. Edward Mortimer, the young Earl of March, who was only eight or nine years old, and who was descended from the elder brother of Henry's father, was, by succession, the real heir to the throne. However, Henry IV declared his son Prince of Wales; and he kept the young Earl of March and his little brother in confinement in Windsor Castle. He then required the Parliament to decide what was to be done with the deposed King. The Parliament replied that they would recommend to keep Richard in some secret place, where his friends could not be admitted to visit him.

It was a noisy Parliament, and the Lords quarrelled so violently among themselves, that forty gauntlets are said to have been thrown upon the floor at one time as challenges to as many battles — they had been at one time with the old king, and at the other with the new one, and seldom true to anyone. A conspiracy was formed to invite the King to the tournament at Oxford, and then to take him by surprise and kill him. This enterprise was betrayed by one of the conspirators. The King, instead of going to the tournament or staying at Windsor,
retired to London, proclaimed them all traitors, and advanced upon them with a great force. They retired into the West of England, proclaimed Richard King, but the people rose against them, and they were all killed. This only hastened Richard's death. Whether he was killed by hired men or whether he was starved to death is very doubtful.

From the very first Henry was careful to have the Church on his side. The alliance between the Church and the Crown was important for both sides.

As the idea of conquering Scotland was still popular, Henry marched to the river Tyne and demanded homage of the King of that country. As it was refused, he advanced to Edinburgh, but he was obliged to retire as his army was in want of provisions.

A war between the border people of England and Scotland went on for a year. In 1400 a quarrel broke out between Owen Glendower, the Welsh chieftain, and Lord Grey of Ruthven, and it led first to a national Welsh revolt, and then to a confederacy against Henry's power in England. Some nobles rose against Henry. In 1403 the Battle of Shrewsbury took place: Henry's army met his enemies — and had a victory. Owen Glendower declared himself the Prince of Wales, and even in 1409, when Glendower was defeated, he still held out in the Welsh hills and retained a sort of independence. Except that, a story was spread among the ignorant people, that King Richard was still alive. Then the young Earl of March and his brother were stolen out of Windsor Castle.

The next remarkable event of the time was the seizure by Henry of the heir to the Scottish throne — James, a boy of nine years old. His father, the Scottish King Robert, wanted to save him from the designs of his uncle, when, on his way to France, he was suddenly taken by some English cruisers. James remained a prisoner in England for nineteen years, and became in his prison a student and a famous poet.

To distract attention from the rather unsatisfactory state of affairs in England, Henry IV decided in 1411 to invade France. That country was being torn by civil war; the King Charles VI was mad, and the Dukes of Orleans and Burgundy were fighting for the chief power. Orleans had been murdered by his opponents, and his followers, the Armagnacs, were thirsting for revenge. Burgundy invited Henry's help, and with it defeated Armagnacs.

King Henry IV died on the 20-th of March, 1413, in the forty-seventh year of his age, and the fourteenth of his reign. His son, also Henry, succeeded him.
Comprehension questions

1. Henry Bollingbroke’s war in Scotland.

36. HENRY V

When Henry V (1387-1422) was the Prince of Wales, he was said to be brave and generous, but also wild and dissipated. There is a story (of which Shakespeare has made beautiful use), that the Prince once took the crown out of his father's chamber, as Henry IV was sleeping, and tried it on his own head.

![Image of Henry V](Image192x432 to 418x634)

However, Henry V began his reign like a generous and honest man. He set the young Earl of March free; he ordered the unfortunate Richard to be buried among the Kings of England; he dismissed all his wild companions.

Once on the throne, Henry V formulated a policy of his own with energy and sound judgement. Holding to the alliance with the Church, already entered by his father, he put down heresy with a firm hand, and many of the heretics were burnt. Once loyally supported by the Church and the nobles, he might hope to gain the mastery over Parliament.

It was with these ideas in his mind that Henry laid claim to the throne of France, on the same grounds as had been put forward by Edward III. It really did not matter to him that claim, as advanced by him, was infinitely more absurd than as it had been advanced by his great-grandfather, or that, if that claim existed, it had passed not to him, but to the Earl of March. He knew that France was divided by civil war; and that therefore he had all the chances in his favour. France knew this, too.

Just as he was embarking for France, Henry discovered a plot for placing the young Earl of March on the throne; the Earl of Cambridge, son of Edmund Duke of York, was executed, along with some other conspirators.

After that Henry embarked for France.

Henry's immediate object was to reduce Normandy, and for this purpose he laid siege to Harfleur, both by sea and by land, for five weeks, at the end of which time the town surrendered, and the inhabitants were allowed to depart with only fivepence each, and a part of their clothes. All the rest of their possessions were divided among the English army. But their army suffered so much, in spite of their successes, from disease and privation that it was reduced already by one half. Still, the King was determined not to retire until he had struck a great blow. And he moved on with his little force towards Calais. When he came up to the river Somme, the English moved up the left bank of the river, looking for a crossing, and the
French, who had broken all the bridges, moved up the right bank, watching the enemy and waiting to attack the English when they should try to pass it. At last, the English found a crossing and got safely over.

The battle of Agincourt was fought on October 25, 1415, on a narrow front, flanked by woods. The French had no room to fight, and their heavy infantry were impeded by the sodden ground. The English archers poured in volley after volley from under cover, and, when they had utterly demoralised the exposed enemy, a general charge drove the defeat home.

Henry made little use of his victory; indeed, his army was so reduced, that he was glad to enter Calais and sail home almost immediately. But the effect in England was as he expected; success had aroused national enthusiasm, and all classes were eager to continue the war.

Now, here are Charles Dickens's words about this event.

"War is a dreadful thing; and it is appalling to know that the English were obliged, next morning, to kill those prisoners mortally wounded, who yet writhed in agony upon the ground; how the dead upon the French side were stripped by their own countrymen, and afterwards buried in great pits; how the dead upon the English side were piled up in a great barn, and how their bodies in the barn were all burned together. Nothing can make war otherwise than horrible. But the dark side of it was little thought of and soon forgotten; and it cast no shade of trouble on the English people, except on those who had lost friends or relations in the fight. They welcomed their King home with shouts of rejoicing, and plunged into the water to bear him ashore on their shoulders, and flocked out in crowds to welcome him in every town, through which he passed, and hung rich carpets and tapestries out of the windows, and strewed the streets with flowers, and made the fountains run with wine, as the great field of Agincourt had run with blood".

In 1417 Henry again invaded France, and set about the thorough conquest of Normandy; by 1419 he possessed Rouen. The quarrels between the rival French factions played into his hands, especially, when the Duke of Burgundy was murdered by the Dauphin and the
Armagnacs. The new duke, with the queen's consent, immediately allied himself with the English against the Dauphin, and in 1420 the Treaty of Troyes was signed. By it Henry became regent of France during the life of the insane king, married Katharine, his daughter, and was declared his heir; it was stipulated that England and France should remain independent.

The peace that came was called the Perpetual Peace (but it was nothing of the kind in reality!) It gave great satisfaction to the French people, although they were so poor and miserable, that at the time of celebration of the Royal marriage, numbers of them were dying with starvation in the streets of Paris.

After his returning to France Henry had another successful campaign; but in 1422, on his way to help his ally in Burgundy, he died, before he was able to reap any of the advantages, he expected from the success of his policy. King Charles of France died in the same year, and thus, by the Treaty of Troyes, the infant Henry VI became King of France and England.

Comprehension questions

1. What kind of king was Henry V?
2. Speak about the battle of Agincourt.
3. Prove that at that time the decisive victory over France was achieved.

37. HENRY VI

It was the wish of the late King, that, while his infant son Henry the Sixth (1421-1471), at that time only nine months old, was under age, the Duke of Gloucester should be appointed Regent. The baby King is said to be crowned on his mother’s lap, with her bracelet as a crown for his baby head. The English Parliament, however, preferred to appoint a Council of Regency, with the Duke of Bedford at its head, to be represented, in his absence only, by the Duke of Gloucester.

Bedford's great object was to retain the friendship of Burgundy, and with this in view he married the Duke's sister; by further strengthening himself by an alliance with the Duke of Brittany he was able to keep his hold on Northern France. In 1423 a victory at Crevant kept open his communications with Burgundy. But Bedford's younger brother, Gloucester, had managed to quarrel both with the Duke of Burgundy and with the bishop of Winchester.

After the French King's death the Dauphin instantly claimed to the French throne, and was actually crowned under the title of Charles the Seventh. War of England with France was immediately renewed, and the Perpetual Peace came to an untimely end.

In the first campaign the English were successful. As Scotland, however, had sent the French five thousand men, and might send more, or attack the north of England, while England was busy with France, it was considered to offer the Scottish King James, who had been so long imprisoned, his liberty, if he pays forty thousand pounds for the board and lodging during nineteen years, and make him forbid his subjects to serve under the flag of France.

In the second campaign, in 1424, the English gained a victory at Verneuil.

Already master of the north of France, Bedford in 1428 laid siege to Orleans — the first step to conquer the south, still held by the Dauphin. At this most critical moment for France the country found a leader in Joan of Arc, a peasant girl from Domremi. In that remote village there lived a countryman Jaques d'Arc. His daughter Joan was in her twentieth year. She had been a solitary girl from her childhood; she had often tended sheep and cattle, for a whole day not seeing a single human figure. She had often knelt for hours in the gloomy empty village chapel, looking up at the altar and at the dim lamp burning before it, until she fancied that she saw shadowy figures there, and she even heard them speak to her. The people in that part of
France were very ignorant and superstitious, so they easily believed that Joan saw angels and spirits who talked to her.

It seemed to her that some voices often said: "Joan, thou art appointed by Heaven to go and help the Dauphin!" There is no doubt that Joan believed she saw and heard such things. Now it is very well known that such delusions are a certain disease.

Her father, somewhat wiser than his neighbours, said: "I tell thee, Joan, it is thy fancy. Thou hast better take a kind husband to take care of thee, girl, and work to employ thy mind".

But Joan told him that she had taken a vow never to have a husband, and that she must go as Heaven directed her.

It so happened that a party of the enemies appeared in the village, burnt the chapel and drove out the inhabitants. The cruelties she saw made her fancies stronger. Her uncle, a poor village cart-maker, accompanied the girl for a very long and dangerous way, meeting all kinds of robbers and murderers, to come to a certain lord named Baudricourt, who could bring her into the Dauphin's presence.

When the servants told him that there was a poor peasant girl named Joan of Arc, who wished to see him, because she was commanded to help the Dauphin and save France, Baudricourt burst out laughing and bade them send the girl away. But soon he heard that she prayed in the churches of the town, so he called her and questioned her. Baudricourt began to think there must be something in her fancies. He bought her a horse and a sword, and gave her two squires to conduct her. She put on a man's dress and rode away.

In the town of Chinon Joan was admitted to the Dauphin's presence. After some doubt, she was believed, and again rode on and on, until she came to Orleans.

When the people on the walls beheld her on her white horse and in her glittering armour, they cried out: "The Maid is come! The Maid is come to save as!" And this made the French so bold, that the English line of forts was soon broken, the troops and the provisions were got into the town, and Orleans was saved. But the war still went on; in 1430 Joan was captured at
Compiegne and handed over by the Burgundians, who had become England’s allies, to the English. The English promptly accused her of witchcraft and burnt her at the stake at the market place in Rouen to be an example to all common girls and boys who dare to prevent the nobles from selling their motherland and save it instead. There was no protest from Charles. These are Charles Dickens's words of that event: “From the moment of her capture, neither the French King, nor one single man in all his court raised a finger to save her. It is no defence of them that they may have never really believed in her, or that they might have won her victories by their skill and bravery. The more they pretended to believe in her, the more that had caused her to believe in herself; and she had ever been true to them. But it is no wonder that they, who were false to themselves, false to one another, false to their country, false to Heaven, false to Earth, should be monsters of ingratitude and treachery to a helpless peasant girl.

In the old town of Rouen, where weeds and grass grow high on the cathedral towers, and the venerable Norman streets are still warm in the sunlight, though the monkish fires that once gleamed horribly upon them have long grown cold, there is a statue of Joan of Arc, in the scene of her last agony, the square is called by her name”.

The phenomenon of Joan of Arc, considered mysterious by some historians, is easily explained. The forces of patriotism, of boundless love for Motherland have not infrequently created national heroes and heroines. Joan of Arc won because she symbolized the people’s wrath, and the people’s inexhaustible strength. This is why both the French and the English dark forces leagued to destroy her.

In spite of Joan's great work the English were still the real masters of France; Henry VI was crowned king at Paris in 1431. But English power was largely dependent on the alliance with Burgundy. The alliance received a severe blow, when the Duke of Bedford married Jacquetta of Luxembourg without consulting her overlord, the Duke of Burgundy. There were great changes in the policy. The English king was asked to renounce his claim to the French throne, and Burgundy renounced the English alliance. In 1436 Charles VII captured Paris.

For a long time the war went heavily on. Two of the consequences of wars were Famine — because the people couldn’t peacefully work on their ground — and Pest, which came of want, misery and suffering. Both these horrors broke out in both countries, and lasted for two wretched years.

At that time in England the feudal lords were at each other’s throats. Henry V died in 1422 and while his son was still a nine-months-old child the struggle of the nobles for power grew quite fierce. The French king died too. So far Henry VI (1422-1461) was ruler of two countries in his cradle. The inheritance left to the unfortunate child was ominous, it was imbecility that would become apparent later. The young English king, as he grew up, proved to be a miserable creature. He was a weak and helpless young man.

There were changes for the worse in the English expeditional forces. The English and the Burgundian traitors quarrelled, the latter rejoined their army against their former allies. Artillery was introduced in battle by the French armies.

After Bedford's death in 1435 the struggle between Gloucester and Beaufort was renewed with increased bitterness. Beaufort and his party were working for peace. They arranged a marriage (1444) between Henry VI and Margaret of Anjou, a cousin of Charles VII. Gloucester was soon arrested for high treason and died suddenly. In 1449 the French succeeded in winning back most of Normandy.

The results of the war affected England in other ways also; the barons, no longer kept busy in France, could fight between themselves; the taxes became heavy, and a powerful rebellion of "the commons in Kent" under the leadership of Jack Cade took place in 1450. The rebellion was suppressed.

The nobles in power were doing their best to line their pockets starving the army, sending rotten supplies and delaying reinforcements. So in 1453 the last battle was fought and the war
was finally given up, with Calais the only trophy of a hundred years of bloodshed. The Bordeaux capitulation of the English forces proved to be the end of the war. Britain was utterly defeated in the Hundred Years’ War. Within twenty years from execution of the Maid of Orleans, of all the French conquests the town of Calais alone remained in English hands.

After the Hundred Years’ War ended, the feudal lords, used to bloodshed and authority on battle fields, returned to England with their soldiers whose chief interest in life was killing for they had long lost the habit of working and creating, destruction being their profession. It was only natural, therefore, that they readily took part in the fight for power and influence over the royal treasury.

The Dukes of York and Somerset were now the leaders of the opposing parties; when Henry became insane in 1454, the former was made Protector, and the latter was arrested. But the king's first act on his recovery was to dismiss the Protector and to call Somerset. York immediately took up arms, as if to protect the King. At the first battle of St. Albans (1455) Somerset was killed and the king captured. Henry became much worse in his insanity, now he could not be carried about and shown to the people. The Duke of York was made Lord Protector of the kingdom until the King should recover, or the Prince (who was recently born) should come of age. At the same time the Duke of Somerset was committed to Tower. So now the Duke of Somerset was down, and the Duke of York was up. By the end of the year, however, the King recovered his memory and sense; he got the protector disgraced. So now the Duke of York was down, and the Duke of Somerset was up.

These ups and downs gradually separated the whole nation into two hostile groups, one supporting the House of York with a white rose in their coat-of-arms, the other supporting the House of Lancaster with a red rose in theirs. The Lancaster dynasty was chiefly supported by the nobility of the backward North and Wales while the York forces found support among some of the feudal lords of the economically developed South-East. The York dynasty was also supported by the new nobility and the wealthy citizens who were interested in establishing strong and durable power.

Comprehension questions

1. Bedford’s victories in France.
2. Joan of Arc.
3. What quarrel became an important reason for the fact that England lost its territories in France? What were the territories in France that England had in 1453?

38. EDWARD IV

A few days after Margaret fled with her son Henry Edward, Earl of March, united with the Earl of Warwick, came to London.

In several days the citizens were assembled in St. John's field, and they were asked if they would have Henry of Lancaster for their king. To this they all roared: "No, no, no!" and "King Edward! King Edward!", and threw up their caps, and clapped their hands, and cheered tremendously.

So, Edward of York was proclaimed King. He made a great speech to the applauding people at Westminster, and sat down on the throne, on the golden covering, on which his father had laid his hand but was killed with the bloody axe which cut the thread of so many lives in England.

King Edward the Fourth (1442-1463) was not quite twenty-one years of age when he took the unquiet seat upon the throne of England (in March, 1461). The Lancaster party, the Red Roses, were then assembling in great numbers near York, and it was necessary to give them battle instantly. The White and the Red Roses met, on a wild March day when the snow was
falling heavily (on the 28-th of March) at Towton (see above); and there such a furious battle raged between them, that the total loss amounted to forty thousand men — all Englishmen, fighting upon English ground, against one another. The young King gained the victory, took the heads of his father and brother from the walls of York, and put up the heads of some of the most famous noblemen, who had fought in the battle on the other side. Then he went to London and was crowned with great splendour.

Although Edward was the new crowned king, the war was by no means over. In 1464 Somerset revolted, along with Margaret. Queen Margaret was still active for her young son. Scotland and Normandy helped her, and she took some important English castles. But Warwick soon retook them; the Queen lost all her treasure on board ship in a great storm; and both she and her son suffered great misfortunes. Once, in the winter weather, when they were riding through a forest, they were attacked by robbers; and, when they had escaped from these men and were passing alone on foot through a thick dark part of the wood, they suddenly met another robber. So, the Queen took the little Prince by the hand, went up straight to that robber and said to him: "My friend, this is the young son of your lawful King. I confide him to your care!" The robber was surprised, but took the boy in his arms and faithfully restored him to their friends. But the Queen's soldiers soon were beaten and dispersed, she went abroad again, and kept quiet for the present.

Now all this time, the deposed King Henry VI was concealed in the castle of a Welsh knight. When the Lancaster party rose again, they called Henry out of his retirement to put him at the head of them. As usual, every nobleman was ready to break their oaths, when they thought they could get something by it. One of the worst things in the history of the war of the Red and White Roses is the ease, with which those noblemen, who should set an example of honour to the people, left either side and joined the other — when they were disappointed in their greedy expectations.

The Red Rose was soon beaten, and Henry had a narrow escape, but the enemies seized him and sent him to London. The Earl of Warwick met him and ordered to put Henry upon a horse with his legs tied
under it, and the deposed King was paraded three times round the pillory. Then he was sent to the Tower.

When the White Rose had won a victory, the young king Edward gave himself to pleasures and led a jovial life. And the Earl of Warwick was usually called the King-Maker, because of his power and influence, and because he had helped Edward to become the King.

Now, Edward had a quarrel with Warwick. A new rising took place in Lincolnshire, and the King marched to repress it. Having done so, he proclaimed that the Earl of Warwick and the Duke of Clarence were traitors, who had secretly assisted the rising. So they both sailed to the French court.

And here the meeting took place between the Earl of Warwick and his old enemy, Queen Margaret. But now, when she saw that he devoted himself to restoration of the House of Lancasters, she embraced him as her dearest friend. She even married her son to his second daughter. Warwick and his men now invaded England; Edward fled to Flanders, and Henry VI was restored (1470). But next year Edward returned with Burgundian help, and was welcomed back to London. In a battle fought at Barnet (1471) Warwick the King-Maker was defeated and killed. On the same day Margaret also landed in England and began to march northwards; but she was overtaken and defeated by Edward, and her son was killed. A fortnight later Henry VI died in the Tower. Such sudden deaths were so common here — of course, he was secretly murdered by the King's order.

Although the Wars of the Roses were led chiefly by the nobles, they inevitably prevented the trade and the general prosperity of the country. Most Englishmen were therefore satisfied that the King gave them peace and security at last. But the King after this great defeat of Lancaster party began to think about making war on France. He raised an army and passed over to Calais. As nobody wanted war, however, the French King made a proposal of peace, which was accepted, and a truce was concluded at Pecquigny (1475) for seven long years. The Kings of France and England on this occasion treated one another very friendly, very splendid, and very distrustful. They finished with a meeting between the two Kings, on a temporary bridge over the river Somme, where they embraced through two holes in a strong wooden grating like a lion's cage, and made several bows, and fine speeches to one another.

The rest of Edward's reign was spent in peace. He died in 1483, in the forty-second year of his life, and the twenty-third of his reign. He left a young son twelve years of age.

For one thing Edward's reign was especially memorable; in 1477 William Caxton (1422 -1491) introduced printing into England. He set up his press in the shadow of Westminster Abbey, and began to translate different works, chiefly from French, and to publish them by this new means. Naturally these works were largely chivalrous romances and tales such as would appeal to his noble patrons.

Comprehension questions

1. Characterise in brief the Wars of the Roses.
2. What changes of rulers followed in 1461 and 1483?
3. What was William Caxton?

39. EDWARD V

This Edward (1470-1483) did not either reign or live long. When his father died, he was at Ludlow Castle with his uncle, the Earl of Rivers. The Prince's brother, the Duke of York, only eleven years old, was in London with his mother, Queen Elizabeth. The boldest, craftiest, and most dreaded nobleman in England at that time was their uncle Richard, Duke of Gloucester, and everybody wondered how the two poor boys would fare with such an uncle for a friend or a foe.

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The Queen was anxious that instructions should be sent to Lord Rivers to raise an army to escort the young King safely to London. But Lord Hastings argued against the proposal, and made the Queen be satisfied with an escort of two thousand horse. The Duke of Gloucester came from Scotland to York and was there the first to swear the allegiance to his nephew.

The young King was journeying to London with Lord Rivers and Lord Grey. Very suddenly the Duke of Gloucester ordered to arrest the lords, charging them with alienating from him the affections of his sweet nephew.

A few days afterwards the Duke of Gloucester and the Duke of Buckingham conducted the King to London, and placed him in the Bishop's Palace. But he did not remain there long; for the Duke of Buckingham with a tender face explained how anxious he was for the Royal boy's safety, and how much safer he would be in the Tower until his coronation. So, the boy was taken to the Tower, and the Duke of Gloucester was named Protector of the State.

Although the Duke of Gloucester was a very clever man, fair of speech, and not at all ill-looking, in spite of one of his shoulders being somewhat higher than the other — and although he had come into the City riding bare-headed at the King's side, and looking very fond of him — the King's mother became only more uneasy; and when the Royal boy was taken to the Tower, she became so alarmed, that she took sanctuary in Westminster with her five daughters.

In some days the Duke of Gloucester turned up unexpectedly in the Tower at the Council, and appeared to be very jocular and merry. In a little time, however, he became quite altered — not at all gay — frowning and fierce — and suddenly said: "What do those persons deserve who are guilty for my destruction; I being the King's lawful, as well as natural, protector?"

To this strange question Lord Hastings replied, that they deserved death, whosoever they were.

"Then", said the Duke, "I tell you that they are that sorceress, my brother's wife", meaning the Queen, "and the other sorceress, Jane Shore, who, by witchcraft, have withered my body, and caused my arm to shrink".

He then pulled up his sleeve and showed them his arm, which was shrunken, it is true, but which had been so, as they very well knew, from the hour of his birth.

Jane Shore was then the lover of Lord Hastings, as she had formerly been of the late King.

"Certainly, my lord, if they have done this, they must be punished", answered that lord in confusion.

"If?" said the Duke of Gloucester, "do you talk to me of ifs? I tell you that they have so done, thou traitor!"

With this, he struck the table a great blow with his fist. This was a signal to some of his people outside to cry "Treason!" They immediately did so, and there was a rush into the chamber of so many armed men that it was filled in a moment.

"First", said the Duke of Gloucester to Lord Hastings, "I arrest thee, traitor! And let him", he added to the armed men who took him, "have a priest at once, for by St. Paul I will not dine until I have seen his head off!"

Lord Hastings was taken to the green by the Tower chapel and there beheaded on a log of wood that happened to be lying on the ground. Then the Duke dined with a good appetite, and after dinner told the principal citizens that Lord Hastings and the rest wanted to murder both himself and the Duke of Buckingham.

After that he hinted that the princes were not the children of the late King.

Having now all things ready for his own advancement, he made a friar preach a sermon at the cross which stood in front of St. Paul's Cathedral. The friar repeated that the princes were not the late King's sons. "Whereas, good people", he said, "my lord the Protector, the Duke of Gloucester, that sweet prince is the perfect image and express likeness of his father". There had been a little plot between the Duke and the friar that the Duke should appear in the crowd at this moment, when he expected that the people would cry "Long live King Richard!" But
either the friar pronounced those words too early or the Duke came too late, the Duke and the words did not come together, and the people only laughed, and the friar sneaked off ashamed.

The Duke of Buckingham went to the Guildhall next day, and addressed the citizens in the Lord Protector's behalf. A few dirty men who had been hired cried then: "God save King Richard".

Next day, to make an end of it, the Duke of Buckingham with the mayor and some lords and citizens went to Bayard Castle, by the river, where Richard then was, and read an address, humbly entreating him to accept the Crown of England. Richard, who looked down upon them out of a window and pretended to be in great alarm, assured them there was nothing he desired less, and that his deep affection for his nephews forbade him to think of it. To this the Duke of Buckingham replied with pretended warmth, that the free people of England would never submit to his nephew's rule, and that if Richard, who was the lawful heir, refused the Crown, they must find someone else to wear it.

Upon that, the people cheered and dispersed; and the Duke of Gloucester and the Duke of Buckingham passed a pleasant evening, talking over the play they had just acted with so much success, and every word of which they had prepared together.

Comprehension questions

1. What was the unfortunate fate of Edward V?
2. Speak of how Richard, Duke of Gloucester, came to power.

40. RICHARD III (1452-1485)  
(After Charles Dickens)

In the morning King Richard went to Westminster Hall. In the Hall was a marble seat, upon which he sat himself down between two great noblemen, and told the people that he began the new reign, because his first duty was to maintain justice. He then mounted his horse and rode back to the City, where he was received by the clergy and the crowd as if he really had a right to the throne, and really was a just man. The clergy and the crowd must have been rather ashamed of themselves in secret, I think, for being so poor-spirited.
The new King and the Queen were soon crowned with a great deal of show and noise. He was crowned a second time at York, and while he was there, King Richard sent instructions home for one of the wickedest murders that ever was done — the murder of the two young princes, his nephews, who were shut up in the Tower of London.

King Richard sent a letter to Sir Robert Brackenbury, the Governor of the Tower, ordering him to put the young princes to death. But Sir Robert — I hope because he had children of his own and loved them — sent the King's messenger back again, riding and spurring along the dusty road, with the answer that he could not do such a horrible work. The King called to him Sir James Tyrrel, his master of the horse, and to him gave authority to take command of the Tower for twenty-four hours, and to keep all the keys of the Tower during that space of time. Tyrrel, well knowing what was wanted, chose two assistants; one of them was a murderer by trade. Then he went, upon a day in August, to the Tower, took the command for four-and-twenty hours, and obtained the possession of the keys. And when the black night came, he went cheeping, creeping, like a guilty villain as he was, up the stone winding stairs, and along the dark stone passages, until he came to the door of the room where the two princes lay fast asleep. And while he watched and listened at the door, he sent in those evil demons, his assistants, who smothered the two princes with the bed and pillows, and carried their bodies down the stairs, and buried them under a great heap of stones at the staircase foot. And when the day came, he gave up the command of the Tower, and restored the keys, and hurried away without once looking behind him; and Sir Robert Brackenbury went with fear and sadness to the princes' room, and found the princes gone for ever.

You know, through all this history, how true it is that traitors are never true, and you will not be surprised to learn that the Duke of Buckingham soon turned against King Richard, and joined a great conspiracy. Richard intended to keep the murder secret; but when he heard through his spies about this conspiracy, and that many lords and gentlemen drank in secret to the health of the two princes in the Tower, he made it known that they were dead. The conspirators soon resolved to set the crown against the murderous Richard, Henry, Earl of Richmond, grandson of Catherine: that widow of Henry the Fifth. And as Henry was of the house of Lancaster, they proposed that he should marry the Princess Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of the late King, now the heiress of the house of York, and thus by uniting the rival families put an end to the fatal Wars of the Red and White Roses. A time was appointed for Henry to come over from Brittany, and to raise a great revolt against Richard — in several parts of England at the same hour. On a certain day, therefore, in October, the revolt took place; but unsuccessfully. Henry was driven back at sea by a storm, his followers in England were dispersed, and the Duke of Buckingham was taken and at once beheaded in the marketplace at Salisbury.

A Parliament was called, and declared Richard to be the rightful King of England, and his only son Edward, then eleven years of age, the next heir to the throne.

Richard decided to marry Princess Elizabeth to his son, because she was remembered by the people as the heiress of the house of York. So he went to the Sanctuary at Westminster, where the late King's widow and her daughter still were, and besought them to come to where (he swore by everything and anything) they should be safely and honourably entertained. They came, but had scarcely been at Court a month when Richard's son died suddenly — or was poisoned — and his plan crashed to pieces.

King Richard thought: "I must have another plan". And he made the plan of marrying the Princess Elizabeth himself. There was one difficulty in the way: Queen Ann, his wife, was alive. But he knew how to remove that obstacle, and he made love to the Princess Elizabeth, telling her he was sure the Queen would die in February. The Princess openly declared she loved him dearly; and when February came and the Queen did not die, she expressed her impatient opinion that she was too long about it. However, King Richard was not so far out in that prediction, but that she died in March — he took good care of that — and the pair hoped
to be married. But the idea of such a marriage was so unpopular in the country, that the King was even obliged to declare in public that he had never thought of such a thing.

He was, by this time, hated by all classes of his subjects. His nobles deserted every day to Henry's side; he dared not call another Parliament, lest his crimes should not be denounced there. It was said, that he dreamed frightful dreams because of his conscience, and started in the night-time, wild with terror and remorse. At last he heard that Henry of Richmond and his followers were coming against him with a Fleet from France; and took the field as fierce and savage as a wild boar — the animal represented on his shield.

Henry of Richmond landed with six thousand men at Milford Haven (1485), then encamped in Leicester with an army twice as great, through North Wales. On Bosworth Field the two armies met, and Richard, looking along Henry's ranks, and seeing them crowded with the English nobles who had abandoned him, turned pale. But he was as brave as he was wicked, and plunged into the thickest of the battle.

Richard's desperate glance caught Henry of Richmond among a little group of his knights. Riding hard at them and crying, "Treason!" he killed his standard-bearer, fiercely unhorsed another gentleman, and aimed a powerful stroke at Henry himself, to cut him down. But Sir William Stanley parried it as it fell, and before Richard could raise his arm again, he was unhorsed and killed. Lord Stanley picked up the crown, all trampled and stained with blood, and put it upon Richmond's head, amid loud and rejoicing cries of "Long Live King Henry!"

That night a horse was led up to the church of Grey Friars at Leicester, across whose back was tied, like some worthless sack, a naked body brought there for burial. It was the body of the last of the Plantagenet line, King Richard the Third, usurper and murderer, killed at the battle of Bosworth Field on the 22nd of August, 1485, in the thirty-second year of his age, after a reign of two years.

This ended the War of the Roses, finished the internecine bickerings and prepared the way for the economic development of the country. Supported by the Parliament and by the gentry and the townsfolk, Henry Tudor established the new Tudor dynasty.

With the power of big landlords undermined by the long internecine war, Henry VII Tudor (1485-1509) disbanded the troops of the remaining nobles, destroyed their castles and made their lands his royal possessions. England entered a new stage of absolute royal power and became a powerful centralized state.

Comprehension questions

1. Describe Richard III's crimes.

2. How was he dealt with by Henry Tudor?

41. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL LIFE IN THE MIDDLE AGES

Class distinction. Political events have little meaning or interest unless we know something about the conditions under which the general life of a nation is being lived. We cannot really understand the history of a country till we know a social life of the people; we must be acquainted with the different classes of the population in peace and in war, at home and at market, and we must have some notion of their ideals as reflected in art and education.

When the English invaders came to this island, they found a civilisation superior than their own; the cities of the Roman-British Empire were especially unfamiliar to them, and were attacked and destroyed. They themselves were an agricultural people and were rather afraid of the enclosed fortresses of the enemy; it took them a century and a half to understand that cities like Bath and Gloucester might be profitably preserved.

In the Old English period society was divided into three clear divisions, king, thegn (earls and knights) and ceorl (villeins, peasants), and that local administration was equally clearly
subdivided into shire, hundred, vill (township), and manor. The landholders of the shire met in the shire moot under the presidency of the sheriff (the king's officer), and gave judgement on the cases which were brought before them by the representatives of the subdivisions. The hundred, originally an association of families, and then the name was given to the district inhabited by them, had a similar system and tried similar cases. The vill was the name for a township, its members had to plough their fields in common and graze their cattle upon common land. But as land was the source of all national taxation, the most important institution of the time was the unit for the payment of taxes; that unit was the manor.

The Manor: Land was of two kinds: there was folk-land and book-land, the former being held not by the folk in common, but by a tenure known as folk-right; the latter being (granted by "book" or "charter" from the king) held by the ultimate owner of all land. We may say that the manor contained land of two kinds, that of the lord, and that of the villeins. The lord's land was known as his property, and his villeins worked on it. Later on, as use of payment in money increased, the lord found it desirable to receive money, so he consented to the practice of commutation, when villeins exchanged their labour for money payment.

As the lord exacted service from the villeins, so the king exacted service and taxation from him. Military service at the field with a prescribed number of followers for a prescribed time was only part of his obligations; he had also to give three other feudal aids — to help the king to knight his eldest son, to dower his daughter, and to ransom himself. Military service was commuted by Henry II, for a payment of two shillings or every knight's fee.

The feudal manor, the feudal economy unit with its natural economy, was in no striking way different in equipment from a peasant holding. The predominantly wooden implements such as wooden harrows, a number of ploughs where only the share was of iron, since iron was inordinately expensive, sickles and scythes, pitch-forks and carts, no fertilizers, extensive cultivation, low yields characterized the agriculture.

The three-field crop rotation system which became universal was an improvement as compared to the two-field system, was resorted to for shortage of arable land. More woods and waste land cleared, swamps and marshes drained gave additional arable areas; new settlements appeared to cultivate them, the virtues of intensive agriculture as against extensive perfunctory tillage were extolled in the first treatise on agriculture.

The lords, no longer content with their scattered, though numerous strips of land, sought to have separate arable areas, and so introduced enclosed fields (enclosures), the practice that was the chief cause of the eventual decay of villeinage. Wool was becoming a key to wealth. It was discovered how much easier it could be to grow wool on the sheep's backs than to grow grain on the poorly cultivated fields, and the difference in how many hands were wanted was striking. Here were not only home markets ready to dispose of wool, towns were beginning to develop wool-processing; foreign markets were open to receive English wool. The wool was shipped to the markets of Flandres and Holland, where a lot of textile manufactures emerged.

Sheep couldn't be kept in open fields, and so the lords began mass enclosures. Enclosure consisted in the seizure of common lands by rich landowners and displacement of peasants from them. Peasants were literally driven off the common land. Enclosure and sheep herding required very few labourers, so it resulted in destitution, unemployment, mass pauperization, severe punishment for vagrancy, tens of thousands executions, as well as decreased domestic grain production, which made grain prices high and resulted in frequent famines.

When the Black Death swept Europe in 1348-1351, it left about 30% of the population dead. This greatly affected the English peasants, already suffering from the enclosure, because there was a labour shortage and food was scarce. There was a law passed at the end of the Black Death to stop the peasants taking advantage of the shortage of workers and demanding more money. Peasants were forced to work for the same wages as before, and landowners could insist on labour services being performed, instead of accepting money (commutation).
This meant that the landowners could profit from shortages, whilst life was made very much harder for the peasants. The discontent was rife amongst the poor, but the uprisings were severely choked.

Barons more and more preferred to hire wage labourers who would not require vigilant overseers and would not, even nominally, be a responsibility. This advent on the scene of great masses of hired labourers also reflected the crisis of the manor.

The 13th century witnessed the birth of the new class of gentry, new nobles, small landowners who found it easier to adapt their less ponderous economy to the period when money rent was beginning to play an increasingly predominant role. With these small feudal knights personal labour of villeins was never of much use because of the limited nature of their agricultural operations; they had early been inclined to busy themselves with their economy and trade if need be, than, like their grander neighbours, to follow the king to war and glory and consider plunder as an asset. The class of gentry as the knights were then called collectively, was not exclusive at all: a wealthy peasant who sold enough wool to buy his freedom and then sold still more to become genteel, or a craftsman citizen who accumulated an income of 40 pound sterling, could be knighted and get included or get his son included, into this layer (the gentry) that was becoming increasingly important in the economic and political life of the country.

Class differentiation that was rapidly progressing among peasants was no the former division into villeins and free holders, but a more modern division into the rich and the poor. This differentiation progressed more rapidly among the free peasants. The more sly and unscrupulous among them, those who could take advantage of a neighbour’s hour of need, such as sickness or death, would buy additional land right, take an impoverished neighbour’s land on lease, drive better bargains, etc. But even if the villein could grow more wool and get rich he would still be bound to his lord’s soil if the lord preferred his labour to the money, which was generally the case with great lords. And then the money accumulated with great pains would all go to pay for the right of inheriting his father’s land right, according to the feudal law.

Parliament. Under the Anglo-Saxon Kings, there was an advisory council, the Witenagemot ("meeting of wise men"). As part of the Norman Conquest of England, the new King, William I, did away with the Witenagemot, replacing it with a Curia Regis ("King's Council"). Membership of the Curia was largely restricted to the tenants in chief, the few nobles who "rented" great estates directly from the King, along with certain senior ecclesiastics. This body is the origin from which the Royal Privy Council with the Star Chamber and Cabinet have sprung. They were plainly upper-class secretive bodies of power, excluding the participation of broader populace. Later the Parliament (the Great Council) and the High Court of Parliament appeared.

Most historians date the emergence of a parliament with some degree of power to which the throne had to defer no later than the rule of Edward I. Like previous kings, Edward called

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4The Star Chamber (Latin: Camera stellata) was an English court of law that sat at the royal Palace of Westminster from 1398 until 1641 (it was revived under the Thatcher government 1979–90 until to date.) It was made up of Privy Counsellors, as well as common-law judges and supplemented the activities of the common-law and equity courts in both civil and criminal matters. The court was set up to ensure the fair enforcement of laws against prominent people, those so powerful that ordinary courts could never convict them of their crimes. Court sessions were held in secret (secret trials), with no indictments, no right of appeal, no juries, and no witnesses. Evidence was presented in writing. Over time it evolved into a political weapon, a symbol of the misuse and abuse of power by the English monarchy and courts.

In modern usage, legal or administrative bodies with strict, arbitrary rulings and secretive proceedings are sometimes called, metaphorically or poetically, star chambers. This is a pejorative term and intended to cast doubt on the legitimacy of the proceedings. The inherent lack of objectivity of any politically motivated charges has led to substantial reforms in English law in most jurisdictions since that time.
leading nobles and church leaders to discuss government matters, especially finance. A meeting in 1295 became known as the Model Parliament because it set the pattern for later Parliaments. The significant difference between the Model Parliament and the earlier Curia Regis was the addition of the Commons, that is, elected representatives of rural landowners and of townsmen. In 1307, Edward I agreed not to collect certain taxes without consent of the realm. He also enlarged the court system.

The tenants-in-chief often struggled with their religious counterparts and with the King for power. In 1215, they secured from John the Magna Carta, which established that the King may not levy or collect any taxes (except the feudal taxes to which they were hitherto accustomed), save with the consent of a council. It was also established that the most important tenants-in-chief and ecclesiastics be summoned to the council by personal writs from the Sovereign, and that all others be summoned to the council by general writs from the sheriffs of their counties. Modern government has its origins in the Curia Regis; parliament descends from the Great Council later known as the parliamentum established by Magna Carta.

The English Parliaments during the reign of King Henry III in the 13th century incorporated elected representation from shires and towns, and is considered the forerunner of the modern parliament. In 1265, Simon de Montfort, 6th Earl of Leicester, who was in rebellion against Henry III, summoned a parliament of his supporters without royal authorisation. The archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls and barons were summoned, as were two knights from each shire and two burgesses from each borough. Knights had been summoned to previous councils, but the representation of the boroughs was unprecedented.
De Montfort's scheme of representation and election was formally adopted by Edward I in the so-called "Model Parliament" of 1295. At first, each estate debated independently; by the reign of Edward III, however, Parliament had been separated into two Houses – the House of Lords and the House of Commons - and was recognisably assuming its modern form.

Towns. In times of violence, protection is not to be found in the open country, and so, especially after the Danish invasions, we find a considerable number of towns in England. They had two origins — either in the burg or strongly fortified place, or in the “tun”, the enclosure round a house or estate. That the people so concentrated together for protection or trade sometimes called it their ham, or home, we see from such names as Nottingham. If such a settlement was founded by the Danes, we can guess it by the names of such places as Whitby, for their “by” is the English “tun”. In other cases a town may have grown round a large monastery.

But in whatever way they arose, we find by the time of Edward the Confessor that every country had at any rate one chief town, which belonged to several lords, who used it partly as their own town houses, and partly for their burgurers or fighting men in periods of peace. Just as the country dwellers had their shire moot, so the town dwellers had their borough moot; and to correspond the sheriff there was the reeve to collect taxes and dues in return for the privileges granted to the burgesses; the reeve, too, held the local courts to administer justice, and became the town's representative in all affairs with the King. But privileges were not granted by the king alone. After the Conquest the Norman lords granted charters to the towns. The charter usually gave a form of self-government, and from the thirteenth century the towns had a mayor and aldermen. By burgesses we must not understand all the inhabitants of a town; the burgesses were originally holders of land or of a house within the town, and holders of a strip of agricultural land immediately outside the town; they alone paid the dues to the king, and they therefore kept the government of the town to themselves.

The towns (there were over 160 in the 13th c.) began to lose their semi-agrarian nature and gradually a demand was developing for foodstuffs that the craftsmen did not produce but consumed. Fairs were beginning to be a not wholly unimportant feature of the town life and the manor owners were not above making some money that way, so that part of the manorial economy was aimed at producing no longer food only, but goods as well, to be sold either at the fairs or, more conveniently, still, to professional buyers who could sell, grain especially, not only at the local market, but at the foreign markets of France, Flandres, Holland, Norway, etc.

Guilds. Even before the Norman Conquest the inhabitants of towns had begun to associate themselves into clubs or guilds for special objects and in special interests. These objects may be grouped into three classes and gave rise to the social or religious guild, the craft guild, and the guild merchant. The social or religious guilds flourished between the thirteenth and the sixteenth centuries and were suppressed in 1547-1548, when their property was confiscated by the Crown.

The craft guilds were composed by men following the same trade for the protection and regulation of that trade. The standard of workmanship, the number and training of apprentices, the conditions of work — all that was for the guild to regulate through its officers. They arose about the beginning of the twelfth century, and had become so important by the fourteenth that their government was usually in the hands of the town authorities, the mayor and aldermen. In the fifteenth century York had as many as sixty craft guilds. In London there are still eighty.

Even more connected with the government of the town were the merchant guilds; indeed, from the thirteenth century they may be said to merge with that government. They were associations of burgesses who obtained privileges from the king for their commerce. While their constitution was much the same as that of the other guilds, their object was rather to monopolise trade within the town for themselves, as opposed to the rest inhabitants, and to
escape dues and customs when trading outside the town. As they controlled the whole trade of the town, their importance and influence were naturally considerable; they could supply town councils, and it is certain that the Guild hall often became the Town hall. Like the craft guilds, they stood for honesty in trade; as the former insisted on good workmanship, so they insisted on proper weights and proper processes.

Fairs and Markets. But local trade was not entirely in the hands of the guilds; outside traders were admitted at certain times and on certain conditions. The owner of the market reaped a rich harvest in return for its general convenience. At the time of Domesday Book there were some fifty markets in England, and although at first a good deal of fraud was practised in them, by the end of the thirteenth century a sound market law had been established.

In order to give merchants from afar or from abroad an opportunity to sell their goods, every year or two a great fair would be held — possibly at first on the occasion of a general holiday, or at some special place of pilgrimage. Happy were the landowners, on whose lands a fair was held, for it brought them great profits; often some monastery had obtained the privilege from the king. As long as the fair lasted, markets and shops were closed. The nourishing period for fairs was in the thirteenth century, when some two thousand were granted by the Crown.

Foreign Trade. Even as early as the end of the seventh century there was some commercial intercourse between England and the Continent. At the end of the eighth we find Offa and Charlemagne corresponding about the protection of each other's merchants in their respective countries. The coming of the Danes opened up the new fields for trade with Iceland and the north. But it was the Norman Conquest which gave the first great impulse to foreign trade; Flemish weavers were brought over by Henry I, and builders and masons came in large numbers from Normandy. Foreign traders and merchants were usually protected by special charters, and formed what was practically foreign settlements on English ground; often their status was decided by agreements between their native towns on the Continent and towns in which they settled in England. They were, in fact, members of trading companies not unlike the East India Company of later times.

But, of course, there were many foreign merchants who traded with England on their own account: wool was bought by Italians, wine was sold by French and Gascons; Jews, until expulsion from England in Edward I's reign, lent money to approved creditors at handsome rates of interest.

A large part of the political history of the Middle Ages hinges upon the pressure brought to bear from time to time upon the Crown by the increasingly prosperous trading classes to discourage foreign trade. Ambitious monarchs like Edward III, eager to pursue a spirited foreign policy, were too dependent on the help of foreign merchants, capitalists and bankers to pay much heed to their jealous subjects; Henry IV secured the throne largely by their assistance; but when the Yorkists relied upon the towns for success against their rivals, the towns were able to insist upon their rewards in a protective policy which taxed foreign competition.

Comprehension questions

2. Speak about the manor and its eventual decline.
4. Speak on medieval towns.
5. Speak on the emergence of the guilds.
6. Discuss the foreign trade in medieval England.
The literary legacy of the 11-13th cc. was chiefly represented by Chivalric poetry, in French at first and later in English, in the form of versified romance. Many medieval romances recount the marvellous adventures of a chivalrous, heroic knight, often of superhuman ability, who, abiding chivalry's strict codes of honor and demeanor, goes on a quest, and fights and defeats monsters and giants, thereby winning favor with a lady. The story of the medieval romance focuses not upon love and sentiment, but upon adventure.

King Arthur, hero of the Celtic anti-Saxon struggle of the 6th c., is transformed in the chivalric romance of the 11th-13th cc. into a hero of feudal knightly literature. The poems were in French, only later on, in the 13th and 14th cc. they were written in English; those that survived the ravages of time and came down to us are such as “Arthur”, “Arthur and Merlin”, “Launcelot of the Lake”, “Morte d’Arthur” and a few others.

The latter third of the fourteenth century is remarkable for the advent of Geoffrey Chaucer and his contemporaries John Gower, William Langland, and the Gawain poet (the unidentified poet who wrote Sir Gawain and the Green Knight), who were heirs to classical and medieval cultures that had been evolving for many centuries.

As to the folk-lore of the period, it was oral and therefore little of it has survived though what Langland and Chaucer used later on shows that the folk-lore literature did not languish. The development of towns brought about early bourgeois literature, fabliaux borrowed from France with smart sly townsmen getting the better of knights and priests, stories that were far from romantic, often showing coarse tastes and morals.

Science. The 12th century was the time when the oldest English University was founded in Oxford (1167) to remain the principal centre of science for centuries, centre of medieval scholasticism, controlled by the church. It was also a centre of resistance to its stupefying influence. The scientific revival of the 13th century brought the ideas of Aristotle in the interpretation of a few great thinkers which gave English, that is, Anglo-Norman scholasticism its essential character. From the 13th c. onwards charters were granted to the Universities (in 1209 another University was established in Cambridge) which strengthened their position of independence, sort of autonomy. The townsman and the scholars, “the Town and Gown” in the phrase of the time, were two hostile camps, sometimes at war and sometimes allies like at the time of the Civil War (1258-1263).

All this time the cultural influence of France never ceased. French monks, the religious orders of Franciscans, Dominicans and Carmelites came in the 13th c. It was from their midst that the first light burst upon the scholastic darkness of medieval logicians who made theology the centre of all, their philosophical searchings, employed deduction as their only method scorning original observation and investigation and preached the triviality of earthly life which was to be regarded only as a preparation for eternity.

But materialism budded out from the depths of theology. Duns Scotus (1266-1308), a theology professor in Oxford, argued that the concepts people deal with are but reflection in the people's minds of the outside-existing objects. Proving the priority of matter and the derived nature of ideas Duns Scotus was initiating the materialistic approach to the facts of life. Robert Grosseteste (died in 1253), the Bishop of Lincoln, was one of the Franciscan monks, and during the reign of Henry III he used his pen and his Oxford lectures to condemn the king's claims to unlimited rule.

One of his pupils was Roger Bacon (ab. 1214-1292), a thinker with whose name the beginning of natural sciences in England is inseparably connected. He saw that medieval science tended to the encyclopaedic form. Leaders of scholastic science like Thomas Aquinas (1225-1274) accumulated stores of knowledge; but strict adherence to the scholastic methods of deduction and reference to authorities made the whole thing dead, for the scientists turned away from facts of a changing life, which doomed science to failure. One of Roger Bacon’s
teachers, Albertus Magnus, had seen the deficiencies of that approach, and he must have imparted the scepticism to Bacon. Albertus Magnus was not only a theologian and philosopher, he was also far in advance of his time in the fields of physics and chemistry; personal experience and observation formed the basis of his approach. Roger Bacon mastered mathematics, optics, alchemy, astronomy and was soon able to criticize Thomas Aquinas, theologians and other scholastics, reversing all the methods of thought by refuting the idea of absolute authority and extolling experience instead. Bacon’s book “Opus Majus” about every sort of knowledge, was called the encyclopaedia of the thirteenth century, in it he speaks of geography, grammar, music, languages, arithmetic, and many other matters.

For his materialism, Bacon was found guilty of “heresy”, and not allowed to teach and had to spend 14 years in prison where, by the way, he must have worked quite fruitfully, for after he served the prison term he came out with valuable inventions and a new book.

Bacon was very much a product of his time, practising Alchemy, fervently believing in the coming of the Antichrist, insisting that Christian religion should pervade all legal matters, even believing the mythical beasts like the basilisk. "Scientific experiments" of the time often involved tempting good or evil spirits, or looking for the elixir of life. Bacon believed that experiment was necessary to support theory, but for him the theory as presented in the Bible was true and the experiment only underlined that truth. One of Bacon's lasting contributions was his references to gunpowder, which had been known for centuries in China, bringing this discovery to the general attention of literate Europeans. By 1324, Europeans had discovered the art of using gunpowder to fire a projectile, marking the end of the period of castles and knights in armor.

Education. In early times the only possible educators were the clergy, and it was on the clergy that Alfred chiefly relied in his efforts to teach his people. By the beginning of the thirteenth century grammar schools were to be found in most towns of England. By that time the universities of Oxford and Cambridge had arisen; the students lived in hostels under
masters of their own election. Many schools were founded after the revival of learning in the twelfth century. The education at schools connected with the universities was founded on the knowledge of Latin grammar, and at the universities they studied philosophy. At the end of the fifteenth century the influence of the new learning was felt at the universities in the revival of the study of Greek and Latin literature. At the beginning of the reign of Edward VI there were some two hundred grammar schools in England; and though many of them were destroyed under that King and his father, and turned into hospitals and chantries, others arose in Elizabeth's reign, and, in the whole, we may say that the Reformation had been beneficial to scholastic endowment.

Architecture: Churches. Of all the great arts none reflects more clearly than architecture the actual conditions of society; in the Middle Age, at least, it tells us how people worshipped, how they fought, and how they lived.

Very few examples of Anglo-Saxon architecture have survived to our time, from which we may guess that their buildings were largely of wood, as is certainly the case with Greenstead Church in Essex. We can form the conclusion that the churches of the time were small and rectangular; and that the small windows, with their rounded or triangular tops, were deeply splayed even on the outside, possibly to protect the oiled parchment from the weather.

Glass was known in Anglo-Saxon times, for Bede distinctly tells us that the windows of Benedict Bishop's church were glazed at the end of the seventh century.

When the Normans came to England, they set about rebuilding all the larger churches. Nearly two hundred of the religious houses were raised under the Conqueror and his sons. They had rounded windows and wide round arches on massive round pillars. These churches were built at a time when they might well have to be used as fortresses or places of refuge, and so the solid masonry had a real purpose. In Henry II's reign the round arches tended to become pointed, and thus prepared the way for a new style known as the Early English, which was in fashion from Richard I to Edward I.

As architecture developed, the Decorated style was gradually established, by builders like those of Exeter, Wells and Southwell (1272-1377). Simplicity gave way to magnificent ornamentation.
The arch was now built upon an equilateral triangle, and the windows were carefully ornamented. Spires became ever larger and more beautiful. The characteristic ornament is a ball flower or the cup and flower.

In the *perpendicular* style we find that arches and roofs become flatter as windows became broader. At last the windows too are flattened till they became square. Magnificent examples of this style may be seen in Henry VII's Chapel at Westminster and at King's College, Cambridge.

*Houses.* The principles which decided the forms of churches would at first decide the form of houses, and that is why some old houses look not unlike churches. But in early times houses were built rather for defence against enemies than merely for the comfort of their inhabitants. On the borders may be seen square peel towers, with one room only on each of their three or more stories. The three rooms which were enough for the needs of the family were the hall, or common living-room, the kitchen for the use of the servants, and the solar or parlour for the private use of the family. Of these three rooms, the hall was always in the middle, even in the early Norman days, when the rooms were on different stories. When all the rooms were on the same level, the hall usually had a fire in the centre and a lantern in the roof for the smoke to escape, an arrangement which survived in some cases even to Elisabeth's time. If you visit one of the colleges of Oxford or Cambridge, you will find that the hall is still between the kitchen and the parlour or withdrawing-room; while the high table in the hall itself still shows the original purpose of the room. Before the fourteenth century wood and plaster would be the commoner materials for building houses: stone was reserved for castles; but brick was not unknown even then. Even in districts remote from the border the need for defence is illustrated by the external character of the house; a moat was often made at the house in level country, and when the three rooms were no longer enough for a prosperous and settled times of the fourteenth century, the buildings are grouped round an open court — just as we may still see in many colleges.

In the very large houses there might have been two courts. A very important part of the houses was the kitchen, Glastonbury and Trinity-college, Cambridge, illustrate their size and help us to realise the hospitality they served.

Even in the fifteenth century the purpose of defence was not the last one, great, comfortable brick houses still have the moat. But it is in the next century that domestic architecture really developed on lines suitable to itself, although still based upon the old arrangement. Comfort and art are now the dominant notes; bay-windows, great fireplaces, and broad staircases are set off by fine paintings and finer tapestries.

*Castles and Art of War.* We have already seen that houses were at first essentially fortresses; we have now to glance at the military conditions which determined, from time to time, the methods of defence and attack.

The Old English fought on foot, as a rule, with no other defence than a wooden shield, although helmets and mail-shirts were not unknown. They fought too at close range, so that they preferred the spear and a dagger to the bow or the javelin; axes and swords were uncommon. It was the Danes who brought the axe into common use as a weapon of offence. As they lived in open townships and villages, they had no liking for the cramped life of castles, and fortifications were only forced upon them by the Danish invasions. Alfred not only gave his countrymen a navy, but built them rude strong *burgs*, to resist the enemy. In his time, too, iron helmets and mail-shirts became more known, and were, indeed, compulsory for the thegns or chiefs. When at the same time, the *fyrd*, or national militia, was organized, so that one half went to war while the other half tilled the fields at home, it became necessary for every man to range himself under a "lord"; a "lordless" man became impossible.

The Normans relied upon their feudal cavalry as the chief arm of their fighting force, and used their infantry as archers and slingers to prepare the way for a cavalry. They repaired the old English burgs and strengthened them by building wooden and, later, stone castles. Indeed,
the Norman castle was at first merely a development of the burg, the palisade being replaced by a stone wall. In course of time further outer walls were added, with towers in them as an additional defence; for the castle was planned entirely for defence, and in the days of its perfection could be reduced only by famine. Chateau Gaillard, built by Richard I, after his return from the Crusades, is a splendid example; it has two outer wards, stubbed with circular towers, as one inner ward; into this inner ward is built the keep. This defensive characteristic of the Norman castle explains why in the eleventh and twelfth centuries we read of so many more sieges than open battles.

The fame of English arms in the Middle Ages arose from the longbow-men. Before the reign of Edward I the archer had usually been armed with the crossbow. Its home was in South Wales, and it was largely by Welsh archers that the battle of Falkirk was won in 1298, the battle that saw the defeat of William Wallace by King Edward I of England. Then the English archers began to use longbows, with which they won the Battle of Cressy in the Hundred Years' War.

Gunpowder revolutionised the art of war by proving too strong both for castles and armour; firearms too eventually superseded the longbow. Flodden (1513, the reign of Henry VIII) was the last archers' battle.

Monasteries. War and violence were such everyday incidents of early medieval society that to escape from them quiet people had to retire from the world altogether. But the early idea of monasticism — living by oneself — soon gave way in Western Europe to the conviction that the highest spiritual good was to be gained by a "common" life among other spiritually minded men. The form of monasticism in England was the rule of St. Benedict, a saint who lived in the sixth century.

The vows undertaken by a monk were poverty, chastity, and obedience. For long the life of the inmates was above reproach in the monasteries; but when their sheep and mines brought them wealth, they fell away from their high ideas. Right down to the time of the Dissolution under Henry VIII, they were known as the best landlords in the kingdom, and their suppression brought widespread distress. As patrons of art, particularly in the forms of building, handwriting, illumination and music they were the best agents of civilisation in the Middle Ages.

Among the monks were many begging friars, who first came as missionaries to this country in the thirteenth century. They begged their bread, and laboured among the poorest of the town poor. The two most famous orders were the Franciscans and the Dominicans.

Comprehension questions

1. Dwell on the literary legacy of medieval England.
2. Speak about medieval English science.
4. Dwell on the architecture of churches in the Middle Ages.
5. Say a few words about typical houses in medieval England.
6. Speak on castles and the art of war.
7. Dwell on the life in medieval monasteries.

43. HENRY VIII (1491-1547)

This monarch was eighteen years old when he became the English King. The country was tired of the Wars of the Roses and different pretenders and claimants who wanted to seize the English throne. All the nobility and also common people had great hopes and expectations as to the new King. There were many rumours about Henry the Eighth. Some said he was
handsome, and the others said that he was a big, burly, noisy, small-eyed, large-faced, double-chinned, swinish-looking fellow in his later life. He also had several nicknames: he was called "Bluff King Hal" and "Burly King Harry", and some other funny names.

Much depended on the character of the young king. If he should possess the shrewdness and ability of his father, the country might look forward to contentment and prosperity.

Henry VIII was anxious to make himself popular; and the people, who had long disliked the late king, were very willing to believe that he deserved to be so. He was extremely fond of show and display, and so were they. Therefore there was great rejoicing when he married the Princess Catherine, and when they were both crowned; The King often fought at tournaments and always had victories — for the courtiers took care of that.

But it transpired very soon that Henry VIII had bad qualities. It was shown by his attitude to his father's ministers; Warham and Fox were retained, but Empson and Dudley were punished. They and their supporters were accused of many crimes they had never committed; and they were set upon horses with their faces to the tails, and beheaded, to the satisfaction of the people and enrichment of the King. The real advisor, or at any rate the most influential servant, of young Henry was Thomas Wolsey (1475?-1530), who, appointed Almoner in 1509, became by 1515 Archbishop of York, Cardinal, and Chancellor. Wolsey's influence was based upon an understanding of the king's ability and his headstrong temper.

Thomas Wolsey was the son of a respectable butcher at Ipswich, in Suffolk, and received so excellent an education that he became a tutor to the family of Marquis of Dorset, who afterwards got him appointed one of the late King's chaplains. On the succession of Henry the Eighth Wolsey was taken into great favour.
Wolsey was a merry man, who could dance and jest, and sing and drink; and those were the roads to the new king's heart. His task was to achieve success by humouring the king's fancies and by working on his ambition. As chief minister he had to guide his master in home affairs, Church affairs, and foreign affairs.

At home affairs they had either to resort to financial tyranny over the nobles, or to impose unpopular taxes upon the people. In Church they had to reform many abuses.

But at the beginning of his reign Henry's ambition turned to foreign affairs; he wished the entire Continent to feel his power and influence and to restore English prestige. Wolsey's chief care was to help his master.

The state of Europe could not be more opportune. In 1511 there was a rearrangement of Continental politics. The Pope, the Emperor and the King of Spain had suddenly united with Venice in a Holy League to drive the French from Italy. Here lay Wolsey's opportunity. By joining the Holy League Henry could make his first appearance in European affairs as the successor of the old English policy against France, ignoring the fact that France would be sure to have the old alliance with Scotland. This policy seemed more natural because Henry had recently married Catherine of Aragon. But Henry's first experience of war was unfortunate. In spite of all Wolsey's efforts Henry did not win the war which was soon proclaimed between England and France, because the English king did not mind them. England made an alliance with Spain and got stupidly taken in by that country, which made its own terms with France, when it could, and left England in the lurch. After this great defeat the King took it into his head to invade France in person. He sailed to Calais where he was joined by Maximilian, Emperor of Germany, who pretended to be his soldier and took pay in his service; the Emperor flattered enough the vanity of English king.

Henry's idea of real battle chiefly consisted of pitching silken tents of bright colours that were immediately blown down by wind, and making a vast display of flags and golden curtains. It was in 1512. But fortune favoured him, and he succeeded to defeat the French at the Battle of Spurs and to subdue two not very important towns. Almost at the same time the Scottish king, James IV, had crossed the Border, but was beaten at the Battle of Flodden. The Scottish king was killed at this battle. Ten thousand Scottish men lay dead that day on Flodden field (September, 9, 1513). For a long time afterwards, the Scottish peasantry used to believe that their king had not been really killed in this battle, because no Englishman had found an iron belt he wore about his body as a penance, for he had been undutiful son. But, whatever became of his belt, the English had his sword and dagger, and the ring from his finger, and his body too, covered with wounds.
The famous writer Sir Walter Scott, who knew Scottish history very well, being a Scot himself, gave a picturesque description of Flodden battle in his poem "Marmion". Here is an extract:

"And why stands Scotland idly now,  
Dark Flodden! on thy airy brow,  
Since England gains the pass the while,  
And struggles through the deep defile?  
What checks the fiery soul of James?  
Why sits that champion of the dames  
Inactive on his steed?  
And sees, between him and his land  
Between him and Tweed's southern strand,  
His host Lord Surrey lead?"

But in spite of the victory over the Scots Henry saw that he had merely been the tool of Ferdinand, and he wanted to avenge him by concluding a peace and alliance with France.

For the next two years there was that lull in European affairs which precedes the storm. Several of the leading powers lost their old rulers, and the Continent was grouped into two great parties, headed by Charles V, King of Spain, and Francis I, King of France. This very division served to the importance of England. Wolsey found himself holding the balance of Europe. His object was to preserve peace as the best possible condition for England's interest.

Several years passed before the rivals broke the peace, and it seemed in 1518 as if Wolsey had succeeded in creating a united Europe. However, the very next year Charles V was elected to succeed his late father Maximilian. Francis I also had been a candidate for succeeding the German throne, and after his failure he became hostile to Spain. Which side should England take?

There was no doubt of her importance now; both sides courted her. But England's influence was not great enough to prevent the war which broke out in 1521, and Henry tried to support Spain, his traditional friend, against France, his traditional enemy. It was only in 1525, when the battle of Pavia had placed Francis as a prisoner in Charles's hands that Cardinal Wolsey had a real chance to restore the balance of power by an alliance with France. The chief result of this change of policy was an increase in the prestige of England, in spite of the fact that very little was effected in the field or even in the actual positions of the rivals in consequence of it.

Charles, the German Emperor, wanted to prevent the alliance between England and France, and he came to England and promised to Wolsey that he should be a Pope as soon as the next vacancy happened. On the very day when the Emperor left England, the King and all the Court went over to Calais, and then to the place of meeting, commonly called the Field of the Cloth of Gold. Here the great decorations of show were made; many of the knights and gentlemen were so superbly dressed that it was said they carried their whole estates on their shoulders.

There were sham castles, temporary chapels, fountains running wine, great cellars full of wine free as water to all comers, silk tents, gold lace, gilt lions; and in the midst of it the rich Cardinal Wolsey, out-glittered all the noblemen and gentlemen assembled. After a treaty made between the two Kings were opened the tournaments.

Of course, nothing came of all these fine doings but the speedy renewal of the war. But first we must see what happened in England, at home of Henry VIII.

At home there were two things that engaged the attention of Henry and his minister - the surviving representatives of the older branches of the royal family, and the expenses of the war. In 1521 the Duke of Buckingham was shamefully executed on Tower Hill, on the
evidence of a discharged servant — really for nothing. He had believed in a friar of Hopkins, who had pretended to be a prophet. The Duke of Buckingham was beheaded, and the people, who saw how it was done, were very angry. The execution reminded Englishmen that the Tudor dynasty was hardly yet secure of its title, and that Henry VIII was capable of crushing ruthlessly all opposition.

The new war was a short one, and did some injury to France. It ended in another treaty of peace between the two kingdoms, and in the discovery that the Emperor of Germany was not such a good friend of England in reality, as he pretended to be. And he did not keep his promise to Wolsey to make him Pope, though the King urged him to.

The Parliament of 1523 resisted an application for war expenses.

War and diplomacy were not the only interests of Wolsey.

There now arose at Wittenberg, in Germany, the great mighty change, which is called in England the Reformation, and which claimed to set people free from their slavery to the priests. Its proponent was a learned Doctor, named Martin Luther, who had been a priest, and even monk, himself. Luther said that there really was a book called the New Testament which the priests did not allow the people to read in their native language and which contained truths that they suppressed. His translation of the Bible into the vernacular instead of Latin (the native language or native dialect of a specific population) made it more accessible, causing a tremendous impact on the church and on German culture.

When Luther had just begun his work, it happened so that a friar came to his neighbourhood who sold papers which were called Indulgences. Whoever bought an Indulgence of the Pope was supposed to buy himself off from the punishment of Heaven for his sins. Luther told the people that those Indulgences were worthless bits of paper, and that those priests who sold them were only a crew of impostors in selling them.

Luther also defined certain principles which became common to Protestantism as such. He taught that salvation is not earned by good deeds but received only as a free gift of God's grace through faith in Jesus Christ as redeemer from sin. His marriage set a model, allowing Protestant priests to marry.

The King and Cardinal Wolsey were mightily indignant at this news; and the King (with the help of Sir Thomas More, a wise man (1478 -1535), whom he afterwards repaid by striking off his head) even wrote a book about it, with which the Pope was so well pleased that he gave the King the title of Defender of the Faith. The King and Wolsey even issued flaming warnings to the people not to read Luther's books. But they read them for all that; and the rumour of what was in them spread far and wide.

Comprehension questions

1. What were Henry VIII’s looks and nature?
2. Speak about Thomas Wolsey.
3. What were the first war actions of England in Europe? Were they successful? What was Henry’s notion of real battle?
4. Describe the Battle of Flodden. Why was it a dreadful blow to Scotland?
5. How did Henry intrigue with Germany and France?
6. What was Martin Luther famous for? What is Reformation?
7. How did Wolsey and Henry VIII take Luther’s teaching at first?

44. HENRY VIII. PART 2

When this great change was thus going on, the King began to show himself in his truest and worst colours. His wife Catherine did not give the King an heir, her four children died when they were very young. She was no longer young and handsome, and she had always
been melancholy. One of the Queen's ladies of attendance was Anne Boleyn, a very beautiful girl indeed. So Henry fell in love with Anne Boleyn.

**Catherine of Aragon**

Now, Queen Catherine had been the wife of Henry's brother. And the King, as if he just remembered the fact, called his favourite priests and said he was afraid that it was not lawful of him to marry the Queen! No one of priests had the courage to hint that it was rather curious he had never thought of it before; but they all said that was very true and that was very serious business; and the best way to make it right would be for his Majesty to be divorced! There were too many intrigues and plots in the way to get this divorce. The Pope, to whom Henry appealed on the ground that his conscience forbade him to remain the husband of his brother's wife, was in a dilemma. He would gladly have granted Henry's wish if only to get help against the tyranny of Charles in Italy, but on the other hand he did not dare to tease the latter by divorcing his aunt. Wolsey was in dilemma too; he hated the idea of a divorce, but had to subdue to his master's wishes. He was therefore not sorry to fall in with the Pope's plan for causing delay and to refer the matter to Campeius and himself as Papal Legates, and to try the whole case in England. But delay made Henry furious.

The Cardinals, Wolsey and Campeggio (Campeius), opened their court in the Convent of the Black Friars, near to where the bridge of that name in London now stands. On the opening of the Court, when the King and Queen were called on to appear, that poor lady went and kneeled at the King's feet and said that she had been a good and true wife to him for twenty years, and that she did not see any power in those Cardinals to try whether she should be considered his wife through all this time. With those words she stood up and left the court.
Anne Boleyn

The King pretended to be very much overcome, and said: "O! My lords and gentlemen, what a good woman she was, to be sure, and how delightful I should be to live with her unto death, but that terrible uneasiness of mind was quite wearing me away!" So the case went on, and there was nothing but talk for two months. And after some more months the Pope himself required the King and Queen to come to Rome and have it tried there. All this time the King and Anne Boleyn were writing letters to each other every day, full of impatience to have the cause settled. Now, Cardinal Wolsey did not want the King to marry Anne Boleyn, and Henry was displeased with that. The Pope went on delaying the King's divorce, and Wolsey could not and would not make the Pope finish the matter, and Henry deprived his minister of all his offices except the Archbishopric of York, and soon after that he ordered Wolsey to come to London to be tried for treason, though he knew well enough that no king ever had a more loyal servant. Wolsey was then very ill, but he was travelling towards London, when he died on the way, at Leicester Abbey. Very sad and very famous were the words of dying Cardinal: "Had I served God as faithfully as I have served my King, He would not have left me thus in my grey hairs".

So, in the first years of his reign, Henry VIII was a very splendid young king, skilled in all sports, yet skilled also in letters, and loving all magnificence. Men saw that he was ambitious and wished to be a famous king; yet he seemed to leave all statecraft to Wolsey. And now Henry showed the very worst of his nature, and nobody liked it.

Wolsey had a secretary named Thomas Cromwell, a man very shrewd and hard, yet faithful to him even after his fall. He, too, was of low birth, an adventurer who had run away from his father while yet a boy, and had tried his hand at many trades, in many lands, but chiefly in Italy (Venice). Then he had come back in England and set up as a lawyer, it so happened that the Cardinal employed him and found how clever he was. Now, because Cromwell stood stoutly for the Cardinal when there were few who would speak a good word for him, the king, instead of punishing him, took him into his own service. The opinions concerning the divorce, of the learned doctors and bishops and others were at last collected — and generally they were in the king's favour, but the Pope was a timid man: he was afraid not to do as he was asked by the English King, and, on the other hand, he dreaded the German Emperor, who was Catherine's nephew. So he still did nothing. And at that moment Thomas Cromwell advised
Henry to take the matter into his own hands, and make himself the head of the whole Church. Cromwell had his own reasons to wish the burden of the Roman Church be cast off.

The King had to take away the wealth and the lands which belonged to the Church, and especially the monasteries, and to give them to the king; and, in the next place, to manage so that the king should be able, without breaking the law, to put to death everyone who should report every word that was spoken against the king, and those who uttered such words, or were silent when they heard them uttered, were charged with treason, and judges always found them guilty, so that Cromwell was hated and feared more than his old master, Cardinal Wolsey, had ever been.

The process during the English Reformation by which Henry VIII confiscated the property of the monastic institutions in England, Wales and Ireland between 1538 and 1541 was called Dissolution of the Monasteries. The wealth of Church was very great in those days, and it attracted Henry VIII. Thomas Cromwell suggested that the smaller monasteries should be suppressed on the score of their uselessness and corruption. Parliament ordered the suppression of all monasteries with an income less than 200£ a year (1536). But the suppression was not popular, especially in the north, where interference with the monasteries was not unnaturally taken as part of a general attack on the old religion; for it was impossible to bestow confiscated church property upon the nobility without making at the same time confessions to those who were anxious for such alterations in Church ceremonies and doctrines as Luther and others had already brought about on the Continent. To satisfy Reforms Coverdale's translation of the Bible was ordered to be read in churches.

Now Henry became quite resolved to marry Anne Boleyn without any ado and to get rid of Queen Catherine. He made Cranmer Archbishop of Canterbury, and directed Queen Catherine to leave the Court. She obeyed, but replied that wherever she went, she was Queen of England still, and would remain so, to the last. The King then married Anne Boleyn privately; and the new Archbishop of Canterbury, within half a year, declared his marriage with Queen Catherine void, and crowned Anne Boleyn Queen.

She might have known that no good could ever come from such wrong, and the brute who had been so faithless and so cruel to his first wife could be more faithless and more cruel to her. Meanwhile there was a reaction to the deeds of Henry. The north rose in defence of the monks and the old ways of religion. Robert Aske (died in 1537) headed a Pilgrimage of Grace to the king. Henry VIII's army was not strong enough to fight them, and so Thomas Howard was sent to negotiate peace with rebel leader Robert Aske. It was promised that the rebels would be pardoned and a parliament would be held in York to discuss their demands; the rebels, convinced that the monasteries would be re-opened, returned to their homes. However, as soon as they had disbanded, Henry had the rebel leaders arrested and brutally executed 200 of the people involved, including Aske, Lady Bulmer and the Abbots of the four largest monasteries in the North. The spoliation of the monasteries was too profitable to be discontinued; those possessing more than 200£ income were suppressed by even more questionable means than the smaller ones, and their possession served to create a new nobility bound by self-interest to the king's policy (1539). But Henry had little real sympathy with the religious reformers, and in 1539 Parliament passed the Law of the Six Articles, which reaffirmed the more important of the old doctrines and usages. (Cromwell was eager to see Henry allied with the Protestant princes of the Continent, and after the death of the new queen — Jane Seymour — he urged him to marry Anne of Cleves.)

Now, the Pope was very angry when he knew about England King's marriage to Anne Boleyn. Many of the English priests, monks and friars, seeing that their order was in danger, were the same; some even declaimed against the King in church before his face and were not to be stopped, until he himself roared out "Silence!"

The King was very glad when his new wife gave birth to a daughter, who was christened Elizabeth.
One of the worst things of Henry the Eighth’s reign was that the King was always trimmed between the reformed religion and the unreformed one; so that the more he quarrelled with the Pope, the more of his own subjects he roasted alive for not holding the Pope's opinion. Thus, Henry killed many of his subjects to show what a capital Christian he was.

The two victims of his, for instance, were Sir Thomas More (1478-1535), the English lord chancellor, scientist, author of "Utopia", one of the most educated men of his time (see below), and John Fisher, the bishop of Rochester (1469-1535). John Fisher was a good and amiable old man, his only guilt was in believing in so called the Maid of Kent (a certain Elizabeth Barton), one of those ridiculous women who pretended to be inspired by heaven itself. Fisher denied that the King was the head of the Church, but officially he was charged in his believing in that Maid of Kent, and he was imprisoned. It happened so that the Pope just at that moment decided to make Fisher a Cardinal. Upon that the King made a horrible joke: of course, the Pope might send Fisher a red cap (which was the way they made a cardinal), but he should have no head to wear it; and Fisher was sentenced to death. You will later read the story about Sir Thomas More.

And now we shall speak about King Henry's domestic affairs. The unfortunate Queen Catherine was by this time dead; and the King was as tired of his second wife as he had been of his first. As he had fallen in love with Anne, when she was in the service of Catherine, so he now fell in love with another lady in the service of Anne. The new fancy was a lady Jane Seymour; and the King no sooner set his mind on her, than he resolved to have Anne Boleyn's head. So he accused Anne of dreadful crimes which she had never committed.

As the lords and councillors were as afraid of the king as the common peasants, they agreed that Anne Boleyn was guilty, and the other unfortunate persons accused with her were said guilty too. All those gentlemen were executed, and the Queen was surrounded in the Tower with women spies and had received no justice. Anne tried in vain to write letters to the King, speaking of her affection to him "from her doleful prison in the Tower". At last, she resigned herself to death. She said to her prisoners, very cheerfully, that she had heard the executor was a very good one and that she had a little neck (here she laughed and clasped her own neck with her hand), and she would be soon out of her pain. And she was soon put of her pain on the Green inside the Tower, and her body was flung into an old box and put away in the ground under the chapel.
There is a story that the King sat in his palace, listening very anxiously for the sound of the cannon which was to announce this new murder; and that, when he heard it come booming in the air, he rose up in great spirits and ordered out his dogs to go hunting. And he married Jane Seymour the very next day.

Jane lived just long enough to give birth to a son who was christened Edward, and then his mother died. This boy Edward was just that Prince (and soon King of England) whom the great American writer Mark Twain made one of the two main personages of his most excellent book "The Prince and the Pauper", and we shall speak of it later.

When Henry VIII was the king, terror raged at the top as well as at the bottom. Nobles’ heads were chopped off left and right on suspicion of plotting against the king. During all this time the English people bore many cruelties and much trouble. Officially, under Henry VIII more than 72 thousand paupers were hanged — 2.5 percent of the three million population (but still less than under Elizabeth I, Henry VIII’s daughter, during whose reign about 90 thousand were put to death). There was a significant rise in enclosure during his rule, so tens of thousands of farmers were displaced from the common land.

The King wanted to show to the whole world what a good Christian he was. And thousands of fires were lit through the country. The national spirit seems to be banished from the kingdom in those years. The very people who were executed for treason, the very wives and friends of the “ bluff” king, spoke of him on the scaffold as a good prince and a gentle prince. The Parliament were as bad as the rest, they gave the King new powers of murdering, at his will and pleasure, anyone whom he might choose to call a traitor.

The monarch was now thinking of taking another wife. Cromwell told him there was a Protestant Princess in Germany — those who hold Reformed religion were called Protestants because their leaders had protested against the abuses and impositions of the unreformed church. The Princess, Anne of Cleves, was handsome, but not exactly beautiful. A famous painter made her portrait which was sent to Henry VIII, but, as always happens, the painter flattered to his nature, and Henry did not like the poor Princess at all when she came to England. He did not want to marry her at all, but the matter went too far, and he had to. Henry never forgave Cromwell his part in the affair, and Cromwell’s downfall dates from this time. Very soon Anne of Cleves was divorced, and Thomas Cromwell was beheaded.

Henry married yet once more. He found in England another woman, Catherine Parr. But she often argued with the King about religious points. After one of these conversations the King in a very black mood instructed one of his Bishops to draw a bill of accusations, which had been dropped in the palace; one of the Queen's friends happened to pick it up and gave her timely notice. Catherine fell ill with terror, but she managed the King so well that he gave her a kiss and sent away the Chancellor who came the next day to take the Queen to the Tower. The King sent him about his business. So close was Catherine Parr to the block, and so narrow was her escape!

Except for an attack from Scotland — James V of Scotland was defeated at Solway Moss (1542) — and a counter-attack upon France — Henry captured Boulogne (1544) — there is little of interest in the remaining years of Henry's reign except the struggle between opposing noble fractions. The Howards, attached to the old religion, were opposed to by the Seymours, representing the new nobility and the new ideas.

There was a lady, Anne Askew, in Lincolnshire, who inclined to the Protestant opinions, and whose husband, being a fierce Catholic, turned her out of the house. She came to London, and was considered as offending against the six articles, and was taken to the Tower and put upon the rack — probably because her enemies hoped that she might, in her agony, incriminate some more persons. She was tortured without uttering a cry, until the Lieutenant of the Tower would suffer his men to torture her no more; and then two priests who were present actually pulled off their robes, and turned the wheels of the rack with their own hands, so rending and twisting and breaking her, that she was afterwards carried to the fire in a chair.
She was burned with three others; a gentlemen, a clergymen, and a tailor, and so the world went on.

Just before Henry's death the Earl of Surrey was executed, his father, the Duke of Norfolk, imprisoned, and the Earl of Hertford, afterwards made Duke of Somerset, Jane Seymour's brother, who was nominated as the guardian of his nephew Edward, Henry's heir.

And the King himself was left for death, and the earth was to get rid of him at last. He was now a swollen, hideous spectacle, with a great hole in his leg, and so odious to every sense that it was dreadful to approach him. When Henry died, he was at the fifty-sixth year of his age, and thirty-eighth of his reign.

An extract from Charles Dickens: "Henry the Eighth has been favoured by some Protestant writers, because the Reformation was achieved in his time. But the mighty merit of it lies with other men and not with him; and none the better by any defence of them. The plain truth is that he was a most intolerable ruffian, a disgrace to human nature, and a blot of blood and grease upon the History of England".

Comprehension questions

1. Why did Henry VIII fall out with the Pope?
2. Why did Thomas Cromwell replace Thomas Wolsey as Henry’s advisor?
3. Dissolution (spoliation) of monasteries.
5. The cruelty of Henry’s rule.
6. Why was Cromwell executed?

**45. SIR THOMAS MORE (1478-1535)**

Thomas More was born on Milk Street in the city of London, on the 7th of February, 1478. He received his education at first at St. Anthony's School, which was one of the very best in the city. He was early placed at the household of Cardinal Morton, archbishop of Canterbury. It was a high privilege to be admitted to the cardinal's family, it was considered as school of manners, and many sons of the best families in the kingdom sought to get such a privilege. Young Thomas More got the place through the influence of his father, Sir Thomas, then a rising barrister and afterwards a justice of the court of King’s Bench. Cardinal Morton had the very best opinion of Thomas and often used to tell the nobles sitting at the table with him, when young Thomas waited on him, that everybody who would live long would see that child prove a notable and rare man.

At the proper age young More was sent to Oxford. More studied Latin and Greek at Oxford. His father intended his son to make a career in his own profession, he did not want him to study Greek, because it was not for every student, and those who studied it were inclined to go to the Continent and did not want to return to England. And More's father removed his son from the university without a degree and made him enter New Inn to begin at once the study of the law, and in two years he entered Lincoln's Inn, an inn of court (February, 1496).

At the age of twenty More took disgust to the world and its occupations and wished to give himself over to an ascetic life. He took lodging near the Charterhouse and subjected himself to the discipline of a monk. He wore a sharp shirt of hair next his skin, scourged himself every Friday and all the fasting days, lay upon the bare ground with a log under his head, and allowed himself only four or five hours of sleep. But this period of his life did not last long.

Thomas More was under strong influence of Erasmus, and it is possible that the personal acquaintance with Erasmus took place in 1499, during the first visit of Erasmus to England. This acquaintance ripened into warm attachment. The contact with the prince of letters
revived in More the spirit of the "new learning", and he returned with ardour to the study of Greek. The humanistic influence was sufficiently strong to save him from wrecking his life in monkish mortification. Later he made and published some translations from Greek, and his Latin was much above the ordinary Latin of the English Scholars of his time.

More also had a resolution to rise in his profession, on which he was stimulated by his father's example. In 1502 he was appointed under-sheriff in the city of London, an office then had a considerable dignity. He first attracted the public attention by his conduct in the Parliament in 1504, by his daring opposition to the king's demand for money. Henry VII, then the King, required money for the marriage of his daughter, but he wanted much more money than he intended to give with her. The members, unwilling to vote the money, were afraid to offend the King, till the silence was broken by More. Henry never forgave the audacity; but, for the moment, the only revenge he could take was upon More's father, whom on some pretext he threw into the Tower, and he only was released by paying a fine.

Thomas More was even glad to withdraw from public life. He devoted himself to the sciences, perfecting himself in music, arithmetic, geometry and astronomy, learning the French tongue, and recreating his tired spirits on the viol, or translating epigrams from Greek anthology.

In 1505 he married Jane Colt. The death of the old king in 1509 restored him to the practice of his profession. It was not long when More attracted the attention of the new king and of Wolsey.

In 1514 Thomas More was made master of the requests and knighted. For a long time he was stationed in Calais as agent of the shifty negotiations carried on by Wolsey with the court of France. In 1519 he was compelled to resign his post of undersheriff of the city and his private practice. In 1521 he was appointed treasurer of the exchequer, and in the Parliament of 1523 he was elected Speaker. Wolsey made an attempt to get More out of the way by sending him as an ambassador to Spain. More defeated the design by personal appeal to the king, alleging that the climate would be fatal for his health. Henry VIII, who was already looking round for a more popular successor to Wolsey, made the gracious answer that he would employ More otherwise.

In 1525 More was appointed chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, and the king attached him to the court. Henry often sent for him and talked to him on astronomy, geometry and points of divinity. This growing favour, by which many men would have been carried away, did not impose upon More. He showed reluctance to go to the palace and seemed constrained when he had to be there. Then the king began to come himself to More's house in Chelsea and
used to dine with him without previous notice. Once the king after such a dinner walked into
the garden and about an hour was holding his arm round More's neck. The husband of More's
daughter, William Roper, afterwards congratulated his father-in-law of the distinguished
honour which had been shown him. "I thank our Lord", was the reply, "I find his grace my
very good lord indeed; and I believe he got as singularly favour me as any subject within this
realm. I may tell thee, Sir Roper, I have no cause to be proud thereof, for if my head would
win him a castle in France it should not fail to go". As a last resource More tried the expedient
of silence, dissembling his wit and affecting to be dull. This had the desired effect, and the
king did not send for him so often.

Unfortunately for Sir Thomas More, a lord chancellor is not merely a judge, but also has
great political functions to perform. In raising More to that eminent position, the king had not
merely considered his professional distinction but had counted upon his avowed liberal and
reforming tendencies. In his "Utopia" More had spoken against the vices of power, and
declared for indifference of religious creed with a breadth of philosophical view, of which
there is no other example in any Englishman of that age. At the same time, as he could not be
suspected of any sympathy with Lutheran or any heretics, it is possible to regard him as
qualified to lead the party which aimed at reform in State and Church within the limits of
Catholic orthodoxy. But in the king's mind and that of the public questions of reform were
entirely sunk in the personal one of divorce. Sir Thomas did not agree on the point of the
divorce. And, as he saw that the marriage with Anne Boleyn was determined upon, he
petitioned the king to be allowed to resign the Great Seal, alleging his weak health. The king
gave his permission and accepted More's resignation; it happened on the 10th of May 1532.
More left office, as he entered it, a poor man. And he had a very large family under his roof.

More was now able, as he wrote to Erasmus, to return to the life which had always been his
favourite, when, free from business and public affairs, he might give himself to his favourite
studies. More had built, near London, upon the Thames, a modest house. He lived there
surrounded by his large family, including his wife, his son and son's wife, his three daughters
and their husbands, with eleven grandchildren. His house was crowded with distinguished
people anxious to hear his bright and wise conversation.

But More could not be allowed to enjoy the happiness of a retired life. A special invitation
was sent to him by the king to attend the coronation of Anne Boleyn, accompanied with 20£
to buy a new suit for the occasion. More refused to attend and from that moment was marked
for vengeance.

In some time More asked his daughter how Queen Anne was, and he got the answer,
"Never better; there is nothing else than dancing and sporting". To this More answered: "Alas,
Meg, it makes me remember unto what misery, poor soul, she will shortly come; the dances of
her will prove such dances that she will spurn our heads off like footballs; but it will not be
long, for her head will dance the like dance".

In 1534 the Act of Supremacy was passed, which meant that the King was declared the
supreme head of the Church of England. I. More had to swear to the succession but steadily
refused the oath of supremacy. He persisted in his refusal and in four days was committed to
the Tower. He was forbidden to use pen and ink. After more than a year he was brought to
trial.

More's daughter Margaret, Roper's wife, proved her father's chief comfort in the prison.
More's wife did not understand him, "Why do you live in this filthy prison with rats and
mice", said she, "when you might sit at the King's right side and enjoy yourself at home?"

To which the great man replied with a smile; "I pray thee, good Mrs. Alice, tell me one
thing — is not this house as near heaven as my own?"

Margaret cheered him in his disposition to defy the King. But her heart was near breaking.
At the trial More declared that no parliament could make the king supreme head of the
Church. A verdict of "guilty" was pronounced from the jury.
Margaret broke through the soldiers surrounding him, flung her arms around his neck, and cried: "Oh, my father! — oh, my father!" And he laid his hand on her head and blessed her. She parted from him only to return once more flinging her arms impulsively about him; and kissing him with such an agony, that even the soldiers wept. And when she got home, she received a letter from her father written in charcoal, "I never liked your manner better than when you kissed me last; for I am most pleased when daughterly love and dear charity have no leisure to look to worldly courtesy". The execution of the sentence followed within a week, on the 7th of July, 1535. The head was fixed upon London Bridge. The vengeance of Henry was not satisfied by this judicial murder of his friend and servant; he enforced the confiscation of that small property which More had left, expelled Lady More from their house at Chelsea.

Thomas More was not only a lawyer, a wit, a scholar and a man of wide general reading; he was also a man of cultivated taste, who delighted in music and painting. In his book "Utopia", published in Latin in 1516 (first English translation 1551), he not only denounced the vices of power, but evinced an enlightenment of sentiment, which went far beyond the most statesmanlike ideas that could be found among his contemporaries. The description of contemporary England with all the evils of poverty for the many and luxury for the few is made in striking contrast to the island of "Utopia" where there is no private ownership of land and industrial tools, where community of goods, a national system of education, the rule of work for all (a realization of John Ball's 14th-century motto), and a philosophy, under which the good of the individual is subordinate to the common good, make an ideal state. There are no wars in Utopia, bellicosity is considered a vice as well as greed, hatred, desire to oppress others. The approach is naive and imperfect in many ways, but the importance of the book is hard to overestimate. For the first time in history the dream of a way of life based on justice was combined with an extensive and rational system of proposals about its realization; communal ownership and collective work. More does not only condemn the feudal system, but. he also expresses the sad assurance that the new system, based on money relations, is no smaller evil. He looks far ahead into a new future of nations foreseeing many of its traits.

Comprehension questions

1. Thomas More’s education and young years.
2. More’s humanistic influences (Erasmus).
3. More’s career.
4. Was he pleased with the King’s benevolence?
5. What is the Act of Supremacy? How did More bring the King’s wrath upon himself?
6. Describe the last days of Thomas More.
7. Say what his work “Utopia” is about.

46. FROM THE HISTORY OF LONDON

Now we shall speak a little about the capital of England, of its history, what was the sight of the city several centuries ago, and who built it. The history of London is different from the history of other great cities of the world. The splendours of Babylon and Nineveh cost little, for there were thousands of slaves to do the work for scarcely more than the cost of their food. Rome was made splendid by emperors who ruled all the known earth. They had countless slaves. They robbed every country to make their own city gorgeous, and with the great wealth of the world they built palaces and halls and theatres and circuses grander than any which have since been made. Florence was built by rulers who loved art and beauty. They lived in an age when the greatest sculptors and painters could be employed for as little cost as an ordinary workman of today.
London was a wilderness when the Romans came here. Had they stayed they would have made it a great city. But they were called home to defend their own capital, and London was burnt again and again by the rough men from over the seas. The Saxons and Danes were an uneducated people, who thought of little more than war and the chase, not of building noble cities. The Normans, who conquered England, in the eleventh century, were a more educated people, and we find traces of their buildings in London and many parts of England. But their kings were warlike men who never thought of making a beautiful London. When the time came for giving London wealth and power, the people were too busy with trade and travel to think much of making a stately city.

It is impossible to point out all English historical buildings to be the work of this or that architect or builder. The Westminster Abbey, for instance, was begun on the site of older churches built by Edward the Confessor, who died in 1066. A foreigner, William the Conqueror, was crowned King of England the same year in the cathedral where Edward wanted to bury his own bones. During the reign of several kings the building of Westminster Abbey was continued. Sir Christopher Wren (1632-1723) built one of the most beautiful additions. Nearly all English kings and queens were crowned in the Abbey since the time of the Conquest, while there are buried in it thirteen kings of England and many queens.

Here is an extract from Mark Twain's "The Prince and the Pauper":

"It was four o'clock in the morning of the memorable Coronation day. We find the torch-lighted galleries already filling up with people who are well content to sit still and wait seven or eight hours till the time shall come for them to see what they may not hope to see in their lives — the coronation of a King. Yes, London and Westminster have been astir ever since the warning guns boomed at three o'clock, and already crowds of untitled rich folk who have bought the privilege of trying to find sitting-room in the galleries are flocking in at the entrances reserved for such as they.

The hours drag along tediously enough. All stir ceased for some time, for every gallery has long ago been packed. We may look here and there and yonder, through the dim cathedral twilight, of portions of many galleries and balconies being cut off from sight by intervening pillars and architectural projections. We have to view the whole of the great north transept — empty, and waiting for England's privileged ones. We see also the ample area of platforms, carpeted with rich stuffs, whereupon the throne stands. The throne occupies the centre of the platform, and is raised above it upon an elevation of four steps. Within a seat of the throne is enclosed a rough flat rock — the stone of Scone — which many generations of Scottish kings sat on to be crowned, and so it in time became holy enough to answer a like purpose for English monarchs. Both the throne and its footstool are covered with cloth of gold.

Stillness reigns, the torches blink dully, the time drags heavily. But at last the lagging daylight asserts itself, the torches are extinguished, and a mellow radiance suffuses the great spaces. All features of the noble building are distinct now, but soft and dreamy, for sun is lightly veiled with clouds.

At seven o'clock the first break in the drowsy monotony occurs; for on the stroke of this hour the first peeress enters the transept, clothed like Solomon for splendour, and is conducted to her appointed place by an official clad of in satins and velvets, whilst a duplicate of him gathers up the lady's long train, follows after, and, when the lady is seated, arranges the train across her lap for her. He then places her footstool according to her desire, after which he puts her coronet where it will be convenient to her hand when the time for the simultaneous coroneting of the nobles shall arrive.

The scene is animated enough now. There is stir and life, and shifting colour everywhere. After a time quiet reigns again; for the peeresses are all come, and are all in their places. There are all ages here: brown, wrinkled, white-haired dowagers, who are able to go back down the stream of time, and recall the crowning of Richard III and the troublous days of that
forgotten age; and there are handsome middle-aged dames; and lovely young matrons; and
gentle and beautiful young girls with beaming eyes and fresh complexion.

About nine, the clouds suddenly break away, and a shaft of sunshine cleaves the mellow
atmosphere, and drifts slowly along the ranks of ladies. Presently a special envoy from some
distant corner of the Orient, marching with the general body of foreign ambassadors, crosses
this bar of sunshine, and we catch our breath, the glory that streams and flashes and palpitates
about him is so overpowering; for he is crusted from head to heel with gems, and his slightest
movement showers a dancing radiance all around him.

At last, the deep booming of artillery told that the King and his grand procession had
arrived at last; so the waiting multitude rejoiced. All knew that a further delay must follow, for
the King must be prepared and dressed for solemn ceremony. All the peers were conducted
ceremoniously to their seats and their coronets placed conveniently at hand; and meanwhile
the multitude in the galleries were alive with interest, for most of them were beholding for the
first time, dukes, earls, and barons, whose names had been historical for five hundred years.
When all were finally seated, the spectacle from the galleries was complete.

Now the dressed and mitred great heads of the church, and their attendants, filed in upon
the platform and took their appointed places; these were followed by Lord Protector and other
great officials, and these again by a steel-clad detachment of the Guard.

There was a waiting pause; then, at a signal, a triumphant peal of music burst forth, and the
little king, clothed in a long robe of cloth of gold, appeared at a door, and stepped upon the
platform. The entire multitude rose, and the ceremony of the Recognition ensued.

At last, the final act was at hand. The Archbishop of Canterbury lifted up the crown of
England from its cushion and held it out over the King's head”.

Of course, Mark Twain describes the ceremony of the coronation using his own fancy, but
not only that: he had read old Chronicles and followed them.

Another old historical building in London is the Tower, the oldest fortress-prison in this
city and in the whole Europe. Much of the building, which we can see today, standing in
gloomy strength overlooking the Thames, has stood there almost 900 years. But under the
present tower are remains of another fortress, which is a thousand years older than this.

London was always the first important place to be seized when enemies invaded the land,
and the site of Tower was seen by all soldiers to be the best for defence. They say that Julius
Caesar has built a fortress at this place. Certainly the White Tower is built upon Roman
foundations; and remains of Roman walls are to be found in other parts of the Tower. London
was often burnt and pillaged — it was once so ruined by the Danes that the whole city was
desolate, with no one living in it, for thirty years. But when people returned and the wars died
down, they always gathered about the Tower as a place of defence and strength. Alfred the
Great was the founder of modern London, and he is said to have built another great fortress
where the Romans had first built the tower.

But it was William the Conqueror who began the Tower which is so famous today.
Although he had conquered England, he felt that he would never be safe until he had built
himself a great castle in which he could be surrounded by troops who would keep him safe in
case the Saxons should rise in rebellion against him.

And who do you think he got to build the Tower for him? It was a monk. His name was
Gundulf, and he was born in Normandy in 1024, and was forty-six when William called him
to England to begin this great work.

Gundulf was a learned man. He had made a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, and by living in the
East had learned many of the secrets by which the Saracens made their buildings beautiful. He
had closely studied the simple grandeur of Norman architecture, too, and was able to combine
the two styles. He had lived many years in monasteries in Normandy. Life to him was very
sad. He did not believe that Christian men ought to be happy. He was always sorrowful and
when at work or at prayer, at meals or when resting, he was so often given to tears that he was called Gundulf the Weeper.

No matter how he wept, he was a great and grand builder. He founded the Tower. He made a strong fortress for his king who rewarded him by letting him build Rochester Cathedral and become the first bishop of Rochester.

He built first a great watch-tower, or barbican. From this the surrounding country could be viewed, and the approach of an enemy sighted in time to prepare for defence. That old tower is now the Hall Tower, or as it is commonly called, the Jewel Tower. In it the King keeps his crown and all the state jewels.

Another tower which Weeping Gundulf built was the White Tower; you may still see it nowadays in good order.

Afterwards the English kings (beginning from William Rufus) taxed the people without mercy to continue the work of building the Tower. The people complained that the Tower was beginning to be big and strong not for the defence of London, but so that the king might have a strong place, in which to defy the people when he did wrong. It was a strange and savage age when the Tower was rising to strength and size. An old writer says that the mortar in which the stones were set was mixed with the blood of beasts. Enough blood of human beings flowed in the Tower to make the blood of beasts unnecessary. Most of the terrible deeds of which we read in the history of England were done in the grim Tower. Though kings were born and lived and were married there, it was in the Tower that kings and princes, and queens and princesses, were murdered; that great and good men were imprisoned, tortured, and sometimes killed. Had Gundulf the Weeper known what a place of agony he was creating when he built the Tower, he would have wept still more, and with better reason.

When we speak about London of late middle ages, we must, of course, remember Mark Twain's charming book "The Prince and the Pauper". The story of changing the Prince and the Pauper is only the author's imagination, but to write the story he had to read many historical books and chronicles. And here is his description of London of the period when Edward VI had to succeed Henry VIII, and it is very truthful indeed.

"London was fifteen hundred years old, and was a great town — for that day. It had a hundred thousand inhabitants — some think double as many. The streets were very narrow, and crooked, and dirty, especially in the part which was not far from London Bridge. The houses were of wood, with the second story projecting over the first, and the third sticking its elbows out beyond the second. The higher the houses grew, the broader they grew. They were skeletons of strong criss-cross beams, with solid material between, coated with plaster. The beams were painted red or blue or black, according to the owner's taste, and this gave the houses a very picturesque look. The windows were small, glazed with little diamond-shaped panes, and they opened outward, on hinges, like doors".

And now we shall remember the description of the London Bridge which was a town itself within London.

"Our friends threaded their way through the throngs upon the Bridge. This structure, which had stood for six hundred years, and had been a noisy and populous thoroughfare all that time, was a curious affair, for a closely packed rank of stores and shops, with family quarters overhead, stretched along both sides of it, from one bank of the river to the other. The Bridge was a sort of town to itself; it had its inn, its beer-houses, its bakeries, its haberdasheries, its food markets, its manufacturing industries, and even its church. It looked upon the two neighbours which it linked together — London and Southwark — as being well enough, as suburbs, but not otherwise particularly important. It was a close corporation, so to speak; it was a narrow town, of a single street a fifth of a mile long, its population, and everybody in it knew all his fellow-townsmen intimately, and had known their fathers and mothers before them — and all their little family affairs into the bargain. It had its aristocracy, of course - its fine old families of butchers, and bakers, and what-not, who had occupied the same old
premises for five or six hundred years, and knew the great history of the Bridge from the beginning to end, and all its strange legends; and who always talked bridgy talk, and thought bridgy thoughts, and lied in a long, level, direct, substantial bridgy way. It was just the sort of population to be narrow and ignorant and self-conceited. Children were born on the Bridge, were reared there, grew to old age and finally died without ever having set a foot upon any part of the world but London Bridge alone. Such people would naturally imagine that the mighty and interminable procession which moved through its street night and day, with its confused roar of shouts and cries, its neighings and bellowings and bleatings and its muffled thundertramp, was the one great thing in this world, and themselves somehow the proprietors of it. And so they were, in effect — at last they could exhibit it from their windows, and did — for a consideration — whenever a returning king or hero gave it a fleeting splendour, for there was no place like it for according a long, straight view of marching columns.

Men born and reared upon the Bridge found life unendurably dull and inane elsewhere. History tells of one of these who left the Bridge at the age of seventy-one and retired to the country. But he could only fret and toss in his bead; he could not go to sleep, the deep stillness was so painful, so awful, so oppressive. When he was worn out with it, at last, he fled back to his old home, a lean and haggard spectre, and fell peacefully to rest and pleasant dreams under the lulling music of the lashing waters and the boom and crash and thunder of London Bridge.

In the times of which we are writing, the Bridge furnished "object lessons" in English history for its children — namely, the livid and decaying heads of renowned man impaled upon iron spikes atop of its gateways". (Mark Twain, "The Prince and the Pauper", chapter XII).

You remember well, I hope, that the Thomas More's head was also fixed on London Bridge, as you have read in the previous chapter of this history of England?

An engraving by Claes Van Visscher showing Old London Bridge in 1616, with what is now Southwark Cathedral in the foreground. The spiked heads of executed criminals can be seen above the Southwark gatehouse.

Comprehension questions

1. The history of Westminster Abbey.
2. The history of the Tower of London.
47. EDWARD VI (1538-1553)

This English king (prince at the beginning) was meant by Mark Twain when he wrote his "The Prince and the Pauper". Of course, the boy did not change clothes with a pauper boy just before his father's death and did not wander through his country in rags, this is the author's fancy. I think that his father was not so fond of him as he is described in the book, because Henry VIII was not the like person to be attached to somebody — but, however, "The Prince and the Pauper" is a fiction book and the author had his right to show the circumstances just as he imagined them, as he was close to the historical truth in main things and in details.

In reality Henry the Eighth had made a will, appointing a council of sixteen to govern the kingdom for his son while that latter was under age, and another council of twelve to help the first one. The most powerful of the first council was the Earl of Hertford, the young King's uncle, his late mother's brother, who lost no time in bringing his nephew with great state up to Enfield, and thence to the Tower. It was considered at the time a striking proof of virtue in the young King that he was sorry for his father's death.

There was a curious part in the late King's will, requiring his executors to fulfil whatever promises he had made. Some of the court wondering what these might be, the Earl of Hertford and the other noblemen said that they were promises to advance and enrich them.

So, the Earl of Hertford made himself Duke of Somerset (in Mark Twain's book Tom Canty did it!), and made his brother Edward Seymour a baron. To be more dutiful, they made themselves rich out of the Church lands, and were very comfortable. The new Duke of Somerset proclaimed himself Protector of the kingdom, and was, indeed, the King, as the chief power was all in his hands. He was an ardent Reformer and very soon introduced great changes, not in Church government, but in doctrine and ritual. The young Edward the Sixth therefore knew that their day of triumph had come, they committed all manner of excesses, breaking images and otherwise insulting the majority of their countrymen. The Act of the Six Articles was repealed, and violent hands were laid on church property.

These religious changes, sufficiently unpopular with the majority of Englishmen, were accompanied by social evils not altogether unconnected with them. The new landowners, selfish and grasping, keener on enclosing common lands than on providing work for the rural population, compared badly with their predecessors, the monks. Devon and Norfolk rose in revolt, and although the Duke of Somerset, who understood the causes of the rising well
enough to sympathise with them, more or less succeeded in restoring order, the Council was able to put the blame for misgovernment upon him, and ordered his imprisonment.

His successor, the Duke of Northumberland, ambitious and unscrupulous, did all in his power to further the Reformation as the best means to wealth and power. But while he and his friends grew rich, the country at large grew poorer, and some helped to overthrow the government with the help of Somerset.

When the Duke of Somerset was still Lord Protector, he was anxious to have the young King engage in marriage to the young Queen of Scotland (Mary Stuart) in order to prevent this princess from making an alliance with any foreign power; but as a large party in Scotland were unfavourable to this plan, he invaded that country. His excuse for doing that was that the Border men — that is, the Scotch who lived in that part of the country where England and Scotland joined — troubled the English very much. But the English Border men troubled the Scotch too; and through many long years there were perpetual border quarrels which gave rise to numbers of old tales and songs.

"High upon Highlands
And laigh upon Tay,
Bonny George Campbell
Ride out on a day:
Saddled and bridled,
So gallant to see,
Home came his good horse,
But never came he.
Saddled and bridled
And booted rode he;
A plume to his helmet,
A sword at his knee;
But toom came his saddle
A bloody to see,
O home came his good horse,
But never came he!"

However, the Protector invaded Scotland; and the Scottish Regent with an army twice as large as his, advanced to meet him. They met on the banks of the river Esk, within a few miles of Edinburgh; and there the Protector promised to retire if the Scotch would only engage not to marry their princess to any foreign prince, and the Scottish Regent thought the English were afraid. But in this he made a horrible mistake; for the English soldiers on land and the English sailors on the water so set upon the Scotch that they fled, and more than ten thousand of them were killed. It was a dreadful battle. The ground for four miles, all the way to Edinburgh, was strewn with dead men, and with arms, and legs, and heads. Some hid themselves in streams and were drowned; some threw away their armour and were killed while they ran; but in this battle of Pinckney (1547) the English lost only two or three hundred men. They were much better clothed than the Scotch.

Now, we must return to the story of Devonshire and Norfolk revolts. In Devonshire, the rebellion was so strong that ten thousand men united within a few days, and even laid siege to Exeter. But the rebels were defeated, and one of the leaders, the vicar, was hanged on his own church steeple.

In Norfolk the popular leader was a man named Robert Ket, a tanner of Wymondham. The mob were, in the first instance, excited against the tanner by the one John Flowerdrew, a gentleman, who owned him a grudge; but the tanner soon got the people on his side, and established himself near Norwich with quite an army. There was a large oak-tree in that place,
on a spot called Moushold Hill, which Ket named the Tree of Reformation; and under its
green boughs he and his men sat, in the midsummer weather, holding courts of justice, and
debating affairs of state. They even allowed some rather tiresome public speakers to get up
into that Tree of Reformation and point out their errors to them, while they lay listening in the
shade below. At last, one sunny July day, a herald appeared below the tree, and proclaimed
Ket and all his men traitors, if they did not disperse and go home at once, in which case they
were to receive a pardon. But Ket and his men became stronger than ever, until the Earl of
Warwick went after them with a sufficient force and cut them all to pieces. A few were
hanged, drawn, and quartered, as traitors, and their limbs were sent into various country
places to be a terror to the people. Nine of them were hanged upon nine green branches of the
Oak of Reformation; and so, for the time, that tree may be said to have withered away.

As we already mentioned, the Duke of Somerset was arrested as a traitor and taken to the
Tower.

He was ordered to be beheaded on the Tower Hill at eight in the morning, and
proclamations were issued bidding the citizens keep at home until after ten. They filled the
streets, however, and crowded the place of execution as soon as it was light, and with sad
faces and sad hearts saw the once powerful Duke ascent the scaffold to lay his head upon the
dreadful block. While he was yet saying his last words to them with manly courage, and
telling them, in particular, how it comforted him to have assisted in reforming the national
religion, a member of the Council was seen riding up on horseback. They again thought that
the Protector was saved, and again shouted with joy. But the Duke himself told them they
were mistaken, and laid down his head and had it struck off at a blow.

Many of the bystanders rushed forward and steeped their handkerchiefs in his blood, as a
mark of their affection.

It is not very pleasant to know that, while his uncle was in prison under sentence of death,
the young King was being vastly entertained by plays, and dances, and sham fights: but there
is no doubt in it, for he kept a journal himself.

There were only two victims in this period who perished because of their holding the
Catholic religion. One of them, a woman Joan Bucher, the other — a Dutchman. Edward was,
to his credit, exceedingly unwilling to sign the warrant for the woman’s execution and shed
tears before he did so.

Edward's sister Mary, whose mother had been Catherine of Aragon, and who inherited her
mother's gloomy temper, and hated the reformed religion as connected with her mother's
wrongs and sorrows — she knew nothing about it, always refusing to read a single book in
which it was truly described — the Princess Mary held by the unreformed religion too, and
was the only person in the kingdom for whom the old Mass was allowed to be performed; Edward always viewed it with horror; and when he fell ill — first of the measles, and then of
the small-pox, he was greatly troubled in mind to think that if he died, and Mary, who was the
next heir to the throne, succeeded, the Roman Catholic religion would be set up again. In
1552 very soon after Somerset's execution, the Second Prayer Book of Edward VI was
published, and it was distinctly Protestant in tone.

The young King, however, had never enjoyed good health and in 1553 he made a will,
nominating his cousin Lady Grey as his successor. His Protector Northumberland brought
about Jane's marriage with his son Guildford Dudley and flattered himself that he had thus
made his position quite secure.

Edward VI died the same year, in the sixteenth year of his age, and in the seventh of his
reign. "It is difficult to judge, — writes Charles Dickens, — what the character of one so
young might afterwards have become among so many bad, ambitious, quarrelling nobles. But
he was an amiable boy, of very good abilities and had nothing coarse or cruel or brutal in his
disposition — which in the son of such a father is rather surprising". 
Comprehension questions

1. What book was Edward IV the protagonist of? What is it about? Are the events described in the book the truth?
2. Characterise the Earl of Hertford (Duke of Somerset), Lord Protector.
3. Describe the Protector’s campaign in Scotland.
4. Describe Devonshire and Norfolk revolts. The Oak of Reformation.
5. Somerset’s execution.
6. Edward VI’s death. Who did the young King name as his successor?

48. QUEEN MARY (1516-558)

The Duke of Northumberland was very anxious to keep his young king's death a secret, in order that he might get the two Princesses into his power. But the Princess Mary, being informed of that event on her way to London to see her sick brother, turned her horse's head and rode away into Norfolk, because her friend, the Earl of Arundel, had sent her warning of what had happened.

As a secret could not be kept, the Duke of Northumberland and his council sent for the Lord Mayor of London and some of the aldermen, and told them everything. Then they told it to the people, and wanted to inform Lady Jane Grey that she was to be Queen.

She was a pretty girl of only sixteen, and was amiable, learned and clever. When the lords who came to her fell on their knees before her and told her what news they brought, she was so astonished that she fainted. On recovering, she expressed her sorrow for the young King's death, and said that she knew she was unfit to govern the kingdom. The lords took her down the river (as the custom was) until she was crowned. But the people were not at all favourable to Lady Jane, considering that the right to be Queen was Mary's, and they greatly disliked the Duke of Northumberland. Some powerful men among the nobility declared on Mary's side. They raised troops to support her cause, and gathered around her at the castle of Framlingham, which belonged to the Duke of Norfolk. It was best to keep her in a castle on the sea-coast, from whence she might be sent abroad, if necessary.

The Council would have dispatched Lady Jane's father, the Duke of Suffolk, as the general of the army against this force; but, as Lady Jane implored that her father might remain with
her, and as he was known to be a weak man, they told the Duke of Northumberland that he must take the command himself. He was not ready to do so, and he mistrusted the Council; but there was no help for it, and he set forth with a heavy heart.

And his fears for himself turned out to be well founded. While he was waiting at Cambridge for further help from Council, the Council took it into their heads to turn their backs on Lady Jane's cause, and take up the Princess Mary's. That happened because Earl of Arundel represented to the Lord Mayor and aldermen that they thought the Reformed religion was in much danger. The Lord Mayor and the aldermen said that there could be no doubt that the Princess Mary was to be Queen. So she was proclaimed at the Cross by St. Paul's, and barrels of wine were given to the people, and they got drunk, and danced round blazing bonfires — little thinking, poor wretches, what other bonfires would soon be blazing in Queen Mary's name.

Lady Jane Gray resigned the Crown with great willingness, saying that she had only accepted it in obedience to her father and mother; and went gladly back to her pleasant house by the river and her books. Mary then came on towards London, and was joined by her half-sister, the Princess Elizabeth. They passed through the streets of London to the Tower, and there the new Queen met some eminent prisoners, kissed them, and gave them their liberty.

The Duke of Northumberland had been taken prisoner, and, together with his son and five others, was quickly brought before the Council. And they soon sentenced him to death. His head was struck off.

Mary was now crowned Queen. She was thirty-seven years of age, short and thin, wrinkled in the face and very unhealthy. But she had a great liking for show and for bright colours, and all the ladies of her Court were magnificently dressed; she had great liking for old customs without much sense in them.

But Mary Tudor acted with the energy of her family. Very soon she began to show her desire to put down the Reformed religion, and put up the unreformed one. The people even cast a shower of stones — and among them a dagger — at one of the royal chaplains who attacked the Reformed religion in a public sermon. But the Queen and her priests went steadily on. The prisons were fast filled with Protestants, who were left there rotting in darkness, hunger, dirt and separation from their friends; many, who had time to escape, fled from the kingdom.

A Parliament gathered, and they annulled the divorce, formerly pronounced between the Queen's mother and King Henry the Eighth and unmade all the laws on the subject of religion that had been made during the last King Edward's reign. They also declared Lady Jane Gray guilty of treason for aspiring to the Crown.

Queen Mary decided to marry her cousin, Philip II of Spain, but the Englishmen had no wish to see the violent and secret methods of the Inquisition established in England. Sir Thomas Wyatt headed a rising against the marriage. This man of great daring, marching to Rochester, established himself in the old castle there and prepared to hold out against the Duke of Norfolk, who headed a party of Queen's guards, and had a body of five hundred London men. The London men, however, were all for Elizabeth, and not at all for Mary. Wyatt had no success, and, at last, he was taken and defeated. He was quartered, and many of his followers were hanged. The rest were led out, with halters round their necks, to be pardoned, and to make a parade of crying out: "God save Queen Mary!"

In the danger of this rebellion, the Queen showed herself a woman of courage and spirit. But on the day after Wyatt's death, she did the cruellest act, even of her cruel reign: she signed the warrant for the execution of Lady Jane Grey.

They tried to persuade Lady Jane to accept the unreformed religion; but she steadily refused. She came up to the scaffold with a firm step and a quiet face, and addressed to the bystanders with a steady voice. She said that she had done an unlawful act to take what was Queen Mary's right; but that she had done so with no bad intent, and that she died a humble
Christian. She wanted to die quickly, and asked the executor: "Will you take my head off before I lay me down?" He answered: "No, Madam", and then she was very quiet when they bandaged her eyes. Unable to see the block, on which she was to lay her young head, she felt about for it with her hands, asking: "O what shall I do? Where is it?" Then they guided her to the right place, and the executor struck off her head. The father of Lady Jane soon followed. Queen Mary's next object was to lay hold of Elizabeth. Five hundred men were sent for the Princess's retired house, with orders to bring her up, alive or dead. But they came to her once more in the morning. She was so weak and ill, that it took her five days to get to London. She wrote to her sister, saying she was innocent of any crime, but she got no answer, and was ordered to the Tower. One of the Lords offered to cover her with his cloak, as it was raining, but she put it away from her, proudly and scornfully, and passed into the Tower, and sat in a court-yard on a stone. They prayed her to come in out of the wet, but she answered that it was better sitting there, than in the worse place. At last, she went in and was kept there as a prisoner, and then they removed her to a castle named Woodstock. However, Elizabeth was released, and the cause of her liberty was Philip, the Prince of Spain. Philip and the Spanish Lords did not approve the idea of doing any violence to the Princess. The Queen had been expecting her husband with great impatience, and at last he came, and they were married; and the people had a great holiday, though they had a distrust of that Spanish marriage, and even the Parliament shared the distrust, and that is why the Parliament passed no bill to enable the Queen to set aside the Princess Elizabeth and appoint another successor.

A new Parliament was then packed, in which there were no Protestants. Then the Cardinal Pole came to England as the Pope's messenger. With the Queen sitting on her throne, and the King on one side of her, and the Cardinal on the other, and the Parliament present, the special petition was read aloud, and the Cardinal made a great speech, saying that all was forgotten and forgiven, and that the kingdom was solemnly made Roman Catholic again.

Everything was now ready for the lighting of the terrible bonfires. When the Cardinal had blessed all the bishops as a preface to the burning, the great trial of heretics took place. After that very many people who did not believe in the Mass were seized and burnt alive. But the result was other than Mary expected. The sight of brave men dying for their faith did more than the utmost toleration could have done to Protestants.

The Spanish marriage naturally influenced the Queen's foreign policy. Her husband was mostly abroad, he was at war with France, and came to seek the assistance of England. England was unwilling to engage in a French war for his sake; but the King of France at this very time aided a descent upon the English coast. And war was declared, greatly to Philip's satisfaction, in 1557. The French Duke of Guise surprised Calais, and the English sustained a complete defeat. The losses they took in France greatly mortified the national pride, and the Queen never recovered from the blow.

There was bad fever raging in England at that time, and the Queen caught it, and the hour of her death came. "When I am dead and my body is opened", — she said to those around her, — you shall find CALAIS written on my heart".

The Queen died on the seventeenth of November, 1558, after reigning not quite five years and a half, and in the forty-fourth year of her age.

Charles Dickens concludes: "As Bloody Queen Mary, this woman has become famous, and will ever be justly remembered with horror and detestation in Great Britain. Her memory has been held in such adherence that some writers have arisen in later years to take her part, and to show that she was, upon the whole, quite an amiable and cheerful sovereign! "By their fruits ye shall know them", said OUR SAVIOR. The stake and the fire were the fruits of this reign, and you will judge this Queen by nothing else."
Comprehension questions

1. How did Mary ascend to the throne?
2. What horrible things did she begin her reign with?
3. What was her husband, Philip II of Spain like?
4. What was her chief religious policy?
5. What news got her down and speeded up her death?
6. How is she evaluated by Dickens? Do you think it is an objective view?

49. QUEEN ELIZABETH I (1533-1603) AND MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS (1542-1587)

There was rejoicing all over the land after Mary's death. Weary of Mary's reign, the people looked with hope and gladness to the new Queen. The nation seemed to wake from a horrible dream.

Queen Elizabeth was five-and-twenty years of age when she rode through the streets of London, from the Tower to Westminster Abbey to be crowned. Her countenance was strongly marked, but on the whole, commanding and dignified; her hair was red and her nose somewhat too long and sharp for a woman's. She was not a beautiful creature, but she looked all the better for coming after the dark and gloomy Mary. She was well educated, but a roundabout writer, and rather a hard swearer and coarse talker. She was clever, but cunning and deceitful, and inherited much of her father's violent temper.

She had seen enough of the religious troubles, from which England was suffering, to understand that the one thing needed was national unity; both sides were by this time too strong, and she therefore decided to bring about a settlement by way of compromise.

Elizabeth I began her reign with the great advantage of having a wise and careful Minister, William Cecil (afterwards she made him Lord Burleigh).

On the next day after the coronation one of the courtiers presented a petition to the new Queen, saying that it was the custom to release some prisoners on such occasions, and that she would have the goodness to release the four Evangelists, Matthew, Mark, Luke, and John, and
also the apostle Saint Paul, who had been for some time shut up in a strange language so that the people could not get at them.

To this, the Queen replied that it would be better first to inquire of themselves whether they desired to be released or not; and, as a means of finding out, a great public discussion was appointed to take place between representatives of the two religions in Westminster Abbey. It was soon clear that it was necessary for the common people to understand something about what they repeat and read. And a Church Service in plain English was settled, and other laws and regulations were made, completely establishing the great work of the Reformation. Elizabeth issued a modification of the Second Prayer Book of Edward VI. All that she and Parliament demanded (by the act of Uniformity, 1559) was that this Prayer Book should be used in all churches. An Act of Supremacy passed in the same year finally abolished foreign interference in English ecclesiastical affairs and restored jurisdiction in such matters to the Crown.

So, Elizabeth succeeded to establish a national English Church, but some preferred to keep to their religion, and they were inclined to follow the teaching of John Calvin (1509-1564), French Protestant Reformer in Geneva, who disapproved of all connection between Church and State and of government of bishops, claimed absolute freedom for every congregation to govern itself in its own way. Calvin asserted that each man’s fate was predestined, and did not depend on their good or bad deeds, but, rather, God determined who is to be saved and who is to be doomed. This religion was secularised: it prescribed work, pursuit of daily routine, thriftiness and profit-gaining. The doctrine expressed the views of the burgeoning capitalist class. After some time those who held these opinions were called Puritans.

But Elizabeth had other matters to engage her attention besides the religious settlement in England. The great trouble of Elizabeth's reign and unfortunate cause of a great part of turmoil and bloodshed as occurred in it was Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots.

She was the daughter of the Queen Regent of Scotland, Mary of Guise. Scotland had accepted the doctrines of Calvin with enthusiasm, and Mary of Guise found herself opposed to that religion. She was the heir to the throne of England and Scotland. But the English had already recognized Mary as queen of England, and the Scottish Parliament declared she was no longer heir to the English throne. The two nations were at war.

In his *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism* the German sociologist, economist, and politician Max Weber wrote that capitalism in northern Europe evolved when the Protestant (particularly Calvinist) ethic, which encouraged the rational pursuit of economic gain, influenced large numbers of people to engage in work in the secular world, developing their own enterprises and engaging in trade and the accumulation of wealth for investment. In other words, the Protestant was an important force behind the unplanned and uncoordinated mass action that influenced the development of capitalism.
by the Scottish nobility, who even surpassed the English courtiers of Edward VI in confiscating Church property for their own profit. Mary of Guise sent for French troops, and the Lords of the Congregation invited Elizabeth to help them. (We must go back to the reign of Henry VIII, who had married his daughter Margaret to James IV of Scotland. Margaret's son, James V, had married Mary of Guise, and their only child was Mary Queen of Scots).

When Mary Queen of Scots was quite a child, she has been married to the Dauphin, the son and heir of the King of France. As the Roman Church had never recognised the marriage of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn, Elizabeth's mother, Mary Queen of Scots could regard herself as rightful Queen of England.

Much subsequent troubles might have been avoided if Henry VIII's scheme for a marriage between his son Edward VI and Mary had been successfully carried out. But an invasion of Scotland and the burning of Edinburgh were hardly the best ways of its success.

After her marriage to the Dauphin Mary became closely connected with France, and France was jealous of England, so there was far greater danger in this than it would have been without her alliance with that great power. Her husband, after the death of his father, became Francis the Second, King of France, and the matter grew very serious. The young couple wanted to be English King and Queen, and the Pope was disposed to help them.

Now the reformed religion, under the guidance of a powerful preacher John Knox, lately returned from Geneva, had been making fierce progress in Scotland. English historians claim that at that time it was still a half savage country, where there was a great deal of murdering and rioting; and the Reformers, instead of reforming those evils, went to work in the ferocious old Scottish spirit, laying churches and chapels waste, pulling down pictures and altars, and knocking about the Grey Friars, and the Black Friars, and the White Friars, and the Friars of all sorts or colours, in all directions. All that caused France to sent troops to Scotland, with the hope of setting the friars of all colours and sorts on their legs again; of conquering that country first, and England afterwards; and so crushing the Reformation to pieces. The Scottish Reformers, who had formed a great League which they called the Congregation of the Lord, secretly got Elizabeth to know that, if the reformed religion failed in their country, it would be the same in England. Elizabeth sent an army to Scotland to support the Reformers, who were in arms against their sovereign. Her fleet appeared there, and thus prevented the French from landing help for their friends. Mary of Guise retreated to Edinburgh and then to Dunbar. On the 29th of March an English army entered Scotland, and the regent received an asylum in Edinburgh castle, and in July 1560 she died. By the Treaty of Leith the French left Scotland and acknowledged Elizabeth as Queen of England.

Soon after that the young French King died. Mary Stuart was then invited by her Scottish subjects to return home and reign over them. She accepted — it happened in 1561.

Going to her own rough country, Mary embarked at Calais, and as she came out of the harbour, a vessel was lost before her eyes, and she said, "O! Good God! What an omen this is for such a voyage!" She was very fond of France, and sat on the deck, looking back at it, weeping until it was quite dark. When she went to bed, she ordered to be awoken at daybreak, if the French coast were still visible, that she might behold it for the last time. As morning happened to be clear, it was done so, and she again wept for the country she was leaving and said many times: "Farewell, France! I shall never see thee again!" She was only nineteen then.

When Mary came to Scotland and settled at the palace of Holyrood, she found herself among uncouth strangers and wild customs, very different from the court in France. When she was tired out by her voyage, the people met her with a serenade of discordant music and made her head ache — it was a fearful concert of Scotland pipes. She met the powerful leaders of the Reformed Church, who were against her amusement, however innocent, and denounced music and dancing as works of the devil. John Knox himself often lectured her, violently and angrily, and did much to make her life unhappy. All these reasons confirmed her old attachment to the Romish religion. She even gave a solemn pledge to the heads of the Romish
Church that if she ever succeeded to the English Crown, she would set up that religion again. And the Romish party constantly put her forward against the Queen of England.

Elizabeth, on the other hand, was very vain and jealous, and had an extraordinary dislike to people being married, though suitors of her own started up from Spain, Austria, Sweden and England. She always declared in her good set speeches that she would never be married at all, but would live and die a Maiden Queen.

Mary Queen of Scots in 1565 married her cousin Henry, Lord Darnley, also a grandson of Margaret Tudor. He was a tall simpleton; he could dance and play the guitar, but he had a habit to get drunk and eat glutonously, and often showed himself in many mean and vain ways.

Mary's brother, the Earl of Murray, the head of the Protestant party in Scotland, had opposed this marriage, partly on religious grounds, and partly from personal dislike of the bridegroom. Mary then banished Murray, and, when he and some other nobles rose in arms to support the reformed religion, she herself, in a month from her wedding day, rose against them in armour with loaded pistols in her saddle. Driven out of Scotland, the nobles presented themselves before Elizabeth — who called them traitors in public, but assisted them in private.

Mary soon began to hate her husband, and he, in his turn, began to hate David Rizzio, the Scotland Queen's secretary, whom he believed to be her lover. Darnley made a wicked agreement with several other lords to murder Rizzio. On the 1st of March, 1566, this was done: Darnley brought the conspirators up a private staircase, dark and steep, into a range of rooms where Mary was sitting at supper with her sister and the doomed man. When they entered the room, Darnley took the Queen round the waist, and Lord Ruthven came in, gaunt and ghastly, leaning on two men (he had just risen up from a bed of sickness). Rizzio ran behind the Queen seeking protection. "Let him come out of the room", said Ruthven. "He shall not leave the room", replied the Queen, "I read the danger in your face, and it is my will that he remain here". They then sat upon him, struggled with him, overturned the table, and killed Rizzio with fifty-six stabs. And the Queen said; "No more tears. I will think now of revenge!"

Her husband issued a proclamation, falsely denying that he had any knowledge of the late bloody business. Mary soon afterwards gave birth to a son. Now she fell in love with the Earl of Bothwell, and they together began to plan means of getting rid of Darnley. Bothwell had such power over Mary that he made her even to pardon the assassins of Rizzio.

Darnley, who had left Mary and gone to his father's house to Glasgow, now was taken ill with the small-pox, but it looked as pretence, and within another month Bothwell proposed to one of the late conspirators against Rizzio to murder Darnley.

Soon Mary induced her husband to go back with her to Edinburgh, and to occupy instead of the palace a lone house outside the city called the Kirk of Field. Here he lived for a week. One Sunday night Mary remained with him until ten o'clock, and then left him, to go to Holyrood to be present at an entertainment. At two o'clock in the morning the city was shaken by a great explosion, and the Kirk of Field was blown to atoms.

Darnley's body was found next day lying under a tree at some distance. It is impossible to say how it came there. But the Scottish people believed it was just that very revenge of which Mary had spoken so often. Voices cried out in the streets of Edinburgh in the dead of the night for justice on the murderess. Placards were posted by unknown hands in the public places denouncing Bothwell as a murderer, and the Queen as his helper. Three month after, in April 1567, Mary Queen of Scots became Bothwell's wife (he had been married himself, and his divorce was pronounced).

The nobles rose in arms, and, defeating Bothwell and Mary at Carberry, imprisoned the Queen in Lochleven Castle. The castle stood in the midst of a lake and could only be approached in a boat. Mary tried to escape more than once. The first time she had nearly
succeeded: she dressed in the clothes of her washerwoman, but one of the boatmen, who suspected something, wanted to lift up her veil, and she lifted her hand to prevent him - and the boatman saw it was very white, and he rowed her back again.

At the third attempt Mary succeeded. A boy in the castle called little Douglas stole the keys of the great gate and rowed the Queen across the lake, and then she rode a horse. But Murray, who had been made a regent of Scotland, while Mary was in prison, gave her a battle. In a quarter of an hour he cut down all her hopes. She had another wary ride on horseback, and took shelter at Dundrennan Abbey.

Mary resolved to throw herself on the mercy of Queen of England. Elizabeth was in a dilemma; Mary in England or, worse still, in France, might very well become a centre of plots against herself, but on the other hand it was well to have Mary in safe keeping. Elizabeth decided to hold an inquiry into Mary's share in the murer of Darnley. Mary was placed in honourable captivity at Bolton Castle. Lord Lennox, Darnley's father, accused Mary of the murder of his son, and she was considered guilty.

In the very next year (1569) a rebellion broke out in the north, headed by the Earls of Northumberland and Westmorland, to place Mary on the English throne and to restore the old religion. Here are several lines from an old English popular ballad about that rising in the North.

"Then rose that reverend gentleman,  
And with him came a goodly band  
To join with the brave Earl Percy,  
And all the flower o'Northumberland.  
Then newes to leeve London came  
In all the speede that ever might bee,  
And word is brought to our royall queene  
Of the rysing in the North countree.  
Her grace she turned her round about,  
And like a royall queene she swore,  
"I will ordain them such a breakfast,  
As never was in the North before".

The earls showed little military capacity, and the rising was suppressed. It is almost impossible to doubt, as Charles Dickens writes, that Mary knew and approved the plans of the rebels; and the Pope himself issued a bill, in which he openly called Elizabeth "the pretended queen" of England. So Mary, from the very moment of her coming to England, began to be the centre of plots and miseries. At last, one great plot was discovered, and it ended the career of Mary, Queen of Scots. Several people were planning the murder of Elizabeth in favour of Mary, who had to occupy the English throne. But the plotters were all taken and executed.

Queen Elizabeth had been warned long ago of what was being secretly done, that in holding Mary alive, she held "the wolf who would devour her". Mary was brought to trial, before a tribunal of forty, composed of both religions. There, and in the Star Chamber at Westminster, the trial lasted a fortnight. Mary defended herself with a great ability, but she could only deny everything. She was found guilty and declared to have incurred the penalty of death. The parliament met, approved the sentence, and prayed the Queen to have it executed. The Queen replied that she requested them to consider whether any means could be found to save Mary's life. The Parliament answered: No.

Feeling sure that her time had now come, Mary wrote a letter to the Queen of England, making three requests: first, that she might be buried in France; secondly, that she might not be executed in secret, but before her servants and some others; thirdly, that after her death, her servants should not be molested, but should be sent home. Elizabeth shed tears over this letter, but sent no answer.
In the morning of the execution Mary dressed herself in her best clothes; and at eight o'clock, when the sheriff came for her, she went downstairs, carrying a Bible in one hand and a crucifix in the other. In the hall a low scaffold, only two feet from the ground, was erected and covered with black, and where the executor from the Tower and his assistant stood, dressed in black velvet. The hall was full of people. While the sentence was being read, she sat upon a stool; and when it was finished, she again denied her guilt, as she had done before. When the executors uncovered her head and neck, she said that she had not been used to be undressed by such hands, or before so much company. Finally, one of her women fastened a cloth over her face, and she laid her neck upon the block, and repeated more than once in Latin: "Into thy hand, O Lord, I commend my spirit!"

When they held up her head, streaming with blood, the real hair beneath the false hair she had long worn turned out to be as grey as that of woman of seventy, and she was only in her forty-sixth year. All her beauty was gone.

Comprehension questions

1. What was Elizabeth like? How was she greeted by the people?
2. What petition was she presented with? What were her religious policies?
3. Why was Mary a source of anxiety for Elizabeth?
4. Queen Mary of Scots. Did she like it in Scotland after France?
5. Why was Mary imprisoned in Scotland?
6. Execution of Mary.

50. QUEEN ELIZABETH I. PART 2

Elizabeth and the Parliament. Although delivered from foreign enemies after the death of the Spanish Armada, Elizabeth had still to face serious trouble at home. The Puritans were not satisfied with the religious settlement, and in 1593, after issuing several tracts, directed mainly against the bishops, there were acts against both Puritans and Catholics. The Parliament also required skilful management in the matter of monopolies (1597-1602), and the social distress occasioned by the confiscation of Church lands and the consequent enclosures were met by a new Poor Law (1602).

Elizabeth had always had some personal favourite, and in her old age she was fond of the Earl of Essex. In 1596 the Earl had destroyed the Spanish fleet in Cadiz, and had become so popular and arrogant that he presumed on the queen's indulgence. But Elizabeth's resentment was soon appeased, and when affairs in Ireland came to crisis, Essex was appointed Lord Deputy.

Catholics and Puritans. The Roman Church had itself undergone a reformation, largely owing to the foundation of the Society of Jesus. The special mission of the Jesuits was to win back Protestant countries to the Church of Rome, and they were especially anxious to win back England. In 1580 a Jesuit mission to this country under Parsons (1546-1610) and Campion (1540-1581) gave the government an excuse for persecuting Catholics. They were fined for not going regularly to church or for attending the forbidden service of the Mass. The truth was that many Catholics had listened to the disloyal teaching of Parsons, and the government could hardly help itself. That Spain took part in all the plots was proved in 1583, when it became clear that the Spanish ambassador was very active in the question of English matters. On the other hand, Catholics as such were not much worse treated than the Puritans,

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6 In 1596 Cadiz was captured by an English fleet under the Earl of Essex and Sir Charles Howard. 32 Spanish ships were destroyed and the city was captured, looted and occupied for almost a month. Finally, when the royal authorities refused to pay a ransom demanded by the English for returning the city intact, they burned much of it before leaving with their booty.
whom the Archbishop was trying to keep in the Established Church. But in the case of the Puritans there was no question of foreign intervention.

*The concept of English imperialism.* During Elizabeth I's reign the postulates of English imperialism were first clearly formulated by John Dee, an English mathematician, astronomer, astrologer and consultant to the Queen. From 1570 Dee advocated a policy of political and economic strengthening of England and imperial expansion into the New World. In his manuscript, *Britannicae reipublicae synopsis* (1570), he outlined the current state of the Elizabethan Realm and was concerned with trade and national strength.

His 1576 General and rare memorials pertaining to the Perfect Arte of Navigation, was the first volume in an unfinished series planned to advocate the rise of imperial expansion. In the highly symbolic frontispiece, Dee included a figure of Britannia kneeling by the shore beseeching Elizabeth I, to protect her empire by strengthening her navy. Dee used Geoffrey of Monmouth's inclusion of Ireland in Arthur's imperial conquests to argue that King Arthur had established a 'British empire' abroad. He further argued that England exploit new lands through colonization and that this vision could become reality through maritime supremacy. Dee has been credited with the coining of the term British Empire.

Dee posited a formal claim to North America on the back of a map drawn in 1577-80; he noted that England's claim to the New World was stronger than that of Spain. He further asserted that Brutus of Britain and King Arthur as well as Madog had conquered lands in the Americas and therefore their heir Elizabeth I of England had a priority claim there. We may well say that it was he who introduced the tradition of treachery and espionage into the English politics, as well as ruthless pursuit of one's interests and not shunning any means to gain one's ends, the practice which passed through the centuries.

*The Sea-dogs.* Britain derived the maximum benefit from its safe geographical position, not coming directly in contact with hostile nations. On the other hand, it frequently resorted to intriguing, weakening European states, pitting them against each other and deftly using the European mess.

The English seamen had been harassing the Spaniards in the New World, capturing treasure ships. The armed private vessels were given special "letters of marque", the sovereign's tacit consent to raid shipping of other nations. The pirates, flying the English nest, later became admirals and national heroes. One can only imagine what furious spirit of adventure and avarice pushed them to conquer the world. Such was the case of Francis Drake, who regularly attacked Spanish shipping, of which Elizabeth I (despite protestations of innocence) took a share. Drake looted rich Spanish depots and attacked their treasure-ships at sea. In 1577 he began his famous three years' voyage round the world, from which he returned laden with the wealth he had taken from Spanish possessions.

Other adventurers, like Sir Martin Frobisher, wished to reap wealth and honour by holding to find a passage to India, the world's treasure house, by the north-west. Sir Walter Raleigh and Sir Richard Orenville decided to found a colony in North America, but the attempt in Virginia was a failure.

*Elizabeth's foreign policy.* Spain was then the strongest European country. For many years Philip II of Spain, an austere and intelligent man, the husband of the late sister of Elizabeth, maintained peace with England, and had even defended Elizabeth from the Pope's threat of excommunication. This was a measure taken to preserve a European balance of power. Ultimately, Elizabeth allied England with the Protestant rebels in the Netherlands (importantly, Philip was ruler of the Netherlands as well as of Spain). Further, English ships began a policy of piracy against Spanish trade and threatened to plunder the great Spanish treasure ships coming from the new world. English ships went so far as to attack a Spanish port: Elizabeth sent out Admiral Drake (a famous pirate) to the port of Cadiz, where he burnt a hundred vessels full of stores. The last straw for Philip was the Treaty of Nonsuch signed by Elizabeth in 1585 — promising troops and supplies to the rebels. Although it can be argued
this English action was the result of Philip's Treaty of Joinville with the Catholic League of France, Philip considered it an act of war by England.

The execution of Mary, Queen of Scots in 1587 ended Philip's hopes of placing a Catholic on the English throne. He turned instead to more direct plans to invade England, with vague plans to return the country to Catholicism. In 1588, he sent a fleet, the Spanish Armada, to rendezvous with the Duke of Parma's army and convey it across the English Channel. However, the operation had little chance of success from the beginning, because of lengthy delays, lack of communication between Philip II and his two commanders and the lack of a deep bay for the fleet. At the point of attack, a storm struck the English Channel, already known for its harsh currents and choppy waters, which devastated large numbers of the Spanish fleet. There was a tightly fought battle against the English navy. Drake sent eight blazing fire-ships right into the middle of the Armada. The Spaniards tried to get out to sea and so became dispersed. The storm drove them among rocks and shoals; and the end of the Invincible fleet was swift.\(^7\)

England had undermined the Spanish influence in Holland, had been subverting its colonies, had engaged in buccaneering and plunder, Cadiz had been destroyed by the Anglo-Dutch force after a failed attempt to seize the treasure fleet. And, although in later years attempts to seize territories in the Caribbean were defeated by Spain's rebuilt navy and their improved intelligence networks, Spain lost its importance on the world arena.

France too had its religious difficulties. War between the Catholics and Huguenots had been raging more or less continuously since 1567. In 1572 there was a lull, and the head of the Huguenots, the King of Navarre, married the French king's sister. The queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, seized the opportunity to arrange for a wholesale massacre of the Reformers on the morning of St. Bartholomew's day.

The English people were anxious that Elizabeth should marry and thus give them an heir to the throne, but the queen preferred playing off her suitors against one another to giving England over to a foreign prince. Her great object was to gain time in order that when the

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\(^7\) A measure of the character of Philip can be gathered by the fact that he personally saw to it that the wounded men of the Armada were treated and received pensions, and that the families of those who died were compensated for their loss, which was highly unusual for the time.
inevitable contest with Spain arrived, England might be ready to meet it. That contest was hastened by two things: the zeal of the Romanists and the enterprise of the English seamen.

Charles Dickens writes that the Maiden Queen, being rather wise herself, also had very clever and distinguished assistance, and among them Sir Walter Raleigh, who was an English aristocrat, writer, poet, soldier, courtier, spy, explorer. In his early life he came to Ireland as part of the army sent to put down the Desmond Rebellion. Later he became a landlord of properties confiscated from the Irish, 42,000 acres were granted to him. There he made an acquaintance of Edmund Spenser, who also participated in the seizure and distribution of the Irish lands. He rose rapidly in Queen Elizabeth I's favour, and was knighted in 1585. He was involved in the early English colonisation of Virginia under a royal patent. In 1591 he secretly married Elizabeth Throckmorton, one of the Queen's ladies-in-waiting, without the Queen's permission for which he and his wife were sent to the Tower of London. After his release, they retired to his estate at Sherborne, Dorset. In 1594 Raleigh heard of a "City of Gold" in South America and sailed to find it, publishing an exaggerated account of his experiences in a book that contributed to the legend of "El Dorado". Raleigh is also well known for popularising tobacco in England.

Ireland. For generations the two chief men in Ireland have been the Earl of Kildare, the head of the Geraldines, and the Earl of Tyrone, the head of the O'Neills. Both houses raised their own armed forces and imposed their own law, independent of the English government of Ireland. Beginning in the 1530s, successive English administrations in Ireland tried to expand English control over the entire island. An attempt to introduce English colonies in King's County and Queen's County was met with resistance. The Irish revolted, but the rebellion of Shane O'Neill (1530-1567) was suppressed in 1567. Twelve years later (1579), the Geraldines rose against the Queen's government, and were put down by Lord Grey only with a great difficulty. After three years of scorched earth warfare, famine hit Ireland. In April 1582, the provost marshal of Munster, Sir Warham St Leger, estimated that 30,000 people had died of famine in the previous six months. Plague broke out in Cork city, where the country people fled to avoid the fighting. People continued to die of famine and plague long after the war had ended, and it is estimated that by 1589 one third of the province's population had died. Grey was recalled by Elizabeth I for his excessive brutality.

In 1598 Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, Shane's nephew, headed a general Irish revolt, and Earl of Essex, a favourite of Elizabeth I, was appointed Lord Deputy to meet this difficulty. He failed in the campaign and was recalled in disgrace; his haughty temper led him to violence, and he was eventually executed for treason, although it is probable that his real object was merely to compel the queen to dismiss her ministers. After his death Lord Mountjoy crushed Tyrone's rebellion in the last year of Elizabeth's reign (1603).

The first and most important result of the conquest was the disarmament of the native Irish lordships and the establishment of central government control for the first time over the whole island; Irish culture, law and language were replaced; and many Irish lords lost their lands and hereditary authority. Thousands of English, Scottish and Welsh settlers were "planted" into the country and the administration of justice was enforced according to English common law and statutes of the Irish parliament. Race hatred was still further accentuated: the settlers ruthlessly evicted the indigents from their land and treated them like dirt.

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They were rebellions by the Earl of Desmond – head of the FitzGerald dynasty in Munster – and his followers, the Geraldines and their allies against the threat of the extension of Elizabethan English government over the province. The rebellions were motivated primarily by the desire to maintain the independence of feudal lords from their monarch, but also had an element of religious antagonism between Catholic Geraldines and the Protestant English state. The result was the destruction of the Desmond dynasty and the subsequent plantation or colonisation of Munster with English settlers. 'Desmond' is the Anglicisation given to the Irish Deasmumhain, which translates to 'South Munster'. Also see the section on Ireland.
Demise of Elizabeth I. It is probable that the death of her young and gallant favourite in the prime of his years, was never of the Queen's mind afterwards. Still, Elizabeth held out for another year. At last, on the tenth of March, 1603, the Queen fell ill of a very bad cold. She fell in a stupor and was supposed to be dead. She recovered her consciousness, however, and then nothing would make her go to bed; for she said that she knew: if she did, she should never get up again. There the Queen lay for ten days, on cushions on the floor, without any food, until the Lord Admiral got her into bed at last, partly by persuasions and partly by main force.

When they asked the Queen, who should succeed her, she replied that her seat had been the seat of Kings, and that she would have for her successor "not the rascal's son, but a King's". Upon this, the lords present stared at one another, and took the liberty of asking whom she meant; to which she answered: "Whom should I mean, but our cousin of Scotland!" She died very quietly, on the 24th of March, 1603, in the forty-fifth year of her reign.

That reign is widely thought to be a glorious one, and is made for ever memorable by the distinguished men who flourished in it. Apart from the voyagers, statesmen, and scholars, whom it produced, the names of Francis Bacon, Spenser, and Shakespeare are remembered with pride. It was a good reign for discovery, for commerce, and for English enterprise. The Queen was very popular, and in her journeys about her dominions was always received with the liveliest joy. "I think", Ch. Dickens writes, "the truth is, that she was not half so good as she has been made out, and not half so bad as she has been made out. She had her fine qualities, but she was coarse, capricious, and treacherous, and had all the faults of an excessively vain young woman long after she was an old one".

The times of the Tudors were ended; the Stuarts had come.

Comprehension questions

1. Elizabeth and the Parliament.
2. Catholics and Puritans.
3. The concept of English imperialism.
5. Elizabeth's foreign policy.
6. Ireland.
7. Demise of Elizabeth I.

51. RELATIONS WITH RUSSIA (TSARDOM OF RUS)

In 1553-1554 the English merchant Richard Chancellor, who was a confidant of the English court, travelled to Tsardom of Rus and was granted an audience with young Ivan IV (the Terrible). Chancellor appeared in Russia amid the unfolding geopolitical confrontation of a religious and civilizational character between intensely protestantised England and the rest of the Christian world, mostly Catholic. The analytical findings, forwarded by Chancellor to London were, in fact, geopolitical. [Martirosyan 2008] England sought trade paths to Persia and India bypassing its chief European rivals and knew that Russia could provide such a path.

Chancellor described the life in Rus, her relationships with the neighbouring countries, her cities, laws, the personality of Tsar Ivan IV. In fact, the writings of Chancellor, his companions and followers betray their intrinsic prejudice against the countries of the East (and the peoples of other “newly-discovered” continents), which has become the staple of the English imperialism:

“The empire and government of the king is very large, and his wealth at this time exceeding great. And because the city of Mosco is the chiefest of all the rest, it seemeth of itself to challenge the first place in this discourse. Our men say, that in bigness it is as great as
the city of London with the suburbs thereof. There are many and great buildings in it, but for beauty and fairness nothing comparable to ours. There are many towns and villages also, but built out of order, and with no handsomeness: their streets and ways are not paved with stone as ours are: the walls of their houses are of wood: the roofs for the most part are covered with shingle boards. There is hard by the city a very fair castle, strong, and furnished with artillery, whereunto the city is joined directly towards the north with a brick wall: the walls also of the castle are built with brick, and are in breadth or thickness eighteen feet. This castle hath on the one side a dry ditch, on the other side the river Moscua, whereby it is made almost inexpugnable...

They are a kind of people most sparing in diet, and most patient in extremity of cold, above all others; for when the ground is covered with snow, and is grown terrible and hard with the frost, this Russe hangs up his mantle, or soldier's coat, against that part from whence the wind and snow drives, and so making a little fire, lieth down with his back towards the weather: this mantle of his serves him for his bed, wall, house and all: his drink is cold water of the river, mingled with oatmeal, and this is all his good cheer, and he thinketh himself well and daintily fed therewith, and so sitteth down by his fire, and upon the hard ground roasteth as it were his weary sides thus daintily stuffed: the hard ground is his feather-bed, and some block or stone his pillow: and as for his horse, he is as it were a chamber fellow with his master, faring both alike. How justly may this barbarous and rude Russe condemn the daintiness and niceness of our captains, who, living in a soil and air much more temperate, yet commonly use furred boots and cloaks! But thus much of the furniture of their common soldiers. But those that are of higher degrees come into the field a little better provided...

There is one use and custom amongst diem which is strange and rare, but yet it is very ridiculous, and that is this: when any man dieth amongst them, they take the dead body and put it in a coffin or chest, and in the hand of the corpse they put a little scrawl, and in the same there are these words written, that the same man died a Russe of Russes, having received the faith, and died in the same. This writing or letter, they say, they send to St. Peter, who receiving it (as they affirm) reads it, and by and by admits him into heaven, and that his glory and place is higher and greater than the glory of the Christians of the Latin church, reputing themselves to be followers of a more sincere faith and religion than they: they hold opinion that we are but half Christians, and themselves only to be the true and perfect church. These
are the foolish and childish dotages of such ignorant barbarians.” [Pinkerton 1810] Careful attention was paid to the fact that Russia had many enemies and managed to tame them. Lithuania, Poland, Sweden, Denmark, Livonia, Crimea, Nogai are "terrified of the Russian name." The conclusion that Chancellor made about Russia was that if the Russian knew their strength, no one could compete with them, but they did not know it.

Hugh Willoughby, Chancellor's companion, wrote: “They (Russian fishermen)... being dismissed, spread by and by a report abroad of the arrival of a strange nation, of a singular gentleness and courtesy: whereupon the common people came together, offering to these new come guests victuals freely, and not refusing to traffic with them, except they had been bound by a certain religious use and custom not to buy any foreign commodities, without the knowledge and consent of the king.

By this time our men had learned that this country was called Russia or Moscovy, and that Juan Vasiliwich (which was at that time their king's name) ruled and governed far and wide in those places. And the barbarous Russes asked likewise of our men, whence they were, and what they came for: whereunto answer was made, that they were Englishmen sent into those coasts, from the most excellent king Edward the Sixth, having from him in commandment, certain things to deliver to their king, and seeking nothing else but his amity and friendship, and traffic with his people, whereby they doubled not, but that great commodity and profit would grow to the subjects of both kingdoms...The barbarians heard these things very gladly, and promised their aid and furtherance to acquaint their king out of hand with so honest and a reasonable request. In the meantime Master Chancelor entreated victuals for his money of the governor of that place and required hostages of them, likewise, for the more assurance of safety to himself and his company. To whom these governors answered, that they knew not in that case the will of their king, but yet were willing in such things as they might lawfully do to please him: which was as then to afford him the benefit of victuals.”

Yet Chancellor and his company were impressed with the splendour of the Tsar's reception, as well as his majesty, ease and dignity. "There was a majesty in his countenance proportionable with the excellency of his estate", he wrote. They pointed out the young Tsar's forbearance and courtesy, the fact that Russians were devoted to their emperor, whom they simultaneously dreaded and loved. It was reported that the Tsar was ready to listen to complaints and assist, missed nothing, made no fun hunting or playing music, was concerned only with two thoughts: how to serve God and how to destroy the enemies of Russia.  

Ivan IV rewarded the ambassadors with a letter to King Edward VI that was remarkable for its generosity of feeling. Upon Chancellor's return to England the first joint-stock company in Elizabethan England, the Muscovy Company, was chartered in mid 1555. A detailed inventory was signed by Tsar Ivan IV, of the privileges granted to English traders in Russia. From then on they traded wool, copper, lead, spices and ammunition for furs, fish, wax, tar, timber, flax, felt and yarn.

The principal shareholders of the company, however, were members of the English Royal Privy Council and one of its "special" activities was evidently to spy for the English throne. For thirty years the company had been unprofitable, funded from the royal treasury.

Together with the company, a graduate of Cambridge, healer, astrologer, magician and spy named Elizeus Bomelius (Bomeley) appeared in Moscow, who became a personal physician of Ivan IV. Bomeley was skilled in manufacture of poisons, and some historians find it

9 See the accounts in Pinkerton, John. Best and most interesting voyages and travels, in all parts of the world. Philadelphia: Kimber and Conrad, 1810.
10 The Muscovy Company. URL: http://www.ivantheterriblepolo.co.uk/The_Muscovy.pdf

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plausible that he had been slowly poisoning the tsar, as well as his wife and son Ivan Ivanovich, with mercury, which caused Ivan's fits of uncontrolled fury.  

As mentioned above, the ultimate goal of London was geopolitical: the English sought to reach out for the Eastern countries, with their fabulous riches. And while the Catholic countries pursued their policy by military force, London attempted to get a monopoly on trade with Russia. England realised the untold profits the land and river routes to the East promised and tried to set over them full control so as to have an absolute monopoly on the trade exchange both in the West and the East.

At first everything went well for the Muscovy Company. It received the monopoly on trade with the Russian state, then the right of free trade, and in 1569 — a unique right of duty-free-transit trade with the East by way of the Volga. However, the unrestrained avarice of the English partners led to the fact that in 1570 after one of his ferocious attacks, in a spell of brightening, Ivan IV divested the Muscovy Company of all sorts of benefits. True, later, as a result of many requests, some of these benefits were restored, but the monopoly was not to be renewed.

Ivan IV knew the value of dynastic marriages and wanted a good interstate union with England. At one time, being left a widower, he attempted to propose to Queen Elizabeth. In response, the head of the Secret Service in England, Lord Burghley (in Moscow called "Lord Burle") in his instructions to Randolph, the British Ambassador in Rus, directly ordered only to seek privileges for British merchants, but in every way to evade any negotiations on the alliance, especially on the marriage basis. [Martirosyan 2008]

Ivan the Terrible's life patently falls into two parts, where two different persons reveal themselves. Generous and just, by universal acclaim, before 30 years of age, cruel and bad-tempered - in his later years. The character of Ivan IV, as well as the history of Russia in general, has been frequently misrepresented, given a negative bias or plainly belied in the Western historiography. For instance, Jerome Horsey, head of the Muscovy Company, informed the European public that the bloodthirsty Ivan IV brutally murdered 700,000 people in Novgorod, when he was subjugating that town, even though there were hardly 30,000 people living there. A modern historian, Ronald Hingly, also misrepresents and grossly exaggerates facts, calling the Oprichniks, the Tsar's militia, 'licensed gangsters' and writing that Ivan the terrible "had... been engaged in warfare no less bloody (than wars with foreign countries) with his own subjects." [Hingly, Ronald. Russia : A Concise History. by Thames & Hudson, 1991.]

However, there is evidence that at the time of his reign there were no executions without trial, and, according to the historian R.G. Skrynnikov, who had spent several decades gleaning data, the total number of those executed during the "mass terror" in the time of Ivan IV was from 3,000 to 4,000. And those were the dashing times in the world: the St Bartholomew's Day massacre in France took the lives of from 5,000 to 30,000 people; the number of those executed under Henry VIII is estimated at 72,000, under Elizabeth I - 89,000 (by the way, under "Bloody Mary" just 287 people were executed).

11 In 1963, when the USSR Ministry of Culture Commission opened the tombs of Ivan the Terrible and his family and made the autopsy of their bodies, they found excessively high concentration of mercury in the bodies of Tsar Ivan IV, his wife Anastasia and his second son Ivan Ivanovich. Besides, there was a considerable excess of arsenic and lead in the tsarevich's body. The speculations have been made on the Tsar and his son suffering from diseases and treated with mercury. M.M. Gerasimov strongly dismissed the speculation of Ivan IV suffering from syphilis: there were no signs of the implied disease on the bones of the skeletons, including the skull of Ivan IV, and in the twenty years they would have been undoubtedly formed and be quite manifest, if the disease had really occurred. Yet he did not confirm the theory of poisoning [Gerasimov M.M. A documentary portrait of Ivan the Terrible // Brief reports of the Archaeological Institute of the A.S. of the USSR. 1965. No. 100. S. 139-142.]

Other historians, however, lean to the poisoning theory, e.g. Panova, T.D. Ivan the Terrible's Wives: Life and Death of the First Russian Tzarinas.

12 In 1579 Bomelius decided to abscond with the amassed riches, but was seized, tortured and put to death.
Prince Kurbsky, who had defected to Lithuania, in his writings lashed out at Ivan IV, accusing him of many a bloody deeds, which later largely proved to be false, the fact convincingly shown nowadays by facts from archives and records. (On Kurbsky: [Pronina, Natalya. Ivan Grozny: Victimizer or Victim?; Lyubimova, E. The Maligned Tsar Ivan the Terrible].) However, Kurbsky's accounts were largely uncritically reiterated in the writings of influential Russian historians, including Nikolay Karamzin.

The Romanovs dynasty, who came to succeed Ivan IV, also generally misrepresented him. Thus a highly important document of Ivan IV's time, called 'Stoglav', had been forbidden for study by Patriarch Nikon.

But contrary to this, Ivan IV cannot be estimated otherwise but as a great tsar, an exceptionally able ruler from the historical and statehood perspectives. Ivan IV collected the vast Russian lands under a single sceptre, continuing the tradition of Ivan I Kalita of Moscow, Dmitry of the Don, Ivan III. He annexed the Kazan and the Astrakhan Khanates, conducted the Livonian War for the access to the Baltic Sea, stopped the attacks of the Crimean Khan, began annexing Siberia. He enlarged the area of Rus 30 times.

Ivan established equality among all segments of the population: at the time the serfdom in Russia did not exist; peasants were obliged to stay on the land of a landowner only until they paid for its rent, then they could move where they chose, as for their children, they were considered free from birth. Though proponent of strong centralised power, Ivan IV nevertheless drew on the old Russian tradition of the veche democracy. Since 1549 he began to call the Zemsky Sobors (Soviets of the Land), which solved the most important questions of the state. It differed from the Old Russian veche by the fact that it, firstly, was nation-wide and, secondly, people of all estates were represented there. The other important body of governance was the Boyar Duma, the council of aristocracy. The Zemsky Sobor with the Boyar Duma were a kind of model legislative body for those times. V.O. Kliuchevsky defined the Zemsky Sobor as "a special type of popular representation, different from the western representative assembly." The Zemsky Sobor was not called randomly, when the monarch needed money, as frequently was the case with English Parliament; it was a truly collegiate body to decide matters of state and society importance. Then, there was a more democratic foundation to the Sobor than to Parliament: it represented all the strata of the population, with the commons including not onlyburgesses, artisans, but many peasants. In general, Ivan made little distinction of rank and title and surrounded himself with advisors from all walks of life, including those from a peasant background. [Kimball, Ch. S. Medieval Russia.]

He revised the code of laws, issued by Ivan the Great, introducing the jury, liquidating judicial privileges of the aristocracy and strengthening the role of the system of the judicial bodies of the state (Sudebnik of 1550). The Sudebnik provided the active participation of the elective representatives of peasants (rural heads, jurymen, tselovalniki, dvorskie etc) in the legal proceedings. According to it, the arrest of a suspected person could be made at the consent of the local community only. The representative of a community (dyak) participated in judicial office-work. According to the Sudebnik the town and rural communities had rights of the self-government and the distribution of taxes.

He asked forgiveness, both from God and from the people, for the past sins he had committed, something that European rulers generally eschewed.

Ivan IV was one of the most learned men of his time, had a phenomenal memory, theological erudition, was a good speaker. With the view to procuring literacy, the Tsar helped to organize printing, established free primary education at religious schools, created trade schools. He lavishly donated to monasteries, was interested in the life of great kings of the past, zealously collected a huge library, which later disappeared, presenting a source of numerous speculations to this day. (e.g. [Shabanov, P.P. How can I get to Ivan Grozny Library? / In Russian North # 57-63])
The boyars had been a most difficult group to control, since they had inherited large amounts of land and felt that they had no responsibilities to the tsar and the state beyond paying taxes. Many of them had private armies and dispensed justice within their own territories, making their lands virtually independent states within the state. Ivan required the boyars to supply officers and men for his military campaigns, used arbitrary confiscations and an occasional murder on those who disobeyed. Since the boyars were not trustworthy even when they complied, Ivan created a new nobility that was: the service gentry ("oprichniks"). Those who made up the service gentry were officers, given small to medium-sized estates as a reward for their service. Since the tsar could give or take away their lands any time, the service gentry remained loyal to him, and he used them as a check against the hereditary nobility.

It is in his rule, that the formation of the framework of Russia as a country (in geographical terms) was basically completed, and the centralized Russian state emerged in the form and concept of the great Eurasian land, as we know it today.

The gruesome medical effects of mercury on the mental condition of a human are depression, insomnia, delusions of persecution, hallucinations, violent attacks of insanity, all of which Ivan the Terrible manifested in excess in the latter half of his life. The probable plan was to undermine the faith of the people in the Anointed Tsar of God, break the strength of the country at a time when the bonds between the autocrat and the people were so much needed, foster in the subjects a delusional idea that all power was criminal, nurture and cultivate treason as a mere opposition to the madness of power and emblazon this "madness" for centuries ahead. On a larger scale, they probably sought to discredit the very name of the Russian state. As the great Russian poet and diplomat, F.I. Tyutchev wrote:

So long ago in specious Europe,
where falsehood grew so rife and rank,
so long ago by Pharisee learning,
a dual truth had been upheld:
they praise themselves for law and justice,
the call us violent, ignoble,
and since the ancient times they blacken
the heirloom of the Slavdom noble.

The poisoners also knew about the catastrophic consequences of mercury poisoning in the offspring and hoped to undermine the reigning dynasty of Rurik, thereby clearing the space for their puppets. This dastardly plan was actually executed, and only owing to a miracle, the deep intuition of the people who found the strength and courage to repel the deadly ill, Rus barely withstood the time of the so-called Great Troubles. [Martirosyan, op.cit.]

Perhaps, it is no coincidence that the Muscovy Company was engaged in unprecedented brisk activity during the Great Troubles — from the times of Tsar Boris's (Boris was closely associated with Jerome Horsey, head of the Muscovy Company, and exempted English merchants from duties) — to all the False Dmitrys. The agents of this company — John Merrick and William Russell — tried to impose British protectorate at the height of the Troubles in Russia, and in 1612 this company planned to arrange a military expedition to Russia, under the guise of assistance to Moscow, hoping to capture the Russian North — then the only Russia's way to the sea. This project was strongly rejected by Minin and Pozharsky.

The very "tradition" of meanness towards Russia, of the realization of insidious plans by means of secret services lingered on and passed through the ages. Mikhail Fedorovich Romanov, newly elected to reign, was looked after by another English "healer", astrologer, magician, but above all, hereditary spy — Arthur Dee. (Arthur Dee was the son of John Dee, Elizabeth I's advisor, theorist of English imperialism.) He was sent to Russia in 1623,
appointed through the recommendation of James I. At the same time with the ascension of Mikhail Fedorovich to the throne, Russia was drawn into the infamous Thirty Years' War, based on the confrontation between the two currents in Christianity: Catholicism, gradually weakening, but still powerful enough, and Protestantism, day by day gaining strength. The war was waged for the control of the world. And Russia, in spite of all her national interests, which demanded to remain neutral, entered into this long fierce bloody conflict on the anti-Habsburg side, that is, in coalition with the Protestant states, against the Holy Roman Empire of the German nation (the Habsburg Empire). It all ended rather pitiable for Russia: after thirty years of this pan-European conflict, the Peace of Westphalia was concluded in 1648, in the text of which the name of the Moscow Tsar was on the penultimate place — only the Transylvanian prince was listed below him. And it is no surprise that in just two years before the birth of Peter I there appeared the first pan-European geopolitical plan for the colonization and enslavement of Russia. Assessing the state of pre-Petrine Russia, a Russian historian, Academician E.V. Tarle pointed out that in the late 17th - early 18th c. the position of Russia revealed a "threat to its national security and even its national self-preservation in the broadest sense of the word" 13.

Comprehension questions

1. What English travellers travelled to Moscow in Ivan the Terrible times? What were their accounts of Russia and Ivan IV?
2. The establishment of the Muscovy Company. What was the ultimate goal of England? How did the company’s work progress?
3. Ivan IV’s healer and the theory of poisoning.
4. What achievements in governing Rus is Ivan IV credited with?
5. What were the plans of the poisoners?
6. The Muscovy Company during the Great Troubles.
7. Russia’s role in the Thirty Years’ War.

52. THE ENGLISH RENAISSANCE

The period of the English Renaissance is called Elizabethan Times, because it coincided with the reign of Elizabeth I. All the countries of Europe had such Renaissance periods in their art, philosophy, poetry and literature, though not in the same centuries. The real reason is that all the European culture and science came to such periods when the work of their minds flourished, and great thinkers, philosophers, artists, writers and poets appeared. England was not an exceptional country, only here the Renaissance began somewhat later than, for instance, in Italy, but, as in any land, it meant the whole change in art, thought and temper, which recreated the European mind. The English Renaissance of literature only came in full flower during the last twenty years of the XVI century, later than in any Southern land, but it was all the richer for delay.

The two forces, which were the cause of such a flourishing, were the political settlement, culminating in the later reign of Elizabeth, and the religious settlement, when the Anglican Church grew out of the English Reformation. A third force lay in the Renaissance itself, in the narrower meaning of the term. It was culture — the prefatory work of culture and education. "Elizabethan" literature took its complexion from the circumstance that all these three forces, political, religious and educational, were of very different duration and value. The enthusiasm of 1590-1600 was already dying down in the years 1600-1610, when the great tragedies were written; and soon a wholly new set of political forces began to tell on art. The religious inspiration was mainly confined to certain important channels; and literature as a whole, from

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13 Tarle, E.V. The Great Northern War before the invasion of the Swedish army in Russia. 1700-1708. 128
first to last, was far more secular than religious. But Renaissance culture tells all the time and over the whole field, from 1500 to 1660. It is this culture which really binds together the long and varied chronicle.

Down to 1579 the Tudor rule was hardly a direct inspiration to authors. The later years of Henry VIII were full of episodes too tragically picturesque for safe handling in the lifetime of his children. The next two reigns were engrossed with the religious war; and the first twenty years of Elizabeth, which laid the basis for an age of peace and national self-confidence, were themselves poor in themes for patriotic art. The treason on the northern lords was echoed only in a ballad. But the voyagers and explorers reported their experience, as a duty, not for fame, and these were afterwards edited.

But by 1580 the nation was filled with the sense of Elizabeth's success and its own greatness. Jubilant patriotism of the years followed; a feeling that created the peculiar forms of the chronicle play and poem. These were borrowed neither from antiquity nor from abroad, and were never afterwards revived.

The wave of free talk in the circles of Marlowe (1564-1593) (English dramatist), Greville, Sir Fulke (English poet and philosopher, 1554-1628), Sir Walter Raleigh (1552-1618), ripples through their writings. There were many poets in this period: Thomas Wyatt (1503?-1542), one of the founders of the Renaissance lyrics; Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey (1517-1547); Edmund Spenser (1552-1599), author of many sonnets and the poem "The Faerie Queen", his central work; Walter Raleigh, Philip Sidney (1554-1586); Fulke Greville (see above); and others. Many of them, such as Sidney, Raleigh, Greville, were very active in politics, were statesmen, and so on. Such was the spirit of the time.

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\text{Encarta Encyclopedia, The New York Public Library/Hulton Deutsch Collection/Culver Pictures}
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**Edmund Spenser (lower right), Christopher Marlowe (upper right), Sir Walter Raleigh (centre), and William Shakespeare (left)**

On the other hand, there appeared many dramatists in this period. Drama was the most individual product of all English literature. There was a certain circle of authors of drama, called "University wits", who flourished between 1580 and 1595, they included Christopher Marlowe (see above), John Lyly (1554?-1606), Robert Greene (1560?-1592) and some others, they all wrote plays.
The very outstanding figure of them was Christopher Marlowe, who is said to be the father of English tragedy. He was the eldest son of a shoemaker at Canterbury. The dramatist received the rudiments of his education at King's School, Canterbury. After that he went to Cambridge. Francis Kelt, the mystic-philosopher, burnt in 1589 for heresy, was his tutor and fellow, and may have had some share in developing Marlowe's opinions in religious matters.

Before 1587 Marlowe seems to have quitted Cambridge for London, where he almost at once began to write plays. He knew many literary people in London and was a personal friend of Sir Walter Raileigh; he also had among his friends famous scientists, mathematicians and astronomers. He seems at any rate to have been associated with Sir Walter Raleigh’s school of atheism.

His main works were "Tambourlane the Great" (1587), "Dr. Faustus" (1588), "The famous tragedy of the Rich Jew of Malta" (1589) and "Edward the Second" (1594). (He was a predecessor of Goethe in "Dr. Faustus").

As a result of some disposition made by Thomas Kyd under the influence of torture, the Privy Council was going to investigate some serious charges against Marlowe when his career was abruptly and scandalously finished. The order had already been issued for his arrest, when he was killed in a quarrel with a man who had different names (Archer or Ingram) at the end of May, 1593. We really do not know the circumstances of Marlowe's death.

Marlowe also wrote poems. It is impossible to overestimate the place and the value of Christopher Marlowe as a leader among English poets. He first, and he alone, guided Shakespeare into the right way of work. He is the greatest discoverer, the most daring and inspired pioneer, in all English poetic literature. After his arrival the way was prepared, the paths were made straight, for Shakespeare.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE (1564-1616) was born on the 23rd of April, and baptized in Holy Trinity Church, Stratford-on-Avon on the 26th. His father, John Shakespeare, was a burgess of a borough, in 1555 he was chosen an alderman, and in 1568 — a bailiff. He was a trader of various kinds of trade. His wife, Mary Arden, came from an ancient family and was the heiress of some land.

William had got education in Stratford Grammar School; it was of good quality, the borough paid to the schoolmaster his salary. The boy's education consisted mostly of Latin studies.

Shakespeare did not go to the university. Instead of that he married Anne Hathaway (5 years his senior) at the age of eighteen. In May, 1583, they had christened at the Stratford Church their daughter Susanna, and in February, 1585, they had twins Hamnet and Judith.

How Shakespeare spent the next eight years is not known. His gathered financial difficulties doubtless caused William to remove from school at the unusually early age (about 13). There are many stories and legends of stealing deer; of earning his living as a schoolmaster in the country; of his entering to the world of theatre by minding the horses of theatregoers; that Shakespeare spent some time as a member of great household, and that he was a soldier. But we have no document about all this.

By the 90th Shakespeare has attracted attention of the young Henry Wriothesly, the third earl of Southampton; and to this nobleman were dedicated his first published poems "Venus and Adonis" and "The Rape of Lucrece". It is not clear how his career in the theatre began, but from about 1594 he was an important member of the great company of players called the King's Men after the accession of James I in 1603. They had the best theatre, the Globe; they had the best dramatist, Shakespeare. It is no wonder that the company prospered. For about 20 years Shakespeare devoted himself to his art, writing more than a million words of poetic drama of the highest quality.

The Elizabethan stage was more plastic than ours; spectators surrounded it on three sides. An outer stage stuck out into the pit, and behind it was a small inner stage, across which a curtain could be drawn. Above the inner stage was a balcony or upper stage. The inner stage
could be a cave, or study, or a bedroom; the upper stage could be the top of a town wall or
Juliet's balcony; the outer stage could represent a street or a forest or a throne room.

Shakespeare died on April, 23, 1616. No name was written on his gravestone in the chancel
of the parish church of Stratford-on-Avon. Instead these lines, possibly, his own, appeared:

"Good friend, for Jesus' sake forbear
To dig the dust enclosed here
Blest be the man that spares these stones,
And curst be he that moves my bones".

Globe Theatre Interior

Shakespeare lived at a time when ideas and social structure, established in the Middle
Ages, still informed men's thought and behaviour. The order of things during the Elizabethan
time did not go unquestioned. The Christian faith was no longer single. Interplay of new and
old ideas was typical for the time. Shakespeare's plays, written between 1603 and 1606,
unmistakably reflect a new, Jacobean, distrust. The Elizabethan language at that time was
changing. It became more standardized in grammar and vocabulary; and, more slowly, in
spelling.

In some of Shakespeare's early historical plays-chronicles events just beyond living
memory but of great moment in the lives of present generations can be seen. The civil wars
(the Wars of the Roses), the story of York and Lancaster was of great interest to Shakespeare's
contemporaries. Shakespeare was the author of the five great tragedies (among others):
"Romeo and Juliet" (1594-1595), "Hamlet" (1600), "King Lear", "Macbeth" (1605- 1606),
and "Othello" (1604-1605). He also wrote comedies such as "The Taming of the Shrew"
(1594), "The Merchant of Venice" (1597), and others.

Comprehension questions

1. Characterise the English Renaissance in comparison with these periods in other countries.
2. What three causes of the flourishing of literature under Elizabeth I do historians specify?
3. Name important names in literature and drama.
4. Give a brief account of Marlow's biography.
5. Speak on Shakespeare.
53. JAMES THE FIRST (1566-1625) AND THE GUNPOWDER PLOT

James VI of Scotland, Mary Stuart's son, succeeded Elizabeth and became James I of England, without opposition.

"Our cousin of Scotland", as Ch. Dickens describes him, "was ugly, awkward, and shuffling both in mind and in person. His tongue was much too large for his mouth, his legs were much too weak for his body, and his dull goggle-eyes started and rolled like an idiot's. He was cunning, covetous, wasteful, idle, drunken, greedy, dirty, cowardly, a great swearer, and the most conceited man on earth. His figure ... presented a most ridiculous appearance, dressed in thick padded clothes, as a safeguard against being stabbed (of which he lived in continual fear), of a glass-green from head to foot, with a hunting-horn dangling at his side instead of a sword, and his hat and feather sticking over one eye, or hanging on the back of his head, as he happened to toss it on". "His Majesty was the worst rider ever seen, and thought himself the best. He was one of the most impertinent talkers (in the broadest Scotch) ever heard". "He thought, and wrote, and said, that a king had a right to make and unmake what laws he pleased, and ought to be accountable to nobody on earth".

He was proclaimed the English King within a few hours of Elizabeth’s death, and was accepted by the nation, even without being asked to give any pledge that he would govern well.

But in the first year of his reign (1603) two plots, called the "Main" and the "Bye", from their relative importance, were formed against him. The former was said to have for its object the deposition of the king in favour of his cousin, Arabella Stuart; and the latter was the outcome of the disappointed hopes of few Catholics and others who meant to secure toleration by the old Scottish practice of capturing the king.

Both plots failed, and their chief importance lies in the fact that Sir Walter Raleigh was imprisoned for his alleged complicity. The trial of Walter Raleigh lasted from eight in the morning until nearly midnight; he defended himself with such eloquence, genius, and spirit against all accusations and insults that those who were present there detesting the prisoner, came away admiring him. He was found guilty, nevertheless, and sentenced to death. Execution was deferred, and he was taken to the Tower.

James had been brought up amid religious controversy, and had himself become skilled controversialist. His experience of the outspoken ministers of the Scottish Kirk had not enamoured him of Presbyterianism, for he regarded it as incompatible with his views on the duties and privileges of kingship. These views were perfectly clear: the King was the divinely
appointed ruler of his people, and consequently the duty of the people was the most absolute obedience to his will: on the other hand, a good king would make the interests of his subject the first care.

In that age Church government and civil government were interdependent: it was not long before their close connection was publicly proved. The Puritans, who hoped for the best from James's education among Presbyterians, succeeded in securing a conference at Hampton Court between the Presbyterian leaders and the bishops, in order to gain some concessions on points of ceremonial in the Church service. James, who presided, soon saw that these details were only part of the larger question of Church government. "It is my aphorism", he said, "no bishop, no king". When one of the Puritans used the word "presbyter", James exclaimed: "If you aim at a Scottish presbytery, it agreeth as well with monarchy as God and the devil". No compromise was arrived at, but the conference is famous for the translation of the Bible known as the Authorised Version (published 1610).

Having that uncommonly high opinion of himself as a king, James had a very low opinion of Parliament as a power that audaciously wanted to control him. When he called his first Parliament after he had been king for a year, he accordingly thought he would take pretty high ground with them "as an absolute king". The Parliament thought these strong words, and saw the necessity of upholding their authority.

Now, the people still labouring under their old dread of the Catholic religion, this Parliament revived and strengthened the severe laws against it. The purpose of a Parliament in the eyes of James was to provide revenue; he flattered himself that he was merely imitating the model set by Tudors, and he did not think at all that they had based their control of Parliament upon sure instinct for interpreting the popular will. It was not surprising, therefore, that James quarrelled with all his Parliaments, or that Parliament was always more ready to discuss its grievances than to vote supply. Parliament desired severest measures against the Catholics and war with Spain; the king remitted fines in one case, and made peace in the other. But the policy of the government towards the Catholics so angered Robert Catesby, a restless Catholic gentleman of an old family, that he formed one of the most desperate and terrible plans ever conceived in the mind of man; no less a scheme than a Gunpowder Plot.

His object was, when the King, lords, and commons, should be assembled at the next opening of the Parliament, to blow them up, one and all, with a great mine of gunpowder. The first person, to whom Catesby confided this horrible idea, was Thomas Winter who had served in the army abroad, and had been secretly connected with Catholic projects. Winter went abroad and found there a tall dark daring man, whom he had known, when they both were soldiers, and they came back to England together. Here they found two more conspirators. All these met in a solitary house in the open fields and took a great of secrecy, and then went to a garret to work.

Then the conspirators found a house to let, the back of which joined the Parliament House, with the intention of undermining the wail. The conspirators hired another house, which they used as a storehouse for wood, gunpowder, and other matters.

All these arrangements had been made some months in 1604, and it was a dark wintry December night, when the conspirators, who had been in the meantime dispersed to avoid observation, met in the house at Westminster, near the Parliament, and began to dig. They had laid in a good deal of food not to go out and return in, and they dug and dug with great ardour. But the wall was tremendously thick, they dug and dug night and day, and one of them, Guy Fawkes, stood sentinel all the time. And this Fawkes said: "Gentlemen, we have a great deal of powder here, and there is no fear of our being taken alive, even if they discover us". The same Fawkes got to know that the King had prorogued the Parliament again, from the seventh of February, the day first fixed upon, to the third of October. When the conspirators knew this, they agreed to separate until after the Christmas holidays, and to take no notice of each other in the meanwhile, and never to write letters to one another on any occasion. So, the house of
Parliament was shut up again, and the neighbours could think that those strange-looking men, who lived there so gloomily and went out so seldom, were gone away to have a merry Christmas somewhere.

It was the beginning of February, 1605, when Catesby met his conspirators again at the Westminster house. And now, they began to dig again, and they dug and dug by night and by day.

They found it dismal work alone there, underground, with such dreadful secret on their minds, and so many murders before them. They were filled with wild fancies. Sometimes, it seemed to them they heard a great bell tolling, deep down in the earth, under the Parliament House; sometimes, they thought, they heard low voices muttering about the Gunpowder Plot; once in the morning, they really did hear a great noise over their heads, as they dug and sweated in their mine. Every man stopped and looked in awe at his neighbour, wondering what had happened, when Fawkes, who had been put to look, came in and told them that it was only a dealer of coals who had occupied a cellar under the Parliament House, and he removed his stock to some other place. Hearing this, the conspirators, who with all their digging had not yet dug through the tremendously thick wall, changed their plan; they hired the cellar, brought those thirty-six barrels of gunpowder in it, and covered them over with faggots and coals. Then they all dispersed again till September.

Parliament was to sit from the third of October to the fifth of November, and the conspirators were uneasy that their design should be discovered. Then they hired a ship, and kept it ready in the Thames, in which Fawkes was to sail for Flanders after firing and exploding the powder. And now it was all ready.

But now the great wickedness and danger, which had been all along at the bottom of this wicked plot, began to show itself. As the fifth of November drew near, most of the conspirators, remembering that they had friends and relations, who would be at the House of Lords that day, began to hesitate and wished to warn them to keep away. Catesby declared that he was ready to blow up his own son, but his comrades were not much comforted. One of them, Tresham, wrote a mysterious letter to his relative, Lord Mounteagle, and left it at the Lord's lodging in the dusk, urging him to keep away from the opening of the Parliament, "since God and man had concurred to punish the wickedness of the times". The letter contained the words that "the Parliament should receive a terrible blow, and yet should not see who had hurt them". And: "The danger is past, as soon as you have burnt the letter".

The ministers and courtiers at once found out what that letter meant. But it was decided to let the conspirators alone, until the very day before opening of Parliament. It is certain that the conspirators had their own fear, they said they were every one dead men. However, they were all firm; and Fawkes, who was a man of iron, went down every day and night to keep watch in the cellar as usual. He was there about two o'clock in the afternoon of the fourth, when the Lord Chamberlain and Lord Mounteagle threw open the door and looked in. "Who are you, friend?" asked they. "Why", said Fawkes, "I am Mr. Percy's servant, and am looking after his store of fuel here". "Your master has laid in a pretty good store", they returned, and shut the door, and went away. Fawkes went to the other conspirators to tell them all was quiet, and went back and shut himself up in the black cellar again, where he heard the bells go twelve o'clock and usher in the fifth of November. About two hours afterwards, he slowly opened the door, and came out to look about him. He was instantly seized and bound by a party of soldiers. He had a watch upon him, some touchwood, some tinder, some slow matches; and there was a dark lantern with a candle in it, lighted behind the door. Fawkes had his boots and spurs on — to ride to the ship, perhaps, — and it was well for the soldiers that they took him so suddenly. If they had left him but a moment's time to light a match, he certainly would have tossed it in among the powder, and blown up himself and them.

They took him to the King's bed-chamber first of all, and there the King asked him how he could have the heart to intend to kill so many innocent people? "Because", said Guy Fawkes,
“desperate diseases need desperate remedies”. A Scotch favourite with a face like a terrier asked Fawkes why he had collected so much gunpowder, and he answered, because he had meant to blow Scotchmen back to Scotland, and it would take a deal of powder to do that.

Next day Fawkes was carried to the Tower, but would make no confession. Even after horrible tortures, he confessed nothing that the Government did not already know; though he must have been in a fearful state — as shows his signature in contrast with his natural handwriting before he was put upon the dreadful rack (it is still preserved).

The other conspirators were also taken to the Tower, and some of them made confessions, and unmade them. But several conspirators managed to escape from London, and the news about the Gunpowder plot travelled through England with them. They tried to raise the Catholics on their way, but were indignantly driven off by them. At last the conspirators decided to defend themselves, because the sheriff pursued them, and they shut themselves up in the house at Holbeach, and put some wet powder before the fire to dry. But it blew up, and Catesby was burnt and blackened, and almost killed, and some of the others were hurt. Still, knowing that they must die, they resolved to die there, and with only swords in their hands appeared at the windows to be shot at by the sheriff and his assistants. They were shot; only two of them were taken, with wounds at their bodies.

On the 15th of January there was the trial of Guy Fawkes and the other conspirators who were left alive. They were all found guilty, all hanged, drawn and quartered: some, in St. Paul's Churchyard; some, before the Parliament House. The Catholics, in general, who had recoiled with horror from the idea of the infernal contrivance, were unjustly put under more severe laws than before; and this was the end of the Gunpowder Plot. And now the remembrance of that is alive only in a little nursery rhyme, which every English child knows by heart, though not all of them can understand properly its historical meaning:

Please to remember
The fifth of November
Gunpowder, treason and plot;
I know no reason
Why gunpowder and treason
Should ever be forgot.
Comprehension questions

1. What kind of man was James I?
2. Why was Walter Raleigh imprisoned?
3. Describe the conference at Hampton Court.
4. James’s relations with the Parliament.
5. The Gunpowder Plot.
6. Who betrayed the conspirators?
7. How were they dealt with by the King?
8. How used Guy Fawkes to be remembered in England? How may he be evaluated now? Why do you think his mask is a symbol of today’s “anonymous” hackers (c.f. also his character in the film V for Vendetta)?

54. JAMES THE FIRST (PART 2)

Meanwhile, the King was anxious that England and Scotland should be really united, instead of being two independent kingdoms, to which chance had given the same king. James was proclaimed king of Scotland, when he reached only a year and a month of his life, in July, 1567, as James VI. Of course, during the first years of his reign in Scotland he could not take any part in the state affairs, and was kept in the castle of Stirling. It was not indeed until 1583, when he broke away from his captors, that James began to govern in reality. Between 1583 and 1603 he reduced the anarchical barons of Scotland to obedience and created a strong centralized royal authority.

Three centuries had passed since Edward I had so ardently desired, that the north and south kingdoms should be united under one ruler — three centuries of constant war, now on one side, now on the other, of the Border. Yet the desired union of the crowns did not come about in the battlefield. When James VI of Scotland became James I of England, he was crowned in the old coronation chair, over the old block of stone that the Scots so hated to lose, within a few feet of Edward's resting-place in the Westminster Abbey.

The wisdom of a course to uniting both kingdoms was plain, but Englishmen were irritated by the favour shown to Scotsmen at court. James obtained from the judges a rule that Scots born subsequent to 1603 were entitled to all the privileges of English subjects.

Accustomed to the poverty of the Scottish Crown, James thought the wealth of England inexhaustible; his court was now one of the most extravagant in Europe. The Earl of Salisbury tried to introduce economies, and he managed to reduce the King's debts; but in order to put the royal treasury on a sound basis he wanted Parliament to commit the old military or feudal dues for a fixed sum. But this arrangement was rejected by Parliament, and a valuable reform was thus postponed.

The King hated the House of Commons, but pretended not to hate it; and from time to time James sent some of its members who opposed him, to Newgate or to the Tower; and he often told the rest that they must not presume to make speeches about public affairs which did not concern them. But the House of Commons was pretty firm in maintaining its rights, and insisting that the Parliament should make the laws, and not the King by his own single proclamations (which he tried hard to do).

Ch. Dickens says: "These disputes with the Parliament and his hunting, and his drinking, and his lying in bed — for he was a great sluggard — occupied him pretty well. The rest of his time he chiefly passed in hugging his favourites..." James was such a strange mixture of learning and stupidity that his brother Charles called him "The wisest fool in Christendom".

Now, three remarkable deaths took place in England. The first was that of the Minister, Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, who was past sixty, and had never been strong, being
deformed from his birth. He said at last that he had no wish to live; and no Minister need have had, with his experience of the meanness and wickedness of those disgraceful times.

The second was death of the Lady Arabella Stuart, who alarmed his Majesty mightily, by privately marrying William Seymour, who was a descendant of King Henry the Seventh, and whom James was afraid of, thinking that she might one day set up her claims to the throne. She was separated from her husband (who was put in the Tower) and thrust to a boat to be confined at Durham. She escaped in a men's dress to get away in a French ship to France, but unhappily missed her husband, who had escaped too, and was soon taken. She went raving mad in the miserable Tower, and died there after four years.

The last and the most important of these three deaths, was that of Prince Henry, the heir to the throne, in the nineteenth year of his age. He was a promising young prince, and greatly liked. His father was very jealous of him. The prince was the friend of Walter Raleigh, who spent all those years in the Tower, and often said that no man but his father would keep such a bird in such a cage. On the occasion of the preparations for the marriage of his sister Princess Elizabeth with a foreign prince, he came from Richmond to greet his new brother-in-law, at the palace at Whitehall. There he played a great game in tennis, in his shirt, though it was a very cold weather, and fell ill, and died within a fortnight of a fever. For this young prince Walter Raleigh wrote, in his prison in the Tower, the beginning of a History of the World.

But the King was quite satisfied with his reigning, and especially he was proud in his skill in foreign affairs. At the beginning of his reign he had made peace with Spain, and his one idea was that he was marked out as the mediator between Protestant and Catholic Powers of Europe. By the peace with Spain, by friendly relations with France, and by marrying his daughter Elizabeth to Frederick, the Protestant Elector of the Palatinate, he did indeed seem to be preserving the balance of power. If he could gain real influence over Spain, whose decay he evidently did not recognise, he thought that his position as European mediator would be assured. This influence he tried to gain by a marriage between his eldest son and the Spanish Infanta. The Spanish Court pretended to entertain the proposal, with view to gaining concessions for the English Catholics, but their terms were too high to please the English.

The fate of Walter Raleigh was also connected with James I. After Queen Elizabeth died in 1603 Raleigh was again imprisoned in the Tower, this time for allegedly being involved in the Main Plot against King James I. It was chiefly to break off the Spanish friendship that the anti-Spanish court obtained Raleigh's release from prison in order to send him to Guiana in search of a gold-mine which he claimed to have discovered in 1595. In 1616 he led a second expedition in search of El Dorado. James was willing enough to have a share in the treasure; but when the Spanish ambassador protested, he not only assured him that Raleigh should pay with his life for any injury done to the Spanish settlements in the New World, but actually revealed the situation of the mine. Under these circumstances Raleigh's expedition proved unsuccessful, moreover, men under Raleigh's command ransacked a Spanish outpost. When he returned to England, he was arrested, and, to gratify Spain, the King decided to execute Raleigh on the old charge of treason.

In 1618 Raleigh was shut up in the Gate House at Westminster to pass his last night on earth. At eight o'clock the next morning, after a cheerful breakfast, and a pipe, and a cup of good wine, he was taken to Old Palace Yard in Westminster, where the scaffold was set up, and where so many people of high degree were assembled to see him die, that it was a matter of some difficulty to get him through the crowd. Raleigh behaved nobly. As the morning was very cold, the Sheriff said, would he come down to a fire for a while and warm himself? Sir Walter thanked him, and said no, he would rather it were done at once, for he was ill of fever, and in another quarter of an hour his shaking fit would come upon him if he were still alive, and his enemies might then suppose he trembled for fear. With that, he knelt and made a beautiful Christian prayer. Before he laid his head upon the block he felt the edge of the axe, and said, with a smile upon his face, that it was a sharp medicine, but would cure the worst
disease. When he was bent down ready for death, he said to the executor, finding that he hesitated: "What dost thou fear? Strike, Man!" So, the axe came down, and struck his head off, in the sixty-sixth year of his age.

In the same year, 1618, the outbreak of the Thirty Years' war placed James in a curious position. On the ground that their throne was elective, the Bohemians had chosen James's son-in-law Frederick as their King — but Ferdinand was not only the heir of their late king, the Emperor Matthias, but also his successor in the Empire, and the Champion of the Catholic Powers. The Catholics, largely owing to their zeal which the new order of Jesuits had thrown into the counter-Reformation, had rallied their forces and were prepared to fight for supremacy in Central Europe. James now found himself, as the leading Protestant King, beset by appeals from Frederick at the same time as he was trying to marry his son to the Spanish Infanta, whose house was in a close alliance with Ferdinand's. When Frederick was thrown out of Bohemia and in danger of losing even his ancestral possessions, James still clung to the Spanish alliance in the delusive hope that Spain would meditate with the Emperor on behalf of his son-in-law.

England was at the moment eager enough for a war with Spain, but was unwilling to make any great sacrifices for the Protestant cause in Central Europe; and this was shown when, after granting the king a sum far too small to be effective in the affair of the Palatinate, the new Parliament of 1621 decided to protest against monopolies at home, to keep its own privileges, and, above all, to impeach Francis Bacon, Viscount St. Albans, Lord Chancellor.

Francis Bacon was the son of Elizabeth's Lord Keeper and the nephew of Lord Burghley, but had received the reward of his great abilities only after the Earl of Salisbury's death in 1612. By making himself useful to the all-powerful Duke of Buckingham, he became Lord Keeper in 1617, and in the following year Lord Chancellor. James's third Parliament (1621), as we have seen, impeached them, and he was found guilty of taking bribes. Bacon did not attempt to defend himself, although he declared, and apparently with truth, that he was "the justest judge in England these fifty years", but he also declared that his disgrace was "the justest censure in Parliament that was these two hundred years". It was not a defence of Bacon to say that he was merely following a bad example and that his judgments were unaffected by the presents he received. Bacon was fined, dismissed from office and court, and imprisoned; he was released, however, after a few days, and lived in retirement till his death in 1626.

James had always been under the control of favourites. Robert Carr, Earl of Somerset, had been succeeded by George Villiers, who was soon made Marquis of Buckingham. After wavering for some time between a Protestant and a Catholic foreign policy, he at last supported the latter - he himself had lately married a Catholic — and in 1623 persuaded the King to allow him accompany Prince Charles to Spain, partly to arrange the Spanish match, and partly to be busy with terms between Philip IV's imperial allies and the Elector Palatine. Unsuccessful on both points, he on his return home clamoured for war with Spain, and thus became very popular. The marriage proposals for Prince Charles were broken off, and Parliament gave a delighted approval to a war with Spain; it was, however, keenly disappointed to find that the King's aim was not to fight Spain, but to protect Frederick.

Being in Spain, Prince Charles pretended to be in love with the Spanish Infanta; he even jumped walls to look at her; but after there came nothing of it, Charles actually fell in love with Henrietta Maria, the French King's sister; and he openly said, with a chuckle, as soon as he was safe and sound at home again, that the Spaniards were great fools to have believed him.

In the end troops were provided for a disastrous expedition, but they got no further than the Dutch frontier.

Arthur Chichester was appointed to govern Ireland in 1604. An account of those events is given in the section "Colonization of Ireland" in Chapter 63.
James I died on the 27th of March, 1625, after a fortnight's illness. He had reigned twenty-two years, and was fifty-nine years old.

Comprehension questions

1. What purpose did James I have regarding England and Scotland?
2. What was Walter Raleigh imprisoned and executed for?
3. What were James’ religious preferences?
4. Which country did he favour in the international affairs? What was his foreign policy?
5. Speak on Arthur Chichester’s government of Ireland.

55. CHARLES THE FIRST (1600-1649)

Charles I became the English King in the twenty-fifth year of his age.Unlike his father, he was usually amiable in his private character, and grave and dignified in his bearing; but, like his father, he had monstrously exaggerated notions of the rights of a king and was not to be trusted. If his word could have been relied upon, his history would have had a different end.

His first care was to send for Henrietta Maria and bring her from Paris to be his Queen. The English people were very well disposed to like new Queen, and to receive her with great favour when she came among them as a stranger. But she greatly disliked the Protestant religion and brought with her a crowd of unpleasant priests, who made her do some very ridiculous things. And that was the reason that the people soon disliked her, and she soon began to dislike them, and she did so much in setting the King against his subjects, that it would have been better for him if she had never been born.

Charles I began his reign by continuing the war policy which had made him popular in his father's lifetime; but the war brought neither honour nor profit to England, and Parliament was indisposed to support it. Charles demanded tonnage and poundage (a tax of three shillings on every ton of wine and five per cent on all other imports) from the Parliament, but the latter granted it for one year only, which enabled it to put an effectual stop to the war. Charles called, too, upon the seaports to furnish and to pay all the cost for three months of, a fleet of armed ships; and he required the people to unite in lending him large sums of money, and it was very doubtful that he would repay them. But if the poor people refused, they were pressed as soldiers or sailors; if more or less rich people refused, they were sent to prison. Then the
question came to be solemnly decided, whether this was not a violation of Magna Carta, and an encroachment by the King on the rights of the English people. The King's lawyers answered No, because to encroach upon the rights of the English people would be to do wrong, and the King could do no wrong. And here was a fatal division between the King and the people.

The expedition to Cadiz in 1625 turned out a failure. The King's marriage with Henrietta Maria of France created new difficulties for him. He was now allied to a Catholic Power engaged in suppressing its own Protestant subjects — the Huguenots at La Rochelle — and was expected to help it in this task at the very time when he was promising his own Parliament to carry out strict penal laws against Catholics at home, and when he was sending money he could ill afford to support a Protestant prince in Germany.

For all this, it was necessary to call another Parliament. The people, sensible of the danger, in which their liberties were, chose for the Commons those who were best known for their determined opposition of the King; but still the King, quite blinded by his determination to carry everything before him, addressed them when they met, in a contemptuous manner, and just told them in so many words that he had only called them together because he wanted money. The Parliament, strong enough and resolute enough to know that they could lower his tone, cared little for what he said, and laid before him the document called the Petition of Right, requiring that the free men of England should no longer be called upon to lend the King money and should no longer be pressed or imprisoned for refusing to do so; further, that the free men of England should no longer be seized by the King's special mandate or warrant, as it is contrary to their rights and liberties and the laws of their country. At first the King refused to answer to this petition; but the House of Commons then showed their determination to go on with the impeachment of Buckingham 14, and the King in great alarm gave his consent to all that was required of him. Of course, afterwards he departed from his words.

Buckingham, to gratify his own wounded vanity, had by this time involved the country in war with France, as well as with Spain. But one morning, when he was going out of his house to his carriage, he was violently stabbed with a knife, which the murderer left sticking in his heart. This happened in his hall. His servant wanted to seize some French gentlemen who were in the house, and wanted to kill them. In the middle of the noise the real murderer, who had gone into the kitchen and might easily have got away, drew his sword and cried out: "I am the man!" His name was John Felton, and he was a Protestant and a retired officer of the army. He said that he had killed the Duke as a curse of the country. John Felton was executed for the murder (1628).

A Parliament, however, was still in existence. Charles was angry at some remarks made in the House of Commons, and he sent his messenger to summon the members in his presence to be rebuked. It happened on the twentieth of January, 1629. A great patriot, whose name was Eliot, and he had been very active in the Petition of Right, sprang to his feet, and in blazing anger defended the right of free speech in the House. As he spoke, the door was locked, and the King's Messenger battered vainly outside. The Speaker, who ruled the debates, was the King's friend, and he wanted to get out and to leave the chair, but he was held down to his place. A scene of great confusion arose among the members; and while many swords were drawn and flashing about, the King, who was kept informed of all that, told the captain of the guard to go down to the House. Through all that noise, loud cries of "Aye, aye!" — supported Eliot in his claims of English liberty. He finished with the words never forgotten: "None have gone about to break Parliaments, but in the end Parliaments have broken them".

The resolutions were, however, voted, and the House adjourned. Sir John Eliot and those two members, who had held the Speaker down, were quickly summoned before the council. As they claimed to their privilege not to answer out of the Parliament for anything they had

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14 George Villiers, 1st Duke of Buckingham, one of the characters in Alexandre Dumas pere's `The Three Musketeers.`
said in it, they were committed to the Tower. The King then went down and dissolved the Parliament, in a speech calling these gentlemen "Vipers".

Those gentlemen refused to gain their liberty by saying that they were sorry for what they had done, and the King, always remarkably unforgiving, never forgot this offence. When they demanded to be brought up before the court of King's Bench, Charles ordered to move them from prison to prison. At last they came before the court and were sentenced to heavy fines, and to be imprisoned during the King's pleasure. Sir John Eliot's health had quite given way, and he so longed for change of air and scene as to petition for his release, the King sent back the answer that the petition was not humble enough. Eliot sent another petition through his young son, pathetically promising to return to prison as soon as his health was restored, if he might be released for its recovery, the King still disregarded it. When Eliot died in the Tower, and his children petitioned to be allowed to take their father's body down to Cornwall, to lay it there among the ashes of his forefathers, the King returned an answer: "Let Sir John Eliot's body be buried in the church of that parish where he died".

Charles ruled without Parliament for nearly twelve years. During this time he trampled more and more heavily on the liberties of the country, and many people joined the Mayflower emigrants over the sea.

In this period of personal rule Charles had two chief advisers. Buckingham was killed in 1628, and now his place was taken by Thomas Wentworth, afterwards Lord Strafford, and William Laud, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury.

In 1632 Wentworth was sent to Ireland as Lord Deputy. Here he set himself to realise his ideal of government, to which he gave the name "Thorough"; but if he ruled with a high hand and did his best to strengthen the English colony by arbitrary confiscations, yet by carrying out many reforms and especially by protecting trade and home industries, he succeeded in giving Ireland a more or less endurable form of government. The Irish Catholic army, established by Strafford, professed their loyalty to the king.

Meanwhile, the King was anxious to interfere in foreign affairs. It seemed likely in 1634 that the Dutch and the French would divide the Spanish Netherlands between them - a prospect which England could hardly view with satisfaction. In his desperate need of money Charles decided to levy ship-money, a tax formerly raised in war-time from the maritime counties. But England was at peace; and in 1635 the tax was extended to the whole kingdom. General indignation caused Charles to declare that when the kingdom was in danger, a question of which the King was the only judge, the whole kingdom must bear the burden. When once more ship-money was demanded, John Hampden and Lord Saye refused to pay, and the judges by a small majority decided against them (1637).

The King levied those duties of tonnage and poundage, and even increased them. He granted monopolies to companies of merchants on their paying him for them, notwithstanding the great complaints that had, for years and years, been made on the subject of monopolies. He fined the people for disobeying king's proclamations. He revived the detested Forest Laws, and took private property to himself as his forest right.

William Laud was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury in 1633, and began a series of unpopular reforms such as attempting to ensure religious uniformity by dismissing non-conformist clergymen, and closing Puritan organizations. At that time religion had an equal share with politics in the problems of government. In England the Puritans protested by numerous pamphlets against what they regarded as innovations or irregularities. William Prynne, a barrister of Lincoln's Inn, was condemned by the Star Chamber in 1637 to pay a heavy fine and to have his ears cut off for publishing a treatise called "Histriomastix: A Scourge of Stage Players"; and many other such punishments were inflicted. But the real opposition to Laud's policy of establishing a uniform Church carried out in England by such courts as Star Chamber and High Commission, came from Scotland, which remained Presbyterian at heart, and where the Anglican bishops were entirely without influence. Such a
position would not satisfy Charles and Laud, who determined to force a Service Book, which was practically the English Prayer Book upon the Scots, with the result that a large part of the Scottish nation bound itself by a National Covenant to maintain Presbyterians (1638). The King still persisted, and the Scots took up arms; but it was clear that Charles without money and without Parliamentary support could do nothing. He therefore was obliged to agree to the Treaty of Berwick (1639), which closed this so-called First Bishops’ War by referring all matters in dispute to the Scottish General Assembly and Parliament.

But when these authorities promptly abolished Episcopacy in Scotland, Charles, on the advice of Wentworth, now Earl of Strafford, thought of calling an English Parliament to help him against the obstinate Scots.

So, on the 13th of April, 1640 the strange sight, the Parliament, was seen at Westminster. It is called in the English history the Short Parliament, for it lasted for a very little while. While the members were all looking at one another, doubtful who would dare to speak, Mr. Pym arose, and set forth all that the King had done unlawfully during the past twelve years, and what was the position to which England was reduced. This great example set, other members took courage and spoke the truth freely, though with great patience and moderation. The King, a little frightened, sent to say that if they would grant him a certain sum on a certain terms, no more ship money should be taken. The Parliament debated the matter for two days; and then, as they did not want to give the King all he asked without promise or inquiry, he dissolved them. So this was the end of the Short Parliament.

The King, though disappointed in Parliament, was still intent on punishing the Scots, and by impressing recruits got together an army of sorts which marched north under Strafford and himself. The Scots did not wait to be attacked; under Alexander Leslie, who, like many of his countrymen, had seen service with Gustavus Adolphus, they invaded England. Charles again found himself unable to offer resistance, and the Second Bishops' War was ended by a Scottish victory at Newburn and the consequent Pacification of Ripon, by which it was agreed that the Scottish army should remain in England, at English charges, till a new Parliament should meet (1640).

Comprehension questions

1. What kind of person was Charles I? Who did he marry?
2. What did he require from the Parliament and were his demands granted?
3. What is the Petition of Right? What was its purpose?
4. How was George Villiers, 1st Duke of Buckingham, murdered?
5. What was the nitty-gritty of Charles’ conflict with the Parliament?
6. Why was the Parliament dissolved by Charles? How did he deal by John Eliot?
7. How many years did Charles rule without Parliament?
8. How did Wentworth govern Ireland?
9. What taxes did the King levy? How did the Commons react?
10. What problems did Laud run into in Scotland?
56. CHARLES THE FIRST. THE LONG PARLIAMENT AND THE CIVIL WAR

Charles's handsome face is a very familiar one, for a famous painter, Van Dyck, lived in his reign, and painted many beautiful portraits, both of the King and his wife and all their family. Very charming does Henrietta Maria look, with her girlish face framed in tiny curls, and very picturesque were her clothes.

The group of Stuart children is very interesting, and makes a delightful picture. There is the Prince of Wales, afterwards King Charles II, when a boy of seven, with his hand on a splendid big dog; the Duke of York, afterwards King James II, in a dress and cap that make him look like a little girl; and Mary, a little copy of her mother, in her dress and curls, who afterwards married a Dutchman, the Prince of Orange.

But let us return to the situation in England after that Parliament that was called Short. Everybody understood that the King must have a new Parliament, and he himself began to make this discovery too, though rather late in the day. Wherefore, on the twenty-fourth of September, then at York with an army collected against the Scottish people, but his own men sullen and discontented like the rest of the nation, the King told the great council of the Lords, whom he had called to meet him there, that he would summon another Parliament to assemble on the third of November. The soldiers of the Covenant had now forced their way into England and had taken possession of the northern counties, where the coals are got.

The New Parliament assembled on the 3rd of November, 1641. It was called "The Long Parliament" to distinguish it from its predecessor. It considered the Scots rather as friends than enemies, and turned its attention to reforms in England. The Earl of Strafford arrived from York, very sensible that the spirited and determined men who formed that Parliament were no friends towards him, who had not only deserted the cause of the people, but who had on all occasions opposed himself to their liberties. The King told him for his comfort that the Parliament "should not hurt one hair of his head". But, on the very next day, Mr. Pym, in the House of Commons, and with great solemnity, impeached the Earl of Strafford as a traitor. He was immediately taken into custody and fell from his proud height.
The first business of the Parliament was to overthrow the King's ministers and to restrain the King himself from tyranny. Arbitrary courts, such as Star Chamber, High Commission, and the Council of the North were abolished (they were later restored), and a Triennial Act was passed by which Parliament was to be held at least once in every three years. The King could not help himself; he was entirely without resources, and he could do nothing but consent to these measures. He was even made to consent to the execution of Strafford and to the impeachment of Laud.

It was the 22nd of March when the Earl of Strafford was brought to trial in Westminster Hall; where, although he was very ill and suffered great pain, he defended himself with such abilities and majesty, that it was doubtful whether he would not get the best of it. But on the thirteenth day of the trial, Pym produced in the House of Commons a copy of some notes of a council, in which Strafford distinctly told the King that he was free from all rules and obligations of government, and might do with his people whatever he liked; and in which he had added: "You have an army in Ireland that you may employ to reduce this kingdom to obedience". It was not quite clear whether by words "this kingdom", he had really meant England or Scotland; but the Parliament contended that he meant England, and this was treason. Pym disclosed to the House of Commons that the King and Queen both had been plotting with the officers of the army to bring up the soldiers into the Tower of London to help the Earl to escape. This was made public, and great numbers of people began to riot outside the House of Parliament and cry out for the execution of the Earl of Strafford, as one of the chief King's instruments against them.

The King was in some doubt what to do; but he gave his consent to the execution, though he in his heart believed that the bill against the Earl of Strafford was unlawful and unjust. On the twelfth of May the Earl was brought out to be beheaded on Tower Hill. The governor wished him to get into a coach at the Tower gate, because he was afraid the people should tear him to pieces; but the Earl said it was all the same for him whether he died by the axe or by the people's hands. So he walked with a firm tread and a stately look, and sometimes pulled off his hat to them, as he passed along. They were profoundly quiet. He made a speech on the scaffold, and one blow of the axe killed him.

After that a rebellion in Ireland brought the difference between the King and the Parliament to a head. Many years of misgovernment and oppression had their natural result; as soon as the Irish saw England engaged with real difficulties of her own, they rose and took a long-deferred vengeance on the hated foreigner (1641). Parliament, seeing in the rebellion
the workings of Romanism and the destruction of Protestantism, took upon itself the immediate conquest of Ireland, while at the same time it drew up a Grand Remonstrance, setting forth details of the King's misgovernment, the reforms adopted by Parliament, the difficulties in the way, and the further reforms necessary. The Remonstrance, which was passed only by a small majority, made Civil War inevitable. But although moderate men thought that the Remonstrance went too far, Charles soon alienated their support by coming down to the Commons with an armed escort to demand the surrender of five members whom he accused of treason. The five members (Pym, Hampden, Haselrig, Strode, and Hollis) took refuge in the city, and the city authorities refused to give them up.

On the fourth of January, 1642, the King himself came to the House of Commons with all his guard and about two or three hundred gentlemen and soldiers, of whom the great part was armed. He left them in the hall, and then, with his nephew at his side, he went down into the House. There he took off his hat, and walked to the Speaker's chair. The Speaker left the chair, and the King stood in front of it, looking about him steadily for a little while, and said he came for those five members. No one answered him, and then the King called John Pym by name. Again no one answered, and he called Denzil Hollis by name. No one spoke, and then the King asked the speaker where those five members were. The Speaker, answering on his knee, nobly replied that he was the servant of that House, and he had neither eyes to see, nor tongue to speak, anything but what the House commanded him. Upon this, the King, beaten from that time evermore, replied that he would seek them himself, for they had committed treason; and went out, with his hat in his hand, amid some audible murmurs from the members.

No words can describe the hurry that arose out of doors when all this was known. The five members had gone for safety to a house in Coleman-street in the City, where they were guarded all night; and indeed the whole city watched in arms like an army. At ten o'clock in the morning, the King, already frightened at what he had done, came to the Guildhall, with only half a dozen lords, and made a speech to the people, hoping they would not shelter those whom he accused of treason. Next day he issued a proclamation for the apprehension of the five members; but the Parliament minded it so little that they made great arrangements for having them down to Westminster in great state, five days afterwards. The King was so alarmed now by his own imprudence, if not for his own safety, that he left his palace at Whitehall and went away with the Queen and children to Hampton Court.

On the 11th of May the five members were carried in state and triumph to Westminster. They were taken by water. The river could not be seen for the boats on it; and the five members were hemmed in by barges full of men and great guns, to protect them at any cost. At the Strand a large body of the train-bands of London marched to be ready to assist the little fleet. Beyond them came a crowd who choked the streets, roaring incessantly about the Bishops and the Papists, and crying out contemptuously as they passed Whitehall: "What has become of the King?" With this great noise outside the House of Commons and with great silence within, Mr. Pym rose and informed the House of the great kindness with which they had been received in the City. Upon that, the House called the sheriffs in and thanked them, and requested the train-bands to guard the House of Commons every day. Then came four thousand men on horseback out of Buckinghamshire, offering their services as a guard too, they had a petition to the King, where they complained of the injury that had been done to one of their country men, much beloved and honoured.

When the King set off for Hampton-Court, the gentlemen and soldiers, who had been with him, followed him out of town as far as Kingston-upon-Thames; next day, Lady Digby came to them from the King at Hampton Court, in his coach and six, to inform them that the King accepted their protection. This, the Parliament said, was making war against the Kingdom, and Lord Digby fled abroad. The Parliament then immediately applied themselves to getting hold of the military power of the country, because they knew well that the King was already
trying hard to use it against them, and that he had secretly sent the Earl of Newcastle to Hull, to secure a valuable magazine of arms and gunpowder that was there. In those times, every county had its own magazines of arms and powder, for its own train-bands or militia; so, the Parliament in a bill claimed the right (which up to this time had belonged to the King) of appointing the Lord Lieutenants of countries, who commanded these trainbands; also of having all the forts, castles, and garrisons in the kingdom put into the hands of such governors as they, the Parliament, could confide in. And the Parliament also deprived the Bishops of their Votes. The King agreed to that bill about the Bishops, but he would not give them the right to appoint the Lord Lieutenants. When he was asked whether he would not give way on that question, the King said: "By God! not for one hour!" and upon this he and the Parliament went to war. Matters were very serious now, and the King went to York and began to levy troops. Then the King raised his standard at Nottingham, and the Civil War began.

The young King's daughter was betrothed to the Prince of Orange, and on pretence that she was taking her to the country of her future husband, the Queen was already got safely away to Holland but she really had an aim to pawn the Crown jewels for money to raise an army on the King's side.

Comprehension questions

1. Who painted Charles I and his family?
2. The Long Parliament. What did John Pym propose?
3. What royal institutes were abolished by the Parliament?
4. On what charges was Strafford executed?
5. What is a Triennial Act?
6. Describe the King's coming to the Parliament and what happened there.
7. Explain the phrase: “the five members were carried in state and triumph to Westminster.” What did the King and his family do?

57. THE CIVIL WAR

The Parliament decided and passed that whatever the two Houses passed, and the King would not consent with, should be called an Ordinance, and should be as much a law as if he did consent to it. The King protested against this, and gave notice that these ordinances were not to be obeyed. The King, attended by the majority of the House of Peers, and by many members of the House of Commons, established himself at York. The Chancellor went to him with the Great Seal, and then a Parliament made a new Great Seal. The Queen sent over a ship full of arms and ammunitions, and the King issued letters to borrow money at high interest. The Parliament raised twenty regiments of foot and seventy-five troops of horse; and the people willingly aided them with their wedding-rings. Every member of Parliament, who could raise a troop or regiment in his own part of the country, dressed it according to his taste and in his own colours, and commanded it. The command of the Parliamentary army was given to the Earl of Essex.

The first battle was at Edgehill (1642), and it was indecisive, but Charles pushed on towards London.

At that time the King's friends called the crowd Roundheads, because the apprentices wore short hair; the crowd, in return, called their enemies Cavaliers, meaning that they were a blustering set, who pretended to be very military. These two words now began to be used to distinguish the two sides in the civil war. The Royalists also called the Parliamentary men Rebels and Rogues, while the Parliamentary men called their opponents Malignants, and spoke of themselves as the Godly, the Honest, and so forth.
At Brentford the King's army was, however, checked, and he had to fall back on Oxford, which for some time remained his headquarters.

The opposing parties in the Civil War were not divided by any very distinctive differences in social position, except so far as Puritanism was the religion of the middle class and of the towns. The majority of the peers certainly fought for the King, but the Parliament was supported by large numbers of the gentry and yeomen. But there was a marked geographical division; the North and West, where the power of the nobility was strongest, were mainly Royalist, while the South and East, where the trade of the country at that time chiefly flourished, were Parliamentarian. Even this geographical division, however, must not be pressed too strictly, for the cloth towns of the West Riding and of Somerset were as devoted to the Parliament as Portsmouth or London.

In 1643 four campaigns were fought, which, on the whole, were favourable for the Royalists. The chief battles took place (after Brentfort) at Chalgrove Field (where Mr. Hampden was so sorely wounded while fighting at the head of his men, that he died within a week), at Newbury (in which battle Lord Falkland, one of the best noblemen on the King's side, was killed, and afterwards Lord Byron wrote about this death in his poem "Elegy on Newstead Abbey":

"For nobler combats, here reserv'd his life,
To lead the band, where godlike — FALKLAND fell".

There was also a battle at Marston Moor near York, and Lord Byron in his other poem, "On Leaving Newstead Abbey", mentioned his forefathers, four brothers Byrons, who took place in that war:

"On Marston, with Rupert, 'gainst traitors contending,
Four brothers enrich'd, with their blood, the break field;
For the rights of a monarch their country defending,
Till death their attachment to royalty sealed".

There were also great battles at Leicester, at Naseby, at Winchester, at Newcastle, and in many other parts of England and Scotland. But almost all the great and busy towns were against the King; and when it was considered necessary to fortify London, all ranks of people, from labouring men and women, up to lords and ladies, worked hard together with heartiness and good will.

Prince Rupert, mentioned in Byron's poem, was the King's nephew, and he showed himself a good warrior and commander, he sacked Bristol, and besieged Gloucester. It was only in the east that Parliament had only real success; here Oliver Cromwell, who had organised the army of the Association of the Eastern Counties, won the victories of Gainsborough and Winceby.

Much as many supporters of the Parliament disliked Presbyterianism, this want of success drove them to get help from Scotland by accepting the Solemn League and Covenant, which aimed chiefly at securing greater uniformity in Church government in the two countries.

The battle at Marston Moor first showed on a large scale that the Parliament had at last organised a disciplined army, and especially a disciplined cavalry, which could more than hold its own against the enthusiasm of the Cavaliers.

During the whole of this war, the people, to whom it was very expensive and irksome, and to whom it was made the more distressing by almost every family being divided — some of its members attached themselves to one side and some to the other — were over and over again most anxious for peace. It was a sad thing that Englishmen should once more fight against Englishmen on English ground; on both sides there was great forbearance. The soldiers of the Parliament were far more remarkable for good qualities than the soldiers of the
King (many of them fought for mere pay without much caring for the cause); but those of the nobility and gentry who were on the King's side were so brave, and so faithful to him, that their conduct commands admiration. Among them were great numbers of Catholics, who took the royal side because the Queen was so strongly of their persuasion.

The King might have distinguished some of these gallant spirits; if he had been as generous a spirit himself, he could have given them the command of the army. Instead of that, however, true to his old high notions of royalty, he entrusted it to his nephews, Prince Rupert was an impetuous hot-headed fellow, and his only idea was to dash into the battle at all times and seasons.

Several treaties of peace were discussed between commissioners from the Parliament and the King; but they came to nothing. In all these negotiations, and in all his difficulties, the King showed himself at his best. He was courageous, cool, self-possessed, and clever; but the old taint of his character was always in him, and he was never for one single moment to be trusted. He never kept his word from night to morning.

Both sides were exhausted. But the Parliament, conscious that dissensions among its leaders had interfered with success in the field, seriously considered the state of the army. The leader in this movement was Oliver Cromwell; to his energy and skill the victory of Marston Moor was chiefly due.

Oliver Cromwell

Oliver Cromwell had been a plain country gentleman, farming the rich grass meadows in Huntingdonshire, and travelling to London to sit in Parliament with Eliot and Pym, and during the Civil war he turned a brilliant soldier and now he raised a modern army, one of the finest armies ever seen. He trained and disciplined them, and fired them with an intense desire to fight for freedom in religion and government. "Trust to God and keep your powder dry", was his famous advice to his soldiers one day when crossing a river. They were able to meet the soldiers of Charles, long used to arms; and later their leader could say with pride: "Truly they never were beaten at all".

Cromwell now proposed a Self-denying Ordinance, by which members of either House of Parliament were removed from military command — a dangerous expedient in the middle of a war, but not so dangerous as incapable or half-hearted leaders. Sir Thomas Fairfax was made commander-in-chief, and soon afterwards Parliament gave special permission to Cromwell to act as his lieutenant-general. Between them they reorganised the army and produced what they called the New Model, with a success soon strikingly proved by the Battle of Naseby, where Charles was utterly defeated (1645).
Charles's only hope, now that he was without an army and that his baggage and even his private papers had fallen into the enemy's hands, was to escape to Scotland, where Montrose, by his six victories over the Covenanters, was supreme. But he was foiled every time he tried to break through, and it was not long before Montrose himself, unable to keep his Highlands together, was irretrievably beaten by Leslie at Philiphaugh (1645).

Meanwhile, Rupert had surrendered Bristol, and Cromwell had taken Winchester. When negotiations with Ireland, discovered by accident, proved that Charles was ready to re-establish Catholicism there, the Royalists' cause turned out to be hopeless. The King, as the lesser of two evils, surrendered to the Scots at Newark. The Scots were willing to help Charles if he would promise to set up Presbyterianism in England; but he refused to do this, and the Scots agreed to surrender him to the Parliament.

The majority of the English Parliament was Presbyterian; the mass of the army was Independent, and had as little liking for Presbyterianism as for Episcopacy, justly considering the one as intolerant as the other. Charles hoped to profit from these dissensions, and it seemed with good reason; for when the Parliament resolved to reduce the army, to compel officers to take the Covenant, and not to pay full arrears, the military leaders instructed Cornet Joyce to seize the King, while they themselves marched on London, dismissed leading Presbyterians from Parliament, and began to negotiate with Charles. The terms they offered were not liberal: a Council of State, and there was to be general toleration in religion. But Charles still hoped to regain all he had lost, and after escaping to Carisbrooke agreed with the Scots that he would establish Presbyterianism in England if they would restore him (1647).

When the Civil War was still in progress, John Pym died, and was buried with great honour in Westminster Abbey, for the liberties of Englishmen owe a mighty debt to him. Scotland now invaded England in the King's behalf, but Cromwell utterly defeated them at Preston, and also came to a complete understanding with Argyle himself in Scotland (1648).

Argyle, Archibald Campbell, eighth earl of Argyle and first Marquis of Argyle, (1598-1661), was a partisan of Cromwell. Charles's secret intrigues with the Scots were the most unpardonable in the eyes of his contemporaries. It was, as Cromwell said: "A more prodigious treason than any that had been perfected before; because the former quarrel was that Englishmen might rule over one another; this is to vassalize us to a foreign nation".

While the army was engaged in suppressing Royalist risings in Kent, Essex and Wales, the Presbyterians in Parliament made a last effort to come to terms with the King; but the Treaty of Newport, which demanded the establishment of Presbyterianism came to nothing. The army's patience was now at the end.

At last, on the 3rd of January, 1648, the Commons agreed to a resolution to address the King no further, and they were joined to this resolution by the Lords on the 15th. The Commons resolved that Charles was guilty of treason by "levying war against the Parliament and kingdom of England". The King was taken by certain Parliamentary commissioners appointed to receive him, to one of his own houses, called Holmby House, in Nottinghamshire.

Comprehension questions

1. Which regions of England supported each of the war parties?
2. Which war party was victorious at first? Name the battles.
3. On what grounds did the Parliament accuse the King of High Treason?

58. EXECUTION OF THE KING
When the Parliament had got the King into their hands, they became very anxious to get rid of their army, in which Oliver Cromwell had acquired great power; and not only because of his courage and high abilities, but because he professed to be very sincere in the Scottish sort of Puritan religion that was then very popular among the soldiers. They were as much opposed to the Bishops as to the Pope himself; and the very privates, drummers, and trumpeters, had such an inconvenient habit of starting up and preaching long-winded discourses, that Ch. Dickens says: "I would not have belonged to that army on any account".

So, the Parliament began to be afraid that the army might preach and fight against them now it had nothing else to do, and the Parliament proposed to disband the greater part of the army, to send another part to serve in Ireland against the rebels, and to keep only a small force in England. But the army would not consent to be broken up, except upon its own conditions; and when the Parliament showed an intention of compelling it, it acted for itself in an unexpected manner.

A certain Cornet, named Joyce, arrived at Holmby House one night, attended by four hundred horsemen, went into the King's room with his hat in one hand and a pistol in the other, and told the King that he had come to take him away. The King was willing enough to go, and only made a condition that he should be publicly required to do so next morning.

The next morning the King appeared at the top of steps of the house, and asked Cornet Joyce before his men and the guard set there by the Parliament, what authority the Cornet had for taking him away. To this he had Joyce's answer: "The authority of the army". "Have you a written commission?" — was the King's next question. To this Joyce pointed to his four hundred men on horseback and replied: "That is my commission". "Well", said the King, smiling, as if he were pleased, "I have never before read such a commission, but it is written in fair and legible character. This is a company of as handsome proper gentlemen as I have seen in a long while".

The King was asked where he would like to live, and he said at Newmarket. So, to Newmarket he and Cornet Joyce and four hundred horsemen rode.

The King quite believed that the army were his friends. He said so to Fairfax when that general, Oliver Cromwell and Ireton went to persuade him to return to the custody of the Parliament. But he resolved to remain where he was. And when the army moved nearer and nearer London to frighten the Parliament into yielding to their demands, they took the King with them. It was a deplorable thing that England should be at the mercy of a great body of soldiers with arms in their hands; but the King certainly favoured them at this important time of his life. It must be added, however, that they treated him, as yet, more respectfully and kindly than the Parliament had done. They allowed the King's servants to attend him, he could be splendidly entertained at various houses, he could see his children. And the Parliament had been rather hard with him, and had only allowed him to ride out and play at bowls.

Oliver Cromwell was not unfriendly towards the King, he had been present when the King received his children; he frequently walked and talked with the King in the long galleries and pleasant gardens of the palace at Hampton Court. But Charles had his secret hopes of help from the Scottish people. And at the very time when he was promising Oliver Cromwell to make Cromwell and the Irish noblemen, to do much for them, if they would help him up to his old height, he was writing to the Queen that he meant to hang them.

Still, even after Cromwell got to know about that, because some soldiers found the letter sewed up in a saddle of one of them, Oliver let the King know that there was a plot in the army to seize Charles. In fact, Cromwell, very possibly, wanted the King to escape abroad, and so to be got rid of without more trouble or danger.

When Charles received Cromwell's warning, he made his escape from Hampton Court; after some indecision he went to Carisbrooke Castle in the Isle of Wight. At first, he was pretty free there; but even at that time he carried on a pretended treaty with the Parliament,
while he was really treating with commissioners from Scotland to send an army into England to take his part.

But the King was disappointed in his hopes from Scotland. The agreement he had made with the Scottish Commissioners was not good enough for the religion of that country and it did not please the Scottish clergy; and they were against it. That's why the army raised in Scotland was too small to do much against the Parliamentary army under such men as Cromwell and Fairfax. The King's eldest son, the Prince of Wales, came over from Holland with nineteen ships to help his father; but nothing came of his voyage, and he was fain to return.

Such was the second civil war in England, and it lasted not more than six months.

After that the army, resolved to defy the Parliament, marched to London. The Parliament was afraid of them, and they had a decision to try the King as a traitor.

Charles had been taken for security to a place called Hurst Castle: a lonely house on a rock in the sea, connected with the coast of Hampshire by a rough road two miles long at low water. After that he was ordered to be removed to Windsor, where he was very rudely used; only some soldiers waited on him at the table. But soon the King was brought up to St. James's Palace in London, and they told him that his trial was appointed for next day.

On Saturday, the 20th of January, 1649, this memorial trial began. The House of Commons had settled that one hundred and thirty-five persons should form the Court, and these were taken from the House itself, from among the officers of the army, and from among the lawyers and the citizens. John Bradshaw, sergeant-in-law, was appointed president. The trial took place at Westminster Hall. At the upper end, in a red velvet chair, sat the president, with his hat on his head, and it was lined with plates of iron for his protection. The rest of the Court sat on side benches, also wearing their hats. The King's seat was covered with velvet, like that of the president, and was opposite to it. Charles was brought from St. James's to Whitehall, and from Whitehall he came by water to his trial.

When the King came in, he looked round very steadily at the Court, and at the great number of spectators, and then sat down: presently he got up and looked round again. When the words were read aloud, "against Charles Stuart, for high treason", he smiled several times, and he denied the authority of the Court, saying that there could be no Parliament without a House of Lords, and that he saw no House of Lords there. And he also added that the King ought to be there, and he saw no King in the King's right place. Bradshaw replied that the Court was satisfied with its authority and that its authority was God's authority and the kingdom's.

He then adjourned the Court to the following Monday. On that day the trial was resumed, and went on all the week. When the Saturday came, the King passed forward to his place in the Hall, and at that moment some soldiers and others cried for "justice" and execution on him. That day, too, Bradshaw, like an angry Sultan, wore a red robe, instead of the black robe he had worn before. The King was sentenced to death that day. As he went out, one solitary soldier said: "God bless you, Sir!" For this, his officer struck him. As to the King, he said he thought the punishment exceeded the offence. The silver head of his walking-stick had fallen off while he leaned upon it, at one time of the trial. The accident seemed to disturb him, as if he thought it ominous of the falling of his own head; and he admitted as much, now it was all over.

Charles was taken back to Whitehall, and he sent to the House of Commons and said that as the time of his execution was near, he wished to see his darling children. His wish was granted. On Monday he was taken to St. James's again; and his two children, who were then in England, were brought to take leave of him, from Sion House, near Brentford. One of the children was the Princess Elizabeth, thirteen years old, and another — the Duke of Gloucester, nine years old. It was a sad and touching scene, when the King kissed and fondled those poor children, and made a little present of two diamond seals to the Princess, and gave
them tender message to their mother, and told them that he died "for the laws and liberties of the land". Perhaps, he really believed so.

The warrant of the execution was signed that day. There is a story that when Oliver Cromwell went to the table with the pen in his hand to put his signature to it, he drew his pen across the face of one of the Scottish Commissioners, who was standing near, and marked it with ink. That commissioner had not signed his own name yet, and the story adds that when he came to do it he marked Cromwell's face with ink in the same way.

The knowledge that it was his last night on earth did not spoil the King's sleep, and he slept well, and rose on the 30th of January two hours before the day began, and dressed himself carefully. He put on two shirts because he was afraid to tremble with the cold, and had his hair very carefully combed.

At ten o'clock one of the army officers came to the door and said it was time to go to Whitehall. The King, who had always been a quick walker, walked at his usual speed through the Park, and called out to the guard, with his accustomed voice of command, "March on apace!" When he came to Whitehall, he was taken to his own bedroom, where breakfast was served to him. As he had time, when the church bells struck twelve at noon (for he had to wait, because the scaffold had not been ready) he took the advice of the good Bishop Juxon who was with him, and ate a little bread and drank a glass of claret. Soon after he had taken this refreshment, Colonel Hacker came to the chamber with the warrant in his hand, and called for Charles Stuart.

And then, through the long gallery of Whitehall Palace, which he had often seen light and gay and merry and crowded, in very different times, the fallen King passed down, until he came to the central window of the Banqueting House, through which he emerged upon the scaffold, which was hung with black. Charles looked at the two executors, who were dressed in black and masked; he looked at the troops of soldiers on horseback and on foot, and all looked down at him in silence; he looked at the very array of spectators, filling up the view beyond, and turning all their faces upon him; he looked at his old Palace of St. James's; and he looked at the block. He seemed a little troubled to find that it was so low and asked if there was no place higher. Then he said to those who stood upon the scaffold "that it was the Parliament who had begun the war, and not he, but he hoped they might be guiltless too, as ill instruments had gone between them". In one respect, he said: "He suffered justly; and that was because he had permitted an unjust sentence to be executed on another". In this he hinted at the Earl of Strafford.

Charles was not at all afraid to die; but he was anxious to die easily. When someone touched the axe while the King was speaking, he broke off and called out: "Take heed of the axe! Take heed of the axe!" He also said to Colonel Hacker: "Take care that they do not put me to pain". He told the executioner: "I shall say but very short prayers, and then thrust out my hands" — as the sign to strike.

The King put his hair up, under a white satin cap which the bishop had carried, and said: "I have a good case — a gracious God on my side".

The bishop told him then that he had but one stage more to travel in this weary world, and that, though it was a turbulent and troublesome stage, it was a short one, and would carry him a great way — all the way from earth to heaven. The King's last word, as he gave his cloak and the George — the decoration from his breast — to the bishop was, "Remember!" He then kneeled down, laid his head on the block, spread out his hands, and was instantly killed. One universal groan broke from the crowd; and the soldiers, who had sat on their horses, and stood in their ranks immovable as statues, were of a sudden all in motion, clearing the streets.
This contemporary German print depicts Charles I's decapitation

Thus, in the forty-ninth year of his age, falling at the same time of his career as Stratford had fallen in his, perished Charles the First. The execution of the King had been neither legal nor popular. If he was guilty of treason on the grounds alleged, then great masses of his subjects were guilty too; the military leaders who had executed him were only a small minority even on their own side. The arbitrary nature of his trial had made a tyrannical and unwise king into a martyr and created a passionate attachment to his innocent heir. In any case, after the King's execution England was governed by a usurping clique of soldiers, whose authority could only be maintained by the sword. However strong their conviction that they were acting in the only possible way to secure English liberties, they could hardly pretend that they were carrying out the will of the majority of their countrymen.

Comprehension questions

1. The relations of the army and the Parliament.
2. Why did the Parliament decide to expedite the King’s trial?
3. Charles II’s execution.

59. OLIVER CROMWELL (1599-1658) AND PRINCE CHARLES’S ESCAPE

The constitutional struggle between the crown and the Parliament had not been initiated by Charles I. It was in full existence in the reign of James I, and distinct traces appear towards the latter part of that of Elizabeth. Charles, therefore, in some degree inherited a situation for which he was not responsible, nor can he be justly blamed. In the event the Parliament proved quite incapable to govern, an army uncontrolled by the sovereign was thrown to constitute a more grievous tyranny than Charles's most arbitrary rule, and the downfall of the church seemed to make room only for a sectarian despotism as intolerable as the Laudian. Indeed, the actual individuals of the drama, including the King himself, were rather the victims of the greatness of events than actors in the scene, still less the controllers of their own and national destiny.
After such a break in the constitution the immediate problem was to carry on the government and to avoid anarchy. The Rump's first step — and by the "Rump" must be understood the military leaders quite as much as the mutilated House of Commons — was to abolish monarchy and the House of Lords and to declare England a free commonwealth governed by representatives of the people in Parliament. Having laid hold of some famous Royalists who had escaped the prison and having beheaded the Duke of Hamilton, Lord Holland, and Lord Capel, they then appointed a Council of State to govern the country. It consisted of forty-one members, of whom five were peers and only half of them were the members of Parliament. The House of Commons also re-admitted members who had opposed the King's death, and made up its numbers to about a hundred and fifty. The new government was an oligarchy, "half religious, half military, ruling over an incomparably greater number of disaffected subjects". These disaffected subjects included Roman Catholics, Anglicans, and Presbyterians, in other words, not only all those who had lately fought for the King, but the majority of those who had fought against him.

There was still an army of more than forty thousand men to deal with, and a very hard task it was to manage them. Before the King's execution, the army had appointed some of its officers to remonstrate between them and the Parliament; and now the common soldiers began to take that office upon themselves. The regiment under orders for Ireland mutinied; one troop of horse in the city of London seized their own flag, and refused to obey orders. The ringleader was shot for that, which did not mend the matter, for both his comrades and the people made a public funeral for him, and accompanied the body to the grave with sounds of trumpets and with a gloomy procession of persons carrying bundles of rosemary steeped in blood. Oliver Cromwell was the only man to deal with such difficulties as these, and he soon cut them short by bursting at midnight into the town of Burford, near Salisbury, where the mutineers were sheltered, then he took four hundred of them prisoners, and shot a number of them. The soldiers soon found, as all men did, that Oliver was not a man to be trifled with. And there was the end of the mutiny. So, Oliver Cromwell knew well how to treat the soldiers. But the Scottish Parliament did not know yet that strong personality who was to be the Lord Protector of England later, and so the uncrowned king.

Oliver Cromwell was the fifth and the only surviving son of the Robert Cromwell of Huntington and of Elizabeth Steward. His paternal grandfather was sir Henry Cromwell, grandson of Richard Williams, knighted by Henry VIII, nephew of Thomas Cromwell, earl of Henry VIII's minister, whose name he adopted. His mother was a descendant from a family of Steward in Norfolk, which was not, however, connected with the royal house of Stuart.

Oliver was educated under Thomas Beard, a fervent puritan, at the free school of Huntington, and in 1616 joined Cambridge, which was then a hotbed of Puritanism. After that Cromwell studied law in London. According to one of his friends, he was "very well read in the Greek and Roman story". Later he was able to converse with the Dutch ambassador in that language. But, as his other contemporary said: "He was more famous for his exercises in the fields than in the schools, and he was one of the chief match-makers and players at football, cudgels, or any other boisterous game or sport".

After his marriage Oliver in 1620 settled at Huntington and occupied himself in the management of his small estate. In 1628 he became a member of the Common House, and on the 11th of February, 1629 he spoke in support of puritan doctrine.

Cromwell was known as a very religious man, who for his religion's sake had been willing to leave his own home and seek a new home in America, but that he and his company were stayed by the King's order when they were about to depart. Little did Charles know the meaning of this order then! Oliver Cromwell represented Cambridge in the Short and Long Parliament in 1640, and here he at once showed his zeal and audacity in his opposition to the government, serving on numerous and important committees. He was intimately associated with the leaders of the parliamentary party.
You have already read about Cromwell's activity during the Civil War. Now, after the King's execution the Scottish Parliament proclaimed the Prince of Wales King Charles the Second, on condition of his respecting the Solemn League and Covenant. Charles was abroad at that time, and so was Montrose, for whose help he had hopes enough to keep him in his contacts with the commissioners from Scotland, just as his father might have done. These hopes were soon at an end: when Montrose landed with a few hundred exiles from Germany in Scotland, he found that the people there, instead of joining him, deserted the country at his approach, Montrose was soon taken prisoner and carried to Edinburgh. There he was received with every possible insult, and carried to prison in a cart, while his officers went two and two behind them. He was sentenced by the Parliament to be hanged on a gallows thirty feet high, to have his head set on a spike in Edinburgh, and his limbs distributed in other places, according to the old barbarous manner. He said he had always acted under the Royal orders, and only wished he had limbs enough to be distributed through Christendom, that everybody on so wide a territory could see how loyal he had been. Montrose went to the scaffold in a bright and brilliant dress, and met a bold end at thirty-eight years of age. The breath was scarcely out of his body when Charles abandoned his memory, and denied that he had ever given him orders to rise in his behalf.

Now, the English government turned to deal with Ireland and Scotland. In Ireland the Duke of Ormond had taken up arms for the Prince of Wales. In 1649 Cromwell was appointed by the Parliament to command army in Ireland, and he showed well enough that he meant to take full vengeance for the alleged ‘massacre’ of 1641. Marching south, he secured the coast, and ended by capturing Wexford, the town on the east-south coast of the island.

Cromwell’s harsh treatment of the Irish was carried out in the same spirit by Ireton and Fleetwood, when he was recalled to deal with the Scots. (Ireton, Henry, was son-in-law of Scots. (Ireton, Henry, was son-in-law of Cromwell and an English general: 1611-1651.
Fleetwood, Charles, died in 1692, was an English Parliamentary general. Soon after Montrose had been hanged Charles himself landed in Scotland and by the Solemn League and Covenant had secured an army, commanded by David Leslie, to invade England. Cromwell did not wait to be attacked but crossed the Border and marched on Edinburgh; but finding the city and Leslie's position too strong to attack with any chance of success, he fell back on Dunbar (1650). Here too the Scots had the advantage of the position, as they held the high ground, while Cromwell lay in the plain between them and the sea. When, however, Leslie yielded to the wish of the ministers of the army and left the hill, Cromwell, as usual, seized the opportunity to drive his attack home. The utter defeat of the Scottish army left the road open to Edinburgh and gave Cromwell command of all the Scottish south of that city. This defeat was not as distasteful for Charles as might be expected, for it discredited the extreme Covenanters and made an alliance with the English and the other Scottish royalists more possible. It was for that reason that, after being crowned at Scone on the first day of 1651, he decided to invade England, while Cromwell was engaged with Leslie in Fifeshire. His march by way of Lancashire and the Welsh border, however, brought him few recruits, and at last he had to halt at Worcester. Within a fortnight Cromwell was ready to engage him. On the anniversary of Dunbar (September 3), the Royalists were again utterly defeated (1651). Charles made his way to Brighton and escaped in Normandy.

Cromwell's soldiers had a nickname "the Ironsides" for their bravery and resolution in his battles. The escape of Charles after the battle of Worcester did him good service long afterwards, for it induced many of the generous English people to take a romantic interest in him. Charles fled in the night, he had only sixty followers, and at first he was in the house of a Catholic lady in Staffordshire. There, for his great safety, his sixty men left him. Charles cropped his hair, stained his face and hands brown as if they were sunburnt, put on the clothes of a labouring countryman, and went out in the morning with his axe in his hand, accompanied by four wood-cutters who were brothers, and another man, their brother-in-law. These good fellows made a bed for him under a tree, as the weather was very bad; and the wife of one of them brought him food to eat; and the old mother of the four brothers came and fell down on her knees before him, and thanked God that her sons were saving his life. At night, he came out of the forest and went on to another house which was near the river Severn, he had the intention to pass to Wales; but the place swarmed with soldiers, and the bridges were guarded, and all the boats moved very far. So, after lying in a hayloft covered over with hay for some time, Charles came out of his place, attended by Colonel Careless, a Catholic gentleman who had met him there, and with whom Charles lay hid, all next day up the shady branches of a fine old oak. It was very lucky that it was September-time, and that the leaves had not begun to fall, because he and Colonel Careless, perched up in this tree, could see the soldiers riding about below, and should hear the crush in the wood, as they went about beating the boughs.

After that, Charles walked and walked until his feet were all blistered. And so he travelled from house to house, belonging to good and kind people, who were ready to help him. He had several dangerous episodes during his travel, one of them was, when Charles, disguised as a servant, came to the house of Sir John Winter, and it happened so that Sir John Winter's butler had been a servant in Richmond Palace, and he knew Charles at the very moment he saw him; but the butler was faithful and kept the secret.

At last, after some adventures and dangers, Charles was safe at Trent, and a ship was hired at Lyme to take him to France. In the evening of the same day Charles, riding as a servant before a young lady, set off for a public-house at a place called Carmouth, where the captain of the vessel was to take him on board. But the captain's wife was afraid of her husband getting into trouble, and she locked him up and would not let him sail.

Then they went away to Bridport; and, coming to the inn there, found the stable-yard full of soldiers who were on the look-out for Charles, and who talked about him while they drank.
Charles had such a presence of mind, that he led the horses of his party through the yard as any other servant might have done, and said: "Come out of the way, you soldiers; let us have room to pass here!" As he went along, he met a half-drunken horseman, who rubbed his eyes and said to Charles: "Why, I was formerly servant of Mr. Potter at Exeter, and surely I have sometimes seen you there, young man?" And he certainly had, for Charles had lodged there. His ready answer was: "Ah, I did live there once; but I have no time to talk now. We'll have a pot of beer together when I come back".

Then Charles returned to Trent from this dangerous place, and lay there concealed several days.

On the night of the 15th of October, accompanied by two colonels and a merchant, Charles rode to Brighton, then a little fishing village, to give the captain of the ship a supper before going on board; but so many people knew him, that this captain knew him too, and not only he, but the landlord and the landlady also. Before he went away, the landlord came behind his chair, kissed his hand, and said he hoped to live to be a lord and to see his wife a lady; at which Charles laughed. They had had a good supper by this time, and plenty of smoking and drinking.

It was agreed that the captain should pretend to sail to Deal, and that Charles should address the sailors and say he was a gentleman in debt who was running away from his creditors, and that he hoped they would join him in persuading the captain to put him ashore in France. As the King acted his part very well indeed, and gave the sailors twenty shillings to drink, they begged the captain to do what such a worthy gentleman asked. The captain pretended to yield to their entreaties, and Charles got safe to Normandy.

After that, it was all secure at home, and the government had a foreign war on their hands. They got into trouble with the Dutch, who then acted as mediators of maritime trade. The Parliament passed the Navigation Act (1651), and with this a great blow was struck at the Dutch, the chief carriers in the trade of Europe then. According to this act, goods from Asia, Africa and America were to be imported to Britain and its possessions only by English vessels, and European goods - by English vessels or those of an exporting country. The Navigation Act completely undermined the basis of wealth and power of the Dutch Republic. The Netherlands were deprived of their main source of income and could not tolerate such a situation. This and the sympathy of the Dutch with the Stuarts soon brought about war with Holland. The admirals were Blake on the English side and Van Tromp and De Ruyter on the other. In the first year of the war the Dutch had decidedly the best of it; and Van Tromp was master of the seas; but the government's vigour retrieved their disasters, and after two years' fighting the Dutch were forced to make peace and accept the English supremacy at sea (1654). There followed two more Anglo-Dutch wars (2nd - 1665-1667, 3rd - 1672-1674), which resulted in the fact that the Netherlands slipped to the level of a second-rate power.

Things were no sooner quiet again, than the army began to complain to the Parliament that they were not governing the nation properly, and to hint that they thought they could do it better themselves. It was now time that the "Rump" should give way to a more representative body capable of carrying out much-needed reforms; but the "Rump" meant to continue in power, and did not hesitate to slight the military chiefs.

Oliver Cromwell, who had now made up his mind to be the head of the state, or nothing at all, called a meeting of officers and his own Parliamentary friends, at his lodging at Whitehall, to choose the best way to get rid of the Parliament. The end of that was that Oliver Cromwell went down to the House in his usual plain black dress, with his usual grey worsted stockings, but with an unusual party of soldiers behind him. He left his musketeers in lobby, and then went in and sat down. Presently he got up, made a speech before the Parliament, stamped his foot and said: "You are no Parliament. Bring them in! Bring them in!" At this signal the door flew open, and the soldiers appeared.
"This is not honest", said Harry Vane, one of the members. "Sir Harry Vane!" cried Cromwell. "Sir Harry Vane! Lord deliver me from Sir Harry Vane!" Then he pointed out members one by one, and said this man was a drunkard, and that man a liar, and so on. Then Cromwell made the Speaker walk out of his chair, told the guard to clear the House. Then he quickly closed the door, put the key in his pocket, walked back to Whitehall again, and told his friends, who were still assembled there, what he had done.

On the same day the Council of State was dissolved too. At last, in name as well as fact, England was being ruled by a general and his chief officers. But Cromwell still meant to have some sort of Parliament, even although he fully intended to direct affairs; grants of money were required by a commander-in-chief as much as by the King. The Assembly decided upon was not, however, to be elected; it was to be selected by the Army Council from persons nominated by the Congregational churches in each country.

They got a new Parliament together in their own way, and Oliver Cromwell himself opened it in a sort of sermon, and he said it would be the beginning of heaven upon earth.

The "Barebones" Parliament, so called from the name of one of its members, was, as a matter of fact, composed of much the same type of men, so far as social position is concerned, as always had been returned to Parliament; but they were of course mainly independents and political theorists, convinced that the godly were called upon to govern the ungodly for their own good.

The Barebones Parliament entered on a matter of reforms with so much zeal and such little discretion that many interests were threatened at once. While the members grew irritable under the control of their masters, the military leaders, the people at large found government by sects more and more irksome. Unable to accomplish that which was desired, Parliament resigned its power into Cromwell's hands.

The Army once more took over the direction of affairs, and by the Instrument of Government made Cromwell Lord Protector, giving him a Council of State to assist and control him.

So, on the 16th of December, 1653, a great procession was formed at Oliver's door, and he came out in a black velvet suit and a big pair of boots, and got into his coach and went down to Westminster, attended by the judges, and the Lord Mayor, and the aldermen, and all the other great and wonderful personages of the country. There, in the Court of Chancery, he publicly accepted the office of Lord Protector. Then he was sworn, and the City sword was handed to him, and all the other things were handed to him, which are usually handed to Kings and Queens on State occasions. When Cromwell handed them back, he was quite made and completely finished off as Lord Protector; and several of the Ironsides preached about it at great length, all the evening.

Comprehension questions

1. Was Charles I alone to blame for the conflict with the Parliament?
2. What was “the Rump”? What were their first actions?
3. Cromwell’s dealing with mutineers in the army.
4. Speak of Montrose, the attempt of a coup in favour of Charles II and his execution.
5. Cromwell’s severe repressions in Ireland. Cromwellian Settlements as the continuation of the policy of plantation (transplantation) and ethnic cleansing.
6. Cromwell’s fighting with David Leslie.
7. The escape of Charles II.
8. The English get the better of the Dutch at sea.
In due course a Parliament was called (1654), and Oliver Cromwell, whom the people nicknamed Old Noll (Noll is a shortened form of the name Oliver), made a speech to them for three hours long, very wisely advising them what to do for the credit and happiness of the country. To keep down the more violent members, he required them to sign a recognition of what they were forbidden by "the Instrument" to do; which was, chiefly, to take the power from one single person at the head of the state or to command the army. But then, as the Parliament gave its whole time to criticising the new constitution, Cromwell soon dissolved it. Freed from all constraint, he now published ordinances merely by his own authority; his eleven major-generals, who divided the country between them and commanded the militia, saw to their execution.

As to Cromwell's foreign policy, by this time the Dutch war had ended in England's favour, but probably the greatest gain lay in the new spirit which the English admirals had created in the navy. After all the Dutch, though rivals in trade, were Protestants, and Cromwell's main principle in foreign policy was to form a great European Protestant alliance against the Catholic Powers. He hardly realised that the leading state in Europe was no longer Spain, but France; and therefore he was not sorry, even while nominally at peace with Spain, to attack her possessions in the West Indies when she refused to allow freedom of trade in those parts and to grant freedom of worship to English merchants in Spanish ports. However, the expedition sent out under Penn and Venables met with no very brilliant success, except the capture of Jamaica (1655), although the result — a declaration of war by Spain — was not unsatisfactory to Cromwell. To humble Spain he allied himself with France, making as a condition of his alliance, the French minister Mazarin bring pressure on the Duke of Savoy to stop the persecution of the Protestant Vaudois (a certain religious sect).

In the West Indies Blake captured the Spanish treasure fleet, and on the Continent the allies captured Mardyke and Dunkirk (the towns in the North France), of which the latter was handed over the England (1658). Whether the French or English gained most from alliance will be seen more clearly later.

Although Cromwell ruled with a strong hand, and levied a very hard tax on the Royalists (but not until they had plotted against his life), most English at the time believed him to be a wise and stern ruler, as the time required. He caused England to be counted with abroad. It began to be known all over the world, that England was governed by a man in earnest, who would not allow the English name to be slighted anywhere.

Cromwell decided not to bear the "domineering and bigoted conduct of Spain", the fact, that "that country not only claimed a right to all the gold and silver that could be found in South America, and treated the ships of all other countries who visited those regions as pirates, but they put English subjects into the Spanish prisons of the Inquisition." So Cromwell told the Spanish ambassador that English ships must be free to go wherever they wanted, and that the English merchants must not be thrown in the dungeons. To this the Spanish ambassador replied that the gold and silver of the country and the Holy Inquisition, were the King's two eyes, neither of which he could submit to have put out. Very well, said Oliver Cromwell, then he was afraid he (Oliver) must damage those two eyes directly. And he managed to do it.

There were plots enough against Cromwell among the frantic religionists (who called themselves Fifth Monarchy Men), and among the disappointed Republicans. He had a difficult game to play, for the Royalists were always ready to side with either party against him. "The King over the water", as Charles was called, also tried to plot against the Lord Protector; although there is reason to suppose that he would willingly have married one of Cromwell's daughters, if Oliver would have had such a son-in-law.
But Oliver had his ears and eyes everywhere, and secured such sources of information as his enemies never dreamed of. There was a chosen body of six persons, called the Sealed Knot, who were in the closest and most secret confidence of Charles. One of the foremost of these very men, a Sir Richard Willis, reported to Cromwell everything that passed among them, and had two hundred a year for it.

Once more in 1656 Cromwell called a Parliament together. When it had been purged of a hundred of its members, it presented to the Lord Protector a "Humble Petition and Advice", asking him to take the title of King and to create a Second Chamber nominated by himself. Declining the title of king — as the army begged him to do — he accepted the rest of the Humble Petition; but when the old House quarrelled with the new one, he dissolved them both (1657).

The "Humble Petition" had practically invested Cromwell with all the power of the old kings, and brought back the laws to much of their old form. But he himself began to fail, worn out with anxiety and responsibility.

In August, 1658, Cromwell's favourite daughter, Elizabeth Claypole, lay very ill, and his mind was greatly troubled, because he loved her dearly. He was very kind and loving to all his children, he was a good father and a good husband. Cromwell made his son Richard one of the members of the Upper House. But he loved Elizabeth best of all his family, and, when she fell ill, he went to Hampton Court to see her, and nobody could induce him to stir from her sick-bed until she died.

Although Cromwell's religion had been of a gloomy kind, his nature and disposition were cheerful. He had been fond of music in his home, and kept open table once a week for all officers of the army not below the rank of captain; and had always preserved in his house a quite sensible dignity. He encouraged men of genius, and loved to have them about him. John Milton (1608-1624), one of the greatest English poets, author of two big and grand poems "Paradise Lost" and "Paradise Regained", a distinguished figure in English culture of the epoch, was Cromwell's friend.

Cromwell was very humorous, and liked to joke with the nobility, whose dresses and manners were very different from his; and to show them what good information he had, he would sometimes jokingly tell them when they were his guests, where they had last drunk the health of the "King over the water", and would recommend them to be more private (if they could) another time.

But he had lived in busy times, had borne the weight of heavy State affairs, and had often gone in fear of his life. He was ill of the gout and ague; and when the death of his beloved daughter came upon him in addition, he sank, never to raise his head again. On the 24th of August he told his physicians that the Lord had assured him that he was not to die in that illness, and that he would certainly get better. But this was only his sick fancy, for on the 3rd of September, which was the anniversary of the great battle of Worcester, and the day of the year which he called his fortunate day, he died, in the sixtieth year of his age (in 1658). He had been delirious, and had lain insensible some hours, but he was heard the day before to murmur a very good prayer. The country genuinely lamented his death.

Cromwell had appointed his son Richard to succeed him, and after there was a most splendid feast at Somerset House, Richard became Lord Protector. Richard was an amiable country gentleman, but had none of his father's genius, and was quite unfit for such a post in such a storm of parties. He had neither the power nor the inclination to control the army leaders, who were now headed by his brother-in-low, Fleetwood.

Richard's Protectorate lasted only a year and a half, and it is known as a history of quarrels between the officers of the army and the Parliament, and between the officers among themselves; and of growing discontent of the people, who had far too many long sermons and far too few amusements, and wanted a change. The Rump was recalled then; but very soon
they were once more ejected by general, this time Lambert. The officers had no commanding
spirits to control them, and they quarrelled among themselves once more.

There was a soldier of fortune, Monk, who had fought for the Commonwealth by land and
sea; he was now commanding in Scotland. Monk began jealously to suspect Lambert of
wishing to seize the government, so he marched south, and being joined by Fairfax, who had
lived for some years in retirement, advanced to London. The city hailed with delight his
suggestion to call a truce, pleased to know that he was going to begin negotiations with the
King of Scots.

The New Parliament had hardly met when it received a message from Charles known as
the Declaration of Breda (a little town in Brabant, now in the Netherlands). In this letter
Charles promised a general amnesty, religious toleration, and the security of property. For
some years there had been plots and counterplots, and a recall of the last members of the Long
Parliament, and an end of the Long Parliament, and Rising of the Royalists that were made
too soon; and most men got very tired of all that situation; and as there was nobody so great
as to head the country now when Old Noll died, the people readily agreed to welcome Charles
Stuart. Some of the better and wiser members of the Parliament said — what was most true —
that in the letter from Breda Charles II gave no real promise to govern well, and that it would
be best to make him pledge himself beforehand as to what he should be bound to do for the
benefit of the kingdom. Monk said, however, it would be right when Charles came, and he
could not come too soon.

So, everybody found out all in a moment, as Ch. Dickens ironically says, that the country
must be prosperous and happy, having another Stuart to condescend to reign over it; and there
was a prodigious firing of guns, lighting of bonfires, ringing of bells, and throwing up of caps.
The people drank the King's health by thousands in the open streets, and everybody rejoiced.
Prayers for Stuart were put up in all churches; commissioners were sent to Holland (which
suddenly found out that Charles was a great man, and that it loved him) to invite the King
home; Monk and the Kentish grandees went to Dover, to kneel down before the King as soon
as he landed. Charles kissed and embraced Monk, made him ride in his coach with himself
and his brothers, came on to London amid wonderful shoutings, and passed through the army
at Blackheath on the 23rd of May (which was his birthday) in the year 1660. Greeted by
splendid dinners under tents, by flags and tapestry streaming from all the houses, by delighted
crowds in all the streets, by troops of noblemen and gentlemen in rich dresses, by City
companies, train-bands, drummers, trumpeters, the great Lord Mayor, and the majestic
Aldermen the King went on to Whitehall. On entering it, he commemorated his Restoration
with the joke that it really would seem to have been his own fault that he had not come long
ago since everybody told him that he had always wished for him with all his heart.

Comprehension questions

1. Cromwell as Lord Protector. Jamaica, the West Indies, Mardyke and Dunkirk — the
   English gains.
2. Cromwell’s evaluation as a ruler.
3. The English pirates continue to ravage Spanish ships and depots in South America.
5. Cromwell’s death. The appraisal of his character.
6. Why did the Parliament and the people welcome Charles II for the King? The Declaration
   of Breda.

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For eleven years there was no king in England. Charles II had no easy task before him, for although the nation as a whole was heartily tired of the army, parties were still keenly divided. The alliance between the Cavaliers and Presbyterians could not be expected to last for long; any toleration extended to the King's Roman Catholic supporters would be sure to unite the rest of country against the government; and, lastly, it was the army, and not the Cavaliers, who had really restored the monarchy.

There were never such profligate times as under Charles the Second. Whenever you see his portrait, with his swarthy ill-looking face and great nose, you may fancy him in his Court at Whitehall, surrounded by some of the very worst vagabonds in the kingdom (though they were lords and ladies), drinking, gambling, indulging in vicious conversation, and committing any kind of profligate excess. It had been a fashion to call Charles the Second "The Merry Monarch". Let us try to have a general idea of some of the merry things that were done in the merry days, when this merry gentleman sat upon the merry throne, in merry England.

The first merry proceeding was, of course, to declare that he was one of the greatest, the wisest, and the noblest kings that ever shone, like the blessed sun itself, on this benighted earth. The next merry and pleasant peace of business was, for the Parliament, in the humblest manner, to give the King one million two hundred thousand pounds a year, and to settle upon him for life that old disputed tonnage and poundage which had been so bravely fought for.

Charles's own charm of manner and want of any fixed principles were likely to smooth over the first difficulties, but his long residence abroad had made it rather difficult for him to understand Englishmen. He therefore had to rely upon one of the Parliamentary leaders of 1640. Sir Edward Hyde, soon created Earl of Clarendon, helped the King to establish the monarchy once more on a sure basis.

General Monk was made Earl of Albemarle; he and a few other Royalists rewarded, wanted to see what was to be done with those persons (they were called Regicides) who had been concerned in making a martyr of the late King. Ten of those were merrily executed.
These executions were so merry, that every horrible circumstance which Cromwell had abandoned was revived with appalling cruelty. The hearts of the sufferers were torn out of their living bodies; their bowels were buried before their faces; the executioner cut jokes to the next victim, as he rubbed his filthy hands together, that were reeking with the blood of the last; and the heads of the dead were drawn on sledges with the living to the place of suffering. Still, even so merry a monarch could not force one of those men to say that he was sorry for what he had done.

These merry scenes were succeeded by another, perhaps, even merrier. On the anniversary of late King's death, the bodies of Oliver Cromwell, Ireton and Bradshaw, were torn out of their graves at Westminster Abbey, dragged to Tyburn, hanged there on a gallows all day long, and then beheaded. Imagine Oliver Cromwell's head set upon a pole to be stared at by a brutal crowd, not a single person of whom would have dared to look living Oliver in the face for half a moment!

Of course, the remains of Oliver's wife and daughters were not spared either, though they had been most excellent women. Their bodies were thrown into a pit — to the eternal disgrace of England — together with the mouldering bones of Pym and of the brave and bold old Admiral Blake. The clergy acted this disgraceful part because they hoped to get the nonconformists, or dissenters, thoroughly put down in this reign, and to have but one prayer-book and one service for all kinds of people, no matter what their private opinions were. This was very well for a Protestant Church, which had displaced the Roman Church because people had a right to their own opinions in religious matters. However, they carried it with a high hand, and a prayer-book was agreed upon, in which the most extreme opinions of Archbishop Laud were not forgotten.

When the first Parliament of the reign met, it was found to be strongly Episcopalian; much of its business was concerned with religion, and these religious Acts were called the Clarendon Code. The first of them was a Corporation Act, by which all members of municipal corporations were to take a Sacrament according to the form of the Church of England. The grievance of the Puritans was made more real by the fact that at that time corporations returned many members of Parliament. Next year (1662) came the Act of Uniformity, restoring the Prayer Book, and requiring ordination by a bishop and an oath of non-resistance to the sovereign from all ministers. The 2,000 ministers whom this act drove from their livings were still further persecuted in 1664, by the Conventicle Act, which took away the right of meeting from all bodies outside the Church of England. The last measure of the Code, the Five Mile Act, forbade the clergy deprived by the Act of Uniformity to come within five miles of their former parish or any borough. All these oppressive measures show that the King was either unwilling or unable to assert himself; for his chief interest in religious affairs was to secure toleration in order that the Roman Catholic Church, of which he was secretly a member, might share in it. All the Clarendon Code achieved was to foster the growth of Dissent or Nonconformity, as is usual result of religious persecution.

In 1662 Charles had married Catherine of Braganza, a Portuguese Princess, who brought him Tangier and Bombay as a dowry.

As Dickens writes, the whole Court was a great flaunting crowd of debauched men and shameless women; and Catherine's merry husband insulted and outraged her in every possible way, until she consented to receive those worthless creatures as her very good friends, and to degrade herself by their companionship. The Merry Monarch was so exceedingly merry among merry ladies and lords and gentlemen that he soon spent his money, and then he sold Dunkirk to the French King for the five millions of livres. As to his wife's dowry, new possessions of the state drew England into still closer contact with her trade rivals: the Dutch, who had rich East Indian and West African colonies; and when new friction arose owing to a collision between the two nations in New Amsterdam, war was declared with Holland (1664). The English fleet, which had done such good service under the Commonwealth, had been
neglected, and it was some time before a new one could be organised. A battle was won off Lowestoft in 1665, but the Dutch were the victors in the battle of the Downs in 1666. However, in the same year they were decisively defeated off the North Foreland, and in spite of De Ruyter’s destruction of shipping in the Medway in 1667, the Peace of Breda brought the war to an end; the Dutch secured a modification of the Navigation Act by which they recovered a good deal of their carrying trade, while England retained New Amsterdam, now renamed New York.

During the war London suffered two calamities. In 1665 the Great Plague burst out in London. It was a terrible disease which carried away thousands of lives of men, women and children. It was like the Black Death during the reign of Richard II, and people fell ill so suddenly and died so quickly that no one felt safe. At first it was only whispered about, that some few people had died here and there in the suburbs around London. News was not published at that time as it is now, and some people believed those rumours, and some disbelieved them, and they were soon forgotten. But in the month of May, 1665, there were rumours all over the town that the disease had burst out with great violence in St. Giles's and the people were dying in great numbers. This soon turned out to be awfully true. The roads out of London were choked up by people endeavouring to escape from the infected city, and large sums were paid for any kind of conveyance. The disease soon spread so fast, that it was necessary to shut up the houses in which the sick people were, and to cut them off from communication with the living. Every one of these houses was marked on the outside door with a red cross, and the words: "Lord, have mercy upon us!" The streets were all deserted, grass grew in the public ways, and there was a dreadful silence in the air. When night came on, dismal rumblings used to be done by men with veiled faces, holding cloths to their mouths. They rang doleful bells and cried in a loud and solemn voice: “Bring out your dead!” The corpses put into that carte were buried by torchlight in great pits; no service being performed over them; all men were afraid to stay for a moment on the brink of the ghastly graves. In the general fear, children ran away from their parents, and parents — from their children. Some who were taken ill, died alone, and without any help. Some were stabbed or strangled by hired nurses who robbed them of all their money, and stole the very beds on which poor things lay. Some went mad, dropped from the windows, ran through the streets, and in their pain and frenzy flung themselves into the river.

The seventeenth century had no developed science about illnesses, but they still had many brave and devoted to humanity doctors, who tried to fight with the Great Plague. Almost three centuries later Rudyard Kipling, to whose verses on the historical subjects we have already referred in this book, wrote a little expressive poem about those doctors during that epidemic:

"Wonderful little, when all is said,  
Wonderful little our fathers knew.  
Half their remedies cured you dead —  
Most of their teaching was quite untrue —  
"Look at the stars when a patient is ill  
(Dirt has nothing to do with disease),  
Bleed and blister as much as you will,  
Blister and bleed him as oft as you please",  
Whence enormous and manifold  
Errors were made by our fathers of old.  
Yet when the sickness was sore in land,  
And neither planets nor herbs assuaged,  
They took their lives in their lancet-hand  
And, oh, what a wonderful war they waged!  
Yes, when the crosses were chalked on the door —
(Yes, when the terrible dead-cart rolled!)
Excellent courage our fathers bore —
Excellent heart had our fathers of old.
None too learned, but nobody bold
Into the fight went our fathers of old".

(Rudyard Kipling, "Our Fathers of Old" in the story "A Doctor of Medicine" in the book "Rewards and Fairies ").

But these were not all the horrors of the time. The wicked and dissolute, in wild
desperation, sat in the taverns singing roaring songs, and were stricken as they drunk, and
went out and died. The fearful and superstitious persuaded themselves that they saw
supernatural things — burning swords in the sky, gigantic arms and darts. Others pretended
that at night vast crowds of ghosts walked round and round the dismal pits. One madman,
naked, and carrying a brazier full of burning coals upon his head, stalked through the streets,
crying out that he was a Prophet, commissioned to denounce the vengeance of the Lord on
wicked London. Another always went to and fro, exclaiming, "Yet forty days, and London
shall be destroyed!" A third awoke the echoes in the dismal streets, by night and by day, and
made the blood of the sick run cold, by calling out incessantly, in a deep hoarse voice, "O, the
great and dreadful God!"

Through the months of July and August and September, the Great Plague raged more and
more. Great fires were lighted in the streets in the hope of stopping the infection; but there
was a plague of rain too, and it beat the fires out. At last, the winds, which usually arise at that
time of the year, which is called the equinox, when day and night are equal length all over the
world, began to blow and to purify the wretched town. The deaths began to decrease, the red
crosses slowly to disappear, the fugitives to return, the shops to open, pale frightened faces to
be seen in the streets. The Plague had been in every part of England, but in close and
unwholesome London it had killed 100,000 people.

It was a wonderful thing that in the year after this plague smote London there broke out the
Great Fire, destroying any traces of the plague that might be left behind. It began in a little
wooden house in Pudding Lane, near London Bridge, and spread in all directions. The
wooden houses blazed like match-boxes, and the flames leapt from street to street with
nothing to stop them. The tall monument near London Bridge marks the spot where it broke
out.

A writer who saw it describes the stones of old St. Paul's Cathedral rattling down and the
molten lead running along the streets in stream, the very pavements glowing with fiery heat.

The fire burned for five days. The nights were lighter than the days; in the day-time there
was an immense cloud of smoke, and in the night-time there was a great tower of fire
mounting up in the sky, which lighted the whole country landscape for ten miles around.
Showers of hot ashes rose into the air and fell on distant places; flying sparks carried the
conflagration to great distances, and kindled it in twenty new spots at a time; church steeples
fell down with tremendous crashes; houses crumbled into cinders by the hundred and the
thousand. The summer had been intensely hot and dry, the streets were very narrow, and the
houses mostly built of wood and plaster. Nothing could stop the tremendous fire, but the want
of more houses to burn; nor did it stop until the whole way from the Tower to Temple Bar was a desert, composed of ashes of thirteen thousand houses and eighty-nine churches.

This was a terrible visitation at the time, and occasioned great loss and suffering to the two
hundred thousand burnt out people, who were obliged to lie in the fields under the open night
sky, or in the hastily-made huts of mud and straw, while the lanes and roads were rendered
impassable by carts which had broken down as they tried to save their goods.

15 a gateway in front of the building of Temple
But the Fire was a great blessing to the City afterwards, for it arose from its ruins very much improved — built more regularly and therefore much more healthily.

The Catholics were accused of having willingly set London in flames; one poor Frenchman, who had been mad for years, even accused himself of having with his own hand fired the first house, a baker's shop. There is no reasonable doubt, however, that the fire was accidental. An inscription on the Monument at the London Bridge long attributed it to the Catholics; but the words were removed afterwards, and they were always a malicious and stupid untruth.

Comprehension questions

1. Why was Charles II called "The Merry Monarch"?
2. What were his first steps on the throne?
3. What were Charles’ religious policies?
4. What did his wife bring him as a dowry?
5. The sale of Dunkirk. The Peace of Breda.
6. The Great Plague of 1665. How many people did it kill in London?
7. The Great Fire of London.

62. REBUILDING OF LONDON AND OTHER EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF CHARLES II

The Great Fire of 1666 burnt 13 thousand houses, 89 churches, the city gates, the public buildings, the hospitals and libraries. And among the destroyed churches was St. Paul's Cathedral.

When the terror of plague and fire had died away, the people decided to rebuild their city. There was a great architect in London at that time, whose name was Christopher Wren (1632-1723). He was the son of the Dean of Windsor, and when he was sent to Oxford University, he proved himself a wonderful pupil. He won success in mathematics and astronomy, and other sciences, and at the age of only twenty-four years old he was made a professor of astronomy. At this time there was already a St. Paul's Cathedral in existence. There had been a church in that place from far back in Saxon times, but four buildings, which, one after another, stood there, were destroyed by fire. In 1663 the building that stood there was sadly in need of repair, and they called on Christopher Wren to carry out repairs and alternations. He was very glad that they asked him, for he had longed to do the work. But he was prevented by the Great Fire of 1666. During this calamity Wren understood that London was simply a sink of filth and disease.

After the fire had ended Wren drew plans for a splendid city with broad thoroughfares and magnificent docks; but, unfortunately, people could not wait. They built as quickly as they could, without heeding the scheme Wren had designed. They built better houses than before, making them of brick and stone instead of wood, but they followed the old line of the streets, and so to this day London has wretched, crooked ways.

Wren's plans were not altogether wasted, however. He built more than fifty churches instead of those which had been burnt, and they are the finest churches in London. He built the Royal Exchange, Temple Bar, the Royal College of Physicians, Greenwich Observatory, Chelsea Hospital, and he added to Westminster Abbey. But the most famous feat of him was the building of the beautiful St. Paul's Cathedral. When Wren made a start with it, he picked out a stone from the heap of the ruins, and found on it a word in Latin which means, "I shall rise again". So he made this the first stone of the new Cathedral.

But it happened only in 1675, and now we must return to our subject of this chapter, King Charles the Second. Clarendon's rule made him unpopular with all classes; his moderation of
resisting the extremer wishes of the Parliament on the one hand and the Court on the other
earned him the hatred from both sides; above all, he was credited with the bad management of
the Dutch war. To avoid his impeachment by Parliament for trying to raise a standing army
and for traitorously selling Dunkirk, Charles retired to France.

His place was taken by a kind of committee, or, as it was called at that time, Cabal; it was a
mere coincidence that the latter word happened to be formed by the initials of those who
composed it: Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale. But this committee
did not represent any settled policy; indeed, its members were actuated by very different
views and interests. Some were Catholics, others were Protestants; they were, in fact, merely
individuals who were able to offer advice to the king more freely than any one else. It was the
King, and not the Cabal, who was responsible in 1668 for the triple alliance between England,
Holland and Sweden against France.

And yet, sending Sir William Temple to negotiate the alliance, Charles was acting against
the personal inclinations. He was not at all sorry that Louis XIV should attack the Spanish
Netherlands and thus threaten the Dutch, though he thought that a Protestant Alliance would
induce Parliament to give him increased grants and increased power. But when this did not
happen he had no hesitation in concluding, for a large sum down and an annual pension,
the secret Treaty of Dover with France and an undertaking not only to declare himself a Roman
Catholic but to do his best to help Louis to win the Spanish Netherlands (1670). Only the
Roman Catholic members of the Cabal knew of this treaty; their colleagues, who were
themselves not very partial to the Dutch, were hoodwinked by a sham treaty which omitted
the clause referring to the king's conversion.

It is never difficult to find a pretext for war, and in 1672 England, still jealous of trade
rivalry and still resenting the disgrace, declared war in alliance with France against Holland.
Almost at the same time, in order to secure toleration for the Roman Catholics, the King
published a Declaration of Indulgence to all Dissenters, thus overriding an Act of Parliament
by his dispensing power. But, as Parliament had been prorogued in 1670, there was no
opportunity to test opinion, and preparations for war fully occupied public attention.

But little was gained in that war, because James, Duke of York, the King's brother, could
only claim a doubtful victory on a sea-fight off Southwold; but on land the French were
before the English. The Dutch were to fall back on Amsterdam, and they had only saved
themselves when they opened the dykes. In their extremity they called to the head of affairs
the Young Prince of Orange, William III, nephew of the English King. He was a young man at
this time, only just of age; but he was brave, cool, intrepid. He became popular.

It was full seven years before this war ended in a treaty of peace made at Nimeguen. The
war was very unpopular with the Englishmen. Rumours as to the secret clauses of the French
alliance only increased their dislike of fighting with Catholics against Protestants. This change
in popular opinion was clearly shown in the Parliament which Charles's want of money
compelled him to reassemble in 1673. Not only was he obliged to withdraw the Declaration of
Indulgence, but the Houses passed a Test Act which prevented any non-member of the Church
of England from holding office under the Crown. The immediate consequence was the break-
up of the Cabal and the resignation of James, the Duke of York, a Roman Catholic, from the
command of the navy. The Duke of York, the King's brother, was heir to the throne, and after
the death of his first wife, the daughter of the Earl of Clarendon, he was married to Mary of
Modena, a Catholic Princess. With the Church party so powerful in Parliament as we have
seen, toleration was out of the question. But while the Duke of York was a Roman Catholic,
his children were Protestants. When William of Orange came to England and saw the Duke's
elder daughter Mary, he fell in love and they married. We shall see by-and-by what came of
that marriage and why it is never to be forgotten.

They married in 1667. Perhaps, it was this popularity of a Protestant alliance that induced
Titus Oates, a convert of the Jesuits from Nonconformity, to come forward with a story of a
Popish plot to kill the King and to put James, the Duke of York, on the throne. Englishmen were only too willing to believe the worst that could be told them about Roman Catholics, and, as usual in such cases, they were soon told all they wanted to hear. A curious outcome of the excitement caused by the plot was the impeachment of Danby by the House of Commons; no one was a stauncher with Holland, everyone was eager for his removal. The removal was brought about by revelation on Danby's secret negotiations with Louis for a pension for Charles in order that he might not need to call a Parliament. The outburst of popular fury, when Oates and his imitators invented their plots, induced Lord Shaftsbury and the "country party", as his supporters were called, to bring in an Exclusion Bill\(^\text{16}\) (1679) to prevent the Duke of York, as a Roman Catholic, from succeeding to the throne. Before the Bill could be read a third time Parliament was dissolved, but not before it had passed the famous Act of Habeas Corpus, which secured personal liberty by giving every unconvicted prisoner the right to demand a trial or bail within twenty days of his imprisonment.\(^\text{17}\)

Shaftsbury's friends (the Whigs\(^\text{18}\)) immediately petitioned the King to reassemble the Parliament, while the court party (the Tories\(^\text{19}\)), led by Halifax, expressed their abhorrence of such interference with the royal prerogative. The "petitioners" gained their point, but only to see the Exclusion Bill rejected by the "abhorrers" in the Lords (1680). Once more, the following year, the Bill was passed by Parliament, but by this time public opinion had veered round to the King's side, and he was able to stop any further progress by a dissolution. Shaftesbury too recognised that belief in the plot had died out, and thought it prudent to retire to Holland.

The triumph of the Court party was complete when discovery of the Rye House Plot (1683) to murder the King and the Duke of York on their return ride from Newmarket led to the implications and execution of Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney, two of the Opposition

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\(^\text{16}\) This Bill was brought in to bar the heir, James II, from the ascension to the throne.

\(^\text{17}\) Habeas Corpus - the legal action, through which a prisoner can be released from unlawful detention, that is, detention lacking sufficient cause or evidence, passed in 1689 (from Lat. Habeas Corpus tuum - you have your body).

\(^\text{18}\) The term *Whig* originated during the times of Oliver Cromwell when it was used to refer derisively to a radical faction of the Scottish Covenanters who called themselves the "Kirk Party". It was then applied to Scottish presbyterian rebels who were against the King's episcopalian order in Scotland. It entered English political discourse during the Exclusion Bill crisis of 1678-1681 and applied to those opposed to the hereditary ascendance of the Catholic Duke of York, future James II, to the throne. The fervent Tory Samuel Johnson often cracked that "the first Whig was the Devil."

The Whigs supported the great aristocratic families, the Protestant Hanoverian succession and toleration for nonconformist Protestants (the "dissenters," such as Presbyterians). Later on, the Whigs drew support from the emerging industrial interests, newly-emerging bourgeoisie (manufacturers), wealthy merchants, while the Tories drew support from the landed interests and the British Crown. The Whigs were originally also known as the "Country Party" (as opposed to the Tories, the "Court Party"). By the first half of the 19th century, however, the Whig political programme came to encompass not only the supremacy of parliament over the monarch and support for free trade, but Catholic emancipation, the abolition of slavery and, significantly, expansion of the franchise (suffrage).

\(^\text{19}\) The word “tory” derives from the Middle Irish word *tóraidhe*, modern Irish *tórai*: outlaw, robber, from the Irish word *tóir*, meaning "pursuit", since outlaws were "pursued men". The term was initially applied in Ireland to the isolated bands of guerrillas resisting Oliver Cromwell's nine-month 1649-1650 campaign in Ireland, who were allied with Royalists. During the Civil War the word Tories was applied to Cavaliers and gentry, who professed a traditionalist political philosophy, advocated monarchism, were usually of an Anglican or Catholic religious heritage, and were opposed to the radical liberalism of the Whig faction.

The Tory ethics can be summed up with the phrase God, King and Country. English Tories from the time of the Glorious Revolution up until the Reform Bill of 1832 were characterized by strong monarchist tendencies, support of the Church of England, and hostility to reform, while the Tory Party was an actual organization which held power intermittently throughout the same period. The term remains in occasional use to refer to the modern Conservatives that evolved from this party.
leaders. It is most improbable that either Russell or Sidney knew anything about the Rye House Plot, but they were certainly not believers in the doctrine of non-resistance. Sidney's conviction was obtained largely by his republican (though unpublished) writings.

"To give any sufficient idea of the miseries of Scotland in this merry reign," Ch. Dickens writes, "would occupy a hundred pages". The Scots would not have bishops, and were resolved to stand by their Solemn League and Covenant, and such cruelties were inflicted upon them, that the blood of any man could run cold. Ferocious dragoons galloped through the country to punish the peasants for deserting the churches; sons were hanged up at their father's doors for refusing to disclose where their fathers were concealed; wives were tortured to death because they did not want to betray their husbands; people were taken out from their fields and gardens and shot on the public roads without trial; lighted matches were tied to the fingers of prisoners, and a most horrible torment called the Boot was invented, when the victim's legs were tortured with iron wedges. Witnesses were tortured as well as prisoners. All the prisons were full; all the gibbets were heavy with bodies; murder and plunder flourished in the whole country. In spite of all, the Covenanters were by no means to be dragged into churches and persisted in worshipping God as they thought right.

Archbishop Sharp always had aided and abetted these outrages. But once he was seen in his coach and six coming across the moor, by a body of men, headed by John Balfour. It was at the moment when the injuries of the Scottish people were at their height. The men cried that Heaven itself had delivered the Archbishop into their hands, and killed him with many wounds.

Now Charles II had an excuse for a greater army than the Parliament was willing to give him, he sent his son, the Duke of Monmouth, as commander-in-chief with the instruction to attack the Scottish rebels whenever he came up with them. Marching with four or five thousand, drawn up at Bothwell Bridge, by the river Clyde, which is on the Border, he soon dispersed them. Very soon James, the Duke of York, resided in Scotland as the King's representative, and he directed the dreadful cruelties against the Covenanters. After he had finished his activity there, the Duke of York returned to England and resumed his place at the Council, and his office as High Admiral.

On the second of February, 1685, Charles II fell down in a fit of apoplexy. In two days it became clear that his case was hopeless, and he was told so. He died on the 6th of February, in the 55th year of his age, and the twenty-fifth of his reign.

Comprehension questions

1. Christopher Wren's work.
2. The Cabal.
3. Charles II's maneuvers (or double-dealing) in the foreign policy.
4. Why was the war with Holland unpopular?
5. What was the Test Act?
7. The Whigs and the Tories.
8. The plight of Scotland. The Scottish uprising and its suppression.

63. ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLAND DURING THE REFORMATION AND BOURGEOIS REVOLUTION

The 16-17th cc. was the period of brisk capitalist development. The 17th c. went down in the history of England as the century of the bourgeois revolution, one of the earliest in the history of Europe. The capitalist way of production triumphed, and it influenced the
development of other countries of Europe and North America. It was combined with important events in the religious life of the country: the Reformation, the negation of Roman Catholicism, which implied the rejection of the centralized rule of Rome. Instead of it, Anglicanism asserted its dominance, with the centralized power of the English monarch and the aristocracy (absolute monarchy), independent of the Roman Catholic Church. Alongside with it, there was an expansion of Protestantism, which epitomized the creed of the nascent and developing bourgeoisie. The causes of these processes lay deep in the social and economic conditions, in the political life of the country, and the form it took was dictated by the level of England's economic, political and cultural development.

The Social Structure

The social structure of 17th-century England was topped by the king, the feudal nobility, the highest clergy, bishops and the like. Lower down, the next rung of the social ladder was occupied by the gentry, smaller landowners turned bourgeois in their interests and way of life, and the bourgeoisie, in its turn divided into three layers: the great city magnates, the middle merchant class and the petty bourgeoisie, small shop owners and the like. Still lower down were the workmen, some of them close to the petty workshop owners, and also enjoying some sort of property, others (in big centralized manufactories) working fifteen or more hours, deprived of political rights. In the countryside the yeomanry, freeholders (whose status implied almost actual ownership of land which they held on general grounds and could lease it if they wished), copyholders, holding their land for life, paying rent to the owner, paying when they came into it after their parents' death and even having to pay for it in labour if the owner so desired; leaseholders (anybody wishing to augment his holding could get some on lease for payment agreed upon for a certain term). Economically, the wealthy copyholders and freeholders whose lands were more or less extensive, constituted the yeomanry's top layers.

The lowest and poorest layers of the peasantry were the cotters, landless hired men exploited by the capitalist farmers, the gentry and the top layers of the yeomanry. The gentry were a sort of link between landowner and merchant for they exploited the land they possessed or leased, and the labourers they hired, organizing agricultural production along capitalist lines.

The first Stuart king, James I, directed persecution against the Puritans who were bearers of bourgeois-revolutionary ideology. The persecution, religious in form, was in fact a method of repression against political opponents. It was typical, since the opposition to the Stuart monarchy was not yet ripe for a definite political platform and was consequently clothed in religious garments.

The Puritans wanted the Anglican church to be purified of all remnants of Catholicism. They were Calvinist-type protestants, dissatisfied with the incompleteness of the Reformation that took the form of Anglicanism. They wanted it to reach completion. As the more or less wealthy layer of the population (middle class mostly), they made their convictions public late in the 16th c., when all hopes of Elizabeth's completing the Reformation collapsed. They were especially influential in the counties of East and South-East England where the traditions of Lollardism were still alive.

They assumed gravity of demeanour, dressed soberly in practical dark clothes, extolled the virtues of family life and frugal economy, wore no wigs or fancy curls but generally had their hair cropped closely (a custom that later earned them the nickname of Roundheads) and believed all forms of merrymaking but hymn-singing to be the very thing the Devil was most pleased with. All this may be an exaggerated account, but the more devout ones were certainly that way.

The Puritans wanted a "cheap" church, spoke against rich ornament and complexity of the church ritual, asserting the austere morality of early Christians. Yet it is clear, that they themselves differed from the Biblical ethics, as they extolled wealth and despised poverty. They believed that perversion of human nature, such qualities as sloth, pride, concupiscence,
etc. result in man's sinfulness. Man alone is to blame for his life situation, he rises to the level where it is able to determine himself, which may be a perverted, destructive self-determination. Protestants ignored the social causes of "sinfulness", the fact, that the primary cause of "human perversion" was the class divide of humanity in general, and the degradation of broad masses of labourers resulted from their intolerable social position, which they were unable to transgress.

There was another aspect to Puritanism, though, which made itself felt more and more as time went by: its bearers were aware of their historical significance as a class of bourgeoisie, destined to triumph over the decaying feudal figures of the past, and clothing this feeling in the religious terminology of the moment. They were heard to refer to themselves as God's chosen people with a mission to transact.

At the beginning of the Stuart reign Puritanism was no more than a religious trend differing from the Established church in certain details of worship. However, even then there was a "left wing" that was more in favour of Scottish Presbyterianism, with which they wanted to replace Anglicanism in England.

There were several sects, the two most prominent ones being the Presbyterians who wanted the church to be governed by church aldermen, presbyters, instead of bishops, and the Independents who wanted no centralization whatever and a complete independence of religious organizations. But all the Puritans had common political and constitutional theories that were to play an important role in the Bourgeois revolution, the main ideas being moderation ("moral purity", "ecclesiastical purity") and an almost unrestrained freedom of enterprise.

When the absolute monarchy was established by Henry VII, the first of the Tudors, it was welcomed by the merchants and the landed gentry as a rescue from the bloody feudal conflicts deadlocking the country, precluding any chance of bourgeois development. The merchants and the gentry, "the new nobles" were ready to give the crown every support and aid, so that no permanent army or any sort of paid bureaucratic service was wanted, soldiers being hired and paid out of the city coffers when those coffers' interests were at stake. After the thrifty, parsimonious and resourceful Henry VII, no Tudor had any superfluous income to make him independent of the moneyed nobles, for every Tudor could always rely upon the Parliament to vote the necessary supplies, and Elizabeth I is said to have always been on friendly terms with the London gold-smiths acting as bankers, ready to lend any sum - in reason of course. So the bourgeoisie supported monarchy as long as they wanted the crown's protection. But the other feudal component of monarchy was always there and when those feudal survivals came to be felt as obstacles while the bourgeoisie came to realize its economic power, they started getting impatient to feel the chains of absolute monarchy hindering the further progress of the country's bourgeois growth.

Elizabeth knew the value of support offered by the growing merchant class and spared no effort to promote the interests of trade and commerce (hence her struggle against Spanish rivalry on the seas).

When she died and James I was crowned (1603-1625) the situation was quite different. He came from Scotland where industry and foreign trade were practically undeveloped, and the merchant class not half so influential as in London. He was lavish, for, being unused to the glamour of the English court and the country's apparent: wealth by contrast with Scottish comparative poverty, he committed errors of judgement and so very soon had to approach the Parliament with money requests; where Elizabeth took things as a matter of course and thought little of pompous speech-making and the putting on of airs, he kept voicing his royal theories of the divine right of kings, etc. Where Elizabeth was protective, James proved to be obtuse, paying no attention to the suppression of Spanish marine power, doing little or nothing to uphold the power of the English fleet. He made peace with Spain that did not promise the London merchants any profit for it did not stipulate their right of trading with the colonies of
Spain. No wonder the king made enemies of the powerful London merchants, while he made friends of those merchants’ enemy: he became friendly with the Spanish king.

Thus neglecting the interests of the capital, historically gaining power, James Stuart had a Parliament opposition formed against him, growing during his reign and coming to a head during the reign of his son, Charles I (1625-1649). Both had to dissolve their Parliaments more than once, mostly because they tried to consolidate their absolute power and build up a new state apparatus.

Attempts to create a standing army and state bureaucracy involved taxation, and the taxes had to be voted, while the merchants were ready to fight for their purses fiercely. In 1628 the Parliament opposition, uniting the bourgeoisie and the gentry, scored a victory: the king was made to sign the Petition of Right, limiting his power. It formulated their demands that no one should be arrested or kept in prison without being charged with a definite crime, that no one should be compelled to yield any property without a common consent to confiscate it by an Act of Parliament. Charles I had to sign the Petition as he needed money quite badly.

He never meant to abide by the Petition, though, and when in 1629 the opposition-ruled Parliament voted for the King Tonnage and Poundage, customary royal sources of revenue, to be one year only instead of for life (as was the custom), Charles dismissed the Parliament and did not summon it again for eleven years (1629-1640). He also arrested and imprisoned some of the leaders of the opposition. During the eleven years of rule without Parliament Charles and his counsellors were desperate to invent some sources of revenue. The wars were finished, but everyday state expenses had to be met, so Charles went all lengths to fill his coffers. For example, he revived the Forest Law, forcing the owners of lands that had anciently been royal forest, to pay for their claims of ownership (many nobles were alienated from the crown in that way, for they hated to have to pay for what they had always thought was theirs); baronetcies were sold; new monopolies were sold; new customs imposed; finally an old tax, the so called ship money, was revived. The King meant from thenceforth to impose it as a regular and universal tax. The ship money was ostensibly intended for the benefit of the navy, which was really badly in want of repairs. All those steps ought to have made the King independent of the Parliament.

In 1636 some of the leaders of the opposition refused to pay the tax; the example was followed by wide masses of the people, but the movement was suppressed, and the tax was levied again. The king’s archbishop, Laud organized a high church party, small and isolated at first but quite influential later. During the eleven years of no Parliament, Laud thrust his high church, a sort of exaggerated Anglican Church, on everyone, and Puritans were fiercely persecuted. Many of them emigrated to America founding colonies in what is now New England, Massachusetts, Connecticut etc.

Persuaded by Archbishop Laud, Charles thrust his high church prayer book on Scotland where Presbyterianism was the prevailing religion. The Scots took it as an infringement on their religious and political independence; the Scottish nobles were afraid that the land they had got during the Reformation would be taken away while the bourgeoisie and the people hated the idea of religious unification with England. They were sure it was the first step of the English to lord it over them in the long run. So the Scots bound themselves by a solemn Covenant to fight against Catholicism and against every attempt to infringe upon their religious and political independence. They rebelled and rose for their independence; they were a success, and in 1640 they occupied the northern part of the country, Northumberland and Durham, and seeing their army threaten to move further Charles hastened to make peace with them at any cost, and the cost was high enough; Charles had not only to promise not to interfere with the Scottish political and religious liberties, but as a condition for the Scottish army's withdrawal had to pay the costs of the campaign. His credit in the city was exhausted, he did not see where he could borrow any more money to pay the Scots, so the only way out was to convene Parliament and to get it to vote new taxes.
Enclosures

Under Henry VII, Henry VIII and Elizabeth Tudor there was a growing number of enclosures, i.e. seizures of common lands by rich landowners and displacement of peasants from them. The process of enclosure was accompanied by force, resistance, and bloodshed, resulted in unemployment and destitution, as well as decreased domestic grain production, which made England more susceptible to famine and high grain prices. At the same time, it sped up the capitalist production in England and, alongside with British colonialism, determined the fact that England has rapidly become the industrial and banking centre of the world. Enclosures remain among the most controversial areas of agricultural and economic history in England.

"England is not a free people, till the poor that have no land, have a free allowance to dig and labour the commons..."
Gerard Winstanley, 1649

The feudal relations in agriculture retarded the development of industry and kept England within the limiting status of an agrarian country. The dispossession of the common land proved the fastest, but at the same time harshest, way from the old, traditional, agrarian society to an industrial system. Similar laws were enacted in the Netherlands, France, Spain, albeit on a smaller scale. In France the English agrarian reform was one of the sources of the physiocratic theory, or the economic policy of laissez faire. Those countries, which did not opt for enclosures — Russia, Austria — did not embark on the path of classical capitalistic production like England's.

20 Another inspiration for Physiocrats came from China's economic system - then the largest in the world. Most Chinese were divided into four occupations with scholar-bureaucrats, who were also agrarian landlords, on top and merchants on the bottom because they did not produce but only distribute goods made by others. Leading physiocrats like François Quesnay were avid Confucianists that advocated China's agrarian policies (Derk Bodde).
Rich landowners used their control of state processes to appropriate public land (common land, or commons) for their private benefit. Once enclosed, it could be used only by one owner, and it ceased to be common land. By the 19th century, unenclosed commons had become largely restricted to rough pasture in mountainous areas and to relatively small parts of the lowlands. Some historians argue that enclosure (when all the sophistications are allowed for) was a plain enough case of class robbery. Much of the peasantry of England as a class were destroyed. Enclosures involved a loss of common rights and could result in the destruction of whole villages. The enclosed lands were used for sheep herding and capitalist farming, which required few labourers. So unemployment was rampant, and peasants, evicted from their land, turned into vagabonds, beggars. It will not be much of an overstatement to say that English capitalism was virtually built on human bones; and it is not by chance that Thomas More, the famous humanist, writer, Chancellor of Exchequer during Henry VIII's reign, wrote: “your sheep that were wont to be so meek and tame, and so small eaters, now, as I heard say, be become so great devourers and so wild, that they eat up, and swallow down the very men themselves.”

The legislation was adopted, which prescribed cruel punishment for persons accused of vagrancy and collecting alms without the permission of the authorities. They were whipped, branded, and committed to temporary slavery; if they escaped and were caught, they were condemned to perpetual slavery, and if they were caught for the third time, they were executed. The main victims of this repression were peasants driven from their land by enclosures. The first bloody law was Henry VII’s statute of 1495, and the statutes of 1536 and 1547 were especially cruel.

In 1576 a law was enacted establishing workhouses, where people lived in sordid conditions and worked like slaves for a bowl of gruel. The Act on the Punishment of Vagabonds and Sturdy Paupers, passed by Parliament in 1597, definitively established the law on paupers and vagabonds and remained in force unchanged until 1814. However, despite their cruelty, the bloody laws could hardly prevent the growth of vagrancy and pauperism.

The enclosures helped to create crowds of wage labourers, ready for capitalist exploitation, on the field of a capitalistic farmer. The first manufactures were not yet equipped with machines, they were based on brawn — human power. The developing capitalism demanded lots of cheap labour. So the evicted peasants, dispossessed monastic population, etc. became humble proletarians, accepting hired work under the worst conditions, ready to toil at manufactures 12 hours a day for a mere pittance. Besides, ship-owners had to recruit sailors for sailing their ships, where labour and treatment were extremely hard. Peasants with their own plots of land would not go there for love or money. So, many peasants were dispossessed of land, and the most obstinate of them were destroyed.

As mentioned above, more often than not enclosures resulted in conversion of land use from arable to pasture for sheep-farming. Some of them were, however, used for arable farming. Some were reclaimed for arable farming later, but it was capitalistic arable farming and some of those who had been ousted from their lands, returned to them in the new capacity of wage-laborers, hired by the new type of capitalist farmer to cultivate land leased by big landowners. Marsh lands were drained, agricultural implements were becoming more sophisticated, the growing inner markets acting as a stimulus for the extension and more intensive exploitation of arable lands. Land was becoming a source of profit. But as formerly on the grounds of feudal right, land was royal property as far as the law was concerned: it was held from the king - true, not for knighthly service any longer, the holder was expected to pay for the right in coin.

*Rise of Industries, Trade and Finance*

In the 17th century the industrial development was coming to the fore, working changes in the country's economic life and in the people's minds. Old industries were growing in scope, for those industries coal and machines were needed, thus new industries were developing as
Popular branches of industry included production of beer, glass, soap, which demanded large quantities of coal. Coal-mining was assuming larger and larger proportions, involving pumps and machinery. Some economic historians, estimating England's share in the European industrial production of the time, say that by 1640 England had mined four fifths of all European coal. It also stimulated the growth of shipbuilding, as most of the coal was carried by ships.

Artisans from other countries were encouraged to immigrate, new manufacturing centres were springing up, quickly growing to be a feature of the country's economic development. They were various, both of the large capitalist manufacture type and small manufacturing shops. This diversity of form in industrial enterprises was only natural for this transitional period.

When Henry VII disallowed the nobles to keep huge followings of retainers and Henry VIII dissolved the monasteries, great numbers of people were left to their own devices. Later on many of them were absorbed by the growing industries of the towns — and what a lot of bread, meat, vegetables had to be produced to feed them.

The expropriation and eviction of a part of the agricultural population not only set free for industrial capital the labourers, their means of subsistence and material for labour; it also created the home-market.

The new industries were mostly created in the form of centralized manufactures, while the old ones, like the production of woollen cloth, might be carried on in scattered shops and craftsmen's homes, though the cloth industry as such developed along capitalist lines, for it involved the control of the merchant over the individual weavers who could not alone command the necessary supplies of raw materials on the one hand and market contacts on the other. The clothiers, or wool manufacturers might possibly be considered the fathers of English capitalism in general.

English Colonialism and Principles of Foreign Policy

England perhaps has precedence over any other country in the world for acquiring colonies and using their resources. Many maintain, that the British wealth and power were built on the exploited labour and natural resources in lands colonized by the British. The colonies had become the major prerequisite for starting the English Industrial Revolution. Without her colonies, England would not have had enough initial capital for the modernization. The industrialization could have been by far less brisk and spectacular, or it would have lasted much longer.

In general, there were two principal patterns of colonization: that of the Catholic powers (Spain, Portugal) and that of the Protestant ones. Despite the initial atrocities, used to crush the resistance, the former basically got on together with the aboriginals, learned a lot from the evidence - researched by scholars such as Amartya Sen, Nicholas Dirks, Mike Davis and Mahmood Mamdani, Caroline Elkins and Walter Rodney - shows that European colonialism brought with it not good governance and freedom, but impoverishment, bloodshed, repression and misery. Joseph Conrad, no radical, described it as "a flabby, pretending, weak-eyed devil of a rapacious and pitiless folly". Good governance? More famines were recorded in the first century of the British Raj than in the previous 2,000 years, including 17-20 million deaths from 1896 to 1900 alone. While a million Indians a year died from avoidable famines, taxation subsidised colonial wars, and relief was often deliberately denied as surplus grain was shipped to England.

Tolerance? The British empire reinforced strict ethnic/religious identities and governed through these divisions. As with the partition of India when 10 million were displaced, arbitrarily drawn boundaries between "tribes" in Africa resulted in massive displacement and bloodshed.

Freedom and fair play? In Kenya, a handful of white settlers appropriated 12,000 square miles and pushed 1.25 million native Kikuyus to 2,000 restricted square miles. Resistance was brutally crushed through interment in detention camps, torture and massacres. Some 50,000 Kikuyus were massacred and 300,000 interned to put down the Mau Mau rebellion by peasants who wanted to farm their own land. A thousand peaceful protesters were killed in the Amritsar massacre of 1919."
them, turned them to Christianity. In South America colonists almost did not change the lifestyle of the Indian village-communities. They hardly restricted the trade with colonies.

The latter were incompatible with aboriginals, they just destroyed them (such was the fate of North American Indians, Australians, Tasmanians, etc.). In other colonies they imposed their rule: political institutions, economic mechanisms, culture and ideology, - carried through by puppet governments. They restricted the trade with colonies and practised protectionism (see below the tactics of indirect rule, the Navigation Acts).

The much-favoured tactics of the English colonization were settlements of colonizers and driving indigents off their lands. We may say, that England began as a settlers’ country, with the Anglo-Saxons coming to the island to stay in the mid-5th century and eventually ousting the indigenous Britons, driving them to northern France (Bretagne), Wales, Cornwall and Cumbria. The same policy was conducted in Celtic Ireland, where the population was greatly diminished and the local language fell into desuetude.

And the same was done by the English settlers in America, Australia, Canada, South Africa, etc. J. Sakai writes: “What made North America so desirable to these people? Land. What lured Europeans to leave their homes and cross the Atlantic was the chance to share in conquering Indian land. At that time there was a crisis in England over land ownership and tenancy due to the rise of capitalism.”

The other tactics were indirect rule (particularly in parts of Africa and Asia), whereby external, military, and tax control were operated by the colonizers, while most every other aspect of life was left to local comprador aristocracies who had sided with the British. Thus the problem of domination by a tiny group of foreigners of huge populations was solved. The appointment of governors (or governor-generals, not to mention the Viceroy of India, or of Ireland) was the prerogative of the British Crown, which it selected from the representatives of the British aristocracy.

Another important principle of the British colonial rule was divide et impera ("divide and conquer"), that is maintaining and cultivating the British state power by inciting hostility between various tribes and peoples of the Empire. Representatives of the ruling elite pitted one community against another in order to maintain control over their territories with a minimal number of imperial forces. For example, for centuries the British Crown has deliberately driven a wedge between Catholics and Protestants, the Irish and the British in Ireland, and supported the political fragmentation of India (more than 600 feudal principalities), actively pitting one principality against another, with an almost complete lack of economic relations between them, as well as the caste system with all its prohibitions and restrictions.

By planting the imperial administration, the imposition of high taxes, the change of the judicial and financial systems, using cheap labour, the metropolis effectively tapped its colonies for their resources: first by direct plunder of riches, works of art, natural resources and other valuables, later by the policy of protectionism, under which the national (traditional) production of colonies was bullied and suppressed, while the goods of the metropolis were, on the contrary, pushed on the local markets. As a result of that policy, colonies were transformed into the raw material appendages of the metropolis: "I would not allow the colonists to make even a hob-nail for themselves" - said Lord Chatham, when head of the British government in North America. The Governor-General of India, Lord Bentinck reported in 1834: “…the bones of weavers bleach the plains of India", as a result of Britain's protectionist policy, which at first capitalized on the highly-skilled Indian textiles, by selling them in Europe and then, having acquired their know-how and turning to machine mass production, banned the Indian goods in Britain and even on the local market, flooded India with their own textiles and ruined the local artisans. The same happened with other old industries: shipbuilding, metalworking, glass-blowing, paper industry, and many crafts. The outcome of the policy of the colonialists was the mass impoverishment of the local
population, unemployment of an incredible size, as a result - famine, diseases and high mortality in the "favorite diamond in the crown of Her Majesty." With such an approach it is not a surprise that the parts of India, which for the longest time had been ruled by the British, ended up the poorest: Bengal, being a very rich and prosperous province before the arrival of the British, after 187 years of their rule, accompanied, as we are assured, by the energetic attempts by the British to improve living conditions and to teach people the 'art of self-government', became a miserable mass of the poor, starving and dying people.

At first Britain followed mercantilist policies designed to strengthen the home economy, so the colonies were allowed to trade only with the mother country. By the mid-19th century, however, the British Empire gave up mercantilism and trade restrictions and introduced the principle of laissez faire (free trade), upheld by Adam Smith, with a few restrictions or tariffs. However, with the economy of the colonies maintained at a level much more backward than in the mother country and with colonies being bound to the metropolis by trade restrictions, the result was that the exchange of goods between the colony and the metropolis was lopsided (specialized and limited). In the colonies it was focused on a narrow range of products (bananas, coffee, etc.) or on the extraction and export of raw materials. It was a highly unequal exchange, too. For example, quoting the American economist Victor Perlo, the developing countries received 5 cents for a pound of sugar and 7 cents per pound of bananas, at the same time the sugar was sold in developed countries for 40 cents and bananas for 45 cents. With the transportation costs from 1 pound to 5 cents, it is estimated that the cost of 30 cents for each pound of sugar and 33 cents for each pound of bananas settles in the pockets of the imperialist bourgeoisie. This cost is just gratuitously transferred from the periphery to the metropolis of world capitalism.

The standard of living of the population of colonies was much lower than the standard of living of the inhabitants of the metropolis, and their social and political status was incomparable with the privileged guarantees of the metropolitan nation, there was also a significant limitation of the "natives" in their social and political rights. At the same time, the imperialist capital used high profits flowing from the periphery to "bribe" their own social rank and file, their working class and low-income strata, by paying them larger wages, providing for them social welfare, etc. As the British economist John Atkinson Hobson put it, "the ruling state has used its provinces, colonies and dependencies in order to enrich its ruling class and to bribe its lower classes into acquiescence"

An important feature of colonialism was its racist quality. Racism was rationalized as a theory of “higher” and “lower” races and curiously combined with liberal ideology. A. de Tocqueville in his book Democracy in America shows that the inevitable expulsion of Negroes and Indians from the civilized society was not because the colonizers questioned the idea of universal human rights, but because this idea could not be applied to creatures incapable of rational thinking. The mass extermination of people was done with full respect for the laws of humanism. John Locke, the founder of the theory of civil society, who developed the idea of the "inalienable rights", was not only an active supporter of slavery and helped to draw up the Constitution of the Southern U.S. states, but also invested his savings in the Royal African Company - the monopoly of the slave trade in Britain.

The general principles of foreign policy in Britain may be reduced to three:

**Balance of power**. Britain's influence on the Continent of Europe rested snugly upon the doctrine of the balance of power. In those days, the Continental Great Powers were Germany, Austria — Hungary, Russia, France. "Balance of power" meant to Britain the equal division of these Powers so that she could, at a given time, exert a decisive influence;

Precluding the domination of other powers on the European continent as well as on the approaches to India (that is, the land and sea routes leading from Europe to India and back). In the second half of the 20th c. the interpretation of this principle has been extended to the situation in Europe and Asia in general;
Preservation of the British rule on the seas (after World War II – the Western (Anglo-Saxon) dominance of the seas).

Colonization of Ireland

For centuries British monarchs had unsuccessfully been trying to subdue Ireland. The English colonization of Ireland was carried out by military expansion, accompanied by razing towns and settlements, buildings and means of production, confiscation of Irish land property, executions and expulsion of the Irish to the West Indies as plantation slaves, forced pauperization, ghettoization of the indigenous people in the areas of Connaught and Claire. All these actions caused the degradation of agricultural Ireland [Samoylo 1954].

In 1603, in the reign of Elizabeth I, the Ulster Irish surrendered to Lord Mountjoy and nine counties in northern Ireland would become available for colonization. In James I’s reign, under the administration of Mountjoy’s successor, Arthur Chichester, a determined effort had been made for the general introduction of a purely English system of government, justice, and property. Every vestige of the old Celtic constitution of the country was rejected as "barbarous." [Green 1896: Vol.V]

Ever since the first mass famine, which occurred in the 16th century, induced famines in Ireland became systematic. They were the result of the tactics of eviction of the indigenous population from their lands, which took the form of specific warfare: the English destroyed
the crops, stole the cattle, took the property, burnt buildings, physically exterminated those who had not fled into the forests and mountains.

The English poet of the Elizabethan time, Edmund Spenser, who had participated in crushing the revolt in Ireland and was granted lands seized from the rebels, wrote in his treatise A View of the Present State of Ireland (1596): "...notwithstanding that the same was a most rich and plentiful country, full of corn and cattle, that you would have thought they should have been able to stand long, yet ere one year and a half they were brought to such wretchedness as that any stony heart would have rued the same. Out of every corner of the woods and glens they came creeping forth upon their hands, for their legs could not bear them. They looked like anatomies of death; they spake like ghosts crying out of their graves; they did eat the dead carrions, happy where they could find them.<...>in short space there were none almost left, and a most populous and plentiful country suddenly left void of man and beast.” Though Spenser did advocate the English policy in Ireland, he described the situation there truthfully.

In a 1600 letter Arthur Chichester stated "a million swords will not do them so much harm as one winter's famine". While these tactics were not initially devised by Chichester, he carried them out ruthlessly, gaining a hate-figure status among the Irish. The famine had lasted for two decades and caused the revolt of northern clans, who rebelled against the English rule in Ireland.

The revolt, called the Nine Years' War (1594 to 1603), was led by the chieftains Hugh O'Neill and Red Hugh O'Donnell. At the height of the conflict (1600–1601) more than 18,000 soldiers were fighting in the English army in Ireland. By contrast, the English army assisting the Dutch during the Eighty Years' War was never more than 12,000 strong at any one time. Chichester's tactics included a “scorched earth” policy. He encircled O'Neill's forces with garrisons, starving the Earl's troops. The rebellion was crushed. The English “scorched earth” tactics were especially harsh on the civilian population, who died in great numbers both from direct targeting and from famine [Lennon 1994]. However, the Nine Years' War alarmed the English, who could not afford to continue the war any longer. The tactics of induced famines were abandoned for a while, and the subsequent Plantation of Ulster (which was basically the same colonization and eviction of the indigenous people) was carried out less cruelly. However, the early seventeenth century earmarked the military and political defeat of Gaelic Ireland.

But Oliver Cromwell's occupation of Ireland in 1649 was even more harsh. Eight years before, in 1641, there was the Irish Rebellion – the national Irish rebellion, involving broad masses of population. Initially there was a coup, initiated by the Irish gentry, which developed into a conflict between oppressed native Irish Catholics on one side, and English and Scottish Protestant settlers on the other. This conflict is known as the Irish Confederate Wars. Ireland got under the control of the Irish Confederate Catholics, who in 1649 signed an alliance with the English Royalist party, which had been defeated in the English Civil War (1642–1651). Cromwell reconquered Ireland on behalf of Parliament and suppressed the Irish in retaliation for their support of the Royalists and the Catholics, as well as for their intimidation.

As an aftermath of Cromwell's Irish campaign, even those Irish, who fought with the English, were deprived of land and banished to the barren deserted region of Connaught in the west of the island — as provided by the Act for the Settlement of Ireland of 1652. They were doomed to starvation. By May 1, 1654 if any of deported Irish had been caught outside Connaught, they were subject to death penalty. The Irish called that act "Hell or Connaught." 50,000 Irish, including women and children, were sold as indentured servants to the West.

That Spenser could seriously advocate that the English deliberately starve the Irish population makes the bitter irony of Jonathan Swift's satirical essay A Modest Proposal (1729) even more devastating. Swift suggests that impoverished Irish might ease their economic troubles by selling their children as food for rich gentlemen and ladies. This satirical hyperbole mocks the heartless attitudes towards the poor and the British policy in Ireland in general.

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Indies (especially Barbados, where their descendants are known as Redlegs) [O'Callaghan, 2000].

The impact of his campaign on the Irish population was unquestionably severe, although there is no consensus as to the magnitude of the loss of life. Estimates of the drop in the Irish population resulting from the parliamentarian campaign vary from 15-25% (P. Lenihan) to half (R.N. Salaman, http://www.historyireland.com/volumes/volume16/issue6/letters/?id=114206) and even five-sixths (J.P. Prendergast). According to A.L. Morton, in 1641 Ireland was home to more than 1.5 million Irish, while in 1652 there were only 850 thousand people, 150 thousand of them being English and Scottish colonists. The Irish people had lost up to 50-56% of its population since Cromwell landed in Ireland in 1649 [Morton 1950]. According to Encyclopaedia Britannica (11th ed.), in eleven years, 616,000 inhabitants of Irish descent had perished.

Economically, the colonization by the English was a disaster for Ireland. Once colonization took firm root, the English quickly depleted Irish resources. Already in the times of Queen Elizabeth I Ireland was subjected to spoliation 23. It became a source of cheap food and raw materials for Britain, which it has to remain to this day. From J.R. Green's A History of the English People we learn, that the colonialists received enormous profits in Ireland, due to the overexploitation of natural resources and the use of cheap labor and runaway convicts. Those profits exceeded three times anything that could be obtained from the same estate in England. In order to make quick profits, oak groves were cut down with the utmost haste; forests burnt to obtain coal required for smelting iron. While its processing and transportation cost £ 10, the ready product was sold in London for £ 17. The last smelter at Kerry was extinguished only after all the forests were destroyed.

The legislation, imposed on the Irish, openly protected the English producers. At first animal husbandry began to develop there, by 1600 up to 500 thousand head of cattle had been exported to England annually. When it became clear that the export entailed falling prices for agricultural products and reduction of rent, a special act was passed in 1666, which prohibited the export of Irish cattle, meat and dairy products. This act inflicted a cruel blow on the Irish animal husbandry. When an attempt was made to pass from meat production and dairy cattle-breeding to sheep herding, another act followed, which prohibited the export of wool abroad and allowed the import of raw wool in England only. Subsequently, the Irish textile industry was destroyed because it was a dangerous rival to the British [Morton 1950: 222].

Colonization continued into the next century: in 1691 in London, a number of laws were passed divesting the Catholics and Protestants, who did not belong to the Church of England, of religious freedoms, the right to education, the right to vote and the right to public service. As a result of colonization the ethnic picture of the Irish population has changed: the population of Englishmen and Scots began to form the Protestant managerial elite. The Protestant ruling class was established in Ireland. In 1775 the Irish Catholics owned only 5% of the land. Their children were forbidden from Catholic education, there was a limited number of Irish in trade, only the field of agriculture was left for them, dominated by

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23 John R. Green in his famous History of the English People writes: “In 1610 the pacific and conservative policy <…> was abandoned for a vast policy of spoliation. Two-thirds of the north of Ireland was declared to have been confiscated to the Crown by the part that its possessors had taken in a recent effort at revolt; and the lands which were thus gained were allotted to new settlers of Scotch and English extraction. In its material results the Plantation of Ulster was undoubtedly a brilliant success. Farms and homesteads, churches and mills, rose fast amidst the desolate wilds of Tyrone. The Corporation of London undertook the colonization of Derry, and gave to the little town the name which its heroic defence has made so famous. The foundations of the economic prosperity which has raised Ulster high above the rest of Ireland in wealth and intelligence were undoubtedly laid in the confiscation of 1610. Nor did the measure meet with any opposition at the time save that of secret discontent. The evicted natives withdrew sullenly to the lands which had been left them by the spoiler, but all faith in English justice had been torn from the minds of the Irish, and the seed had been sown of that fatal harvest of distrust and disaffection which was to be reaped through tyranny and massacre in the age to come”.

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crippling forms of exploitation. Actually, Ireland was an important source of the English capital accumulation and the Industrial Revolution in England.

The appearance of a large number of land-hungry Irish peasants was the main cause of the terrible famine that began in Ireland in the 1740s and recurred a century later, in 1845-1849, due to the eviction of small tenants from their land (the Irish "enclosures") the abolition of the Corn Laws, and potato diseases. As a result, Ireland lost about 1.5 million people through death of starvation, and mass emigration across the Atlantic Ocean began, mainly to the United States. From 1846 to 1851, 1.5 million people left Ireland. Migration has become a permanent feature in the historical development of Ireland and its people. As a result, only in the years 1841-1851, the island's population decreased by 30%. In the years to follow, Ireland was also rapidly losing its population: while in 1841 the population of the island was 8 million 178 thousand people, in 1901 it was 4 million 459 thousand. The corresponding data from Wikipedia as of August 2011 are 6.53 million (1841) and 3.22 million (1901) people, without Ulster.

It is also interesting to note the population differences between Ireland and England. Before the conquest by the English the population of Ireland was comparable to the population of England. In 1785, Ireland's population was 4,019,000 compared to England's 7,900,000. Today, Ireland's population including Ulster (1.7 million) is about 6 million while Britain's population is 58 million (England – 50 million, Scotland – 5 million and Wales – 3 million).

**Trade Monopolies**

The capitalist development was handicapped by the existing guild restrictions, prohibiting, for instance, spinning and weaving in one shop, or restricting the number of apprentices employed, etc. But it was still more greatly hindered by the Tudor government system of patents and monopolies which not infrequently was practised as a source of revenue. The royal charters allowing the manufacture and sale, or only the sale, of a certain product, were granted to individuals or companies, "for a consideration" or as a cheap way of recompense for service and contributions. The monopoly right thus obtained, immensely enriched the person enjoying it since any price could be got for a product that no one else was allowed to produce and sell, and it was hugely detrimental both to the buyers' purse and the country's industry. This medieval system was also an obstacle in the development of capitalist commercial contacts with other countries. The trade companies organized late in the 15th and early in the 16th c. monopolized foreign trade privileges: the Merchant Adventurers exported cloth to Northern Europe, the Staple Merchants had an ancient monopoly for wool trade, etc.

In the 17th c., as well as at the end of the 16th, the so called chartered companies were springing up, mostly of London merchants and they were bitterly fighting for prior rights, concentrating the foreign trade of the country predominantly in London and contributing to an increase in the political weight and power of the big London merchants.

**The Navigation Acts**

Between the 16th and 17th centuries England upheld the economic theory of mercantilism. Mercantilists argued that nations should behave like merchants, competing with each other for profit. Accordingly, governments should support industry by enacting laws designed to keep labour and other production costs low, and exports (sales to foreign countries) high. In this way the nation could achieve what was called a "favourable balance of trade". Favourable balance of trade described a situation in which exports exceeded imports. The excess, which as like profits to a merchant, would result in an increase of the nation's supply of gold and silver. And, as most people agreed in those days, the true measure of a nation's wealth was its hoard of gold or silver. To achieve favourable trade balances, England sought to acquire colonies. Colonies, it was thought, could provide the "mother-country" with cheap labour, raw materials and a market for its manufactured goods. In an effort to attain these goals in their

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American colonies, the British enacted the Navigation Acts (1651-1696). The Navigation Acts protected English industry by prohibiting the colonies from producing certain goods like hats, woollen products, wrought iron. The laws also listed certain "enumerated articles", such as tobacco, cotton, and sugar, which were to be shipped from the colonies only to England or other English colonies and could not be sold to buyers in countries other than England. The Navigation Acts largely served to undermine the Dutch role as maritime mediators: goods were to be imported into England only in English ships or in ships of the country from which the goods originally came. This and the sympathy of the Dutch with the Stuarts soon brought about war with Holland.

Resentment towards the Navigation Acts was very great in America. They were regarded as one of the principal causes of the Revolutionary War.

The Navigation Acts formed the basis for British overseas trade for nearly 200 years and were repealed in 1849. By reserving British colonial trade to British shipping, they may have significantly assisted in the growth of London as a major entrepôt for American colonial wares at the expense of Dutch cities. The maintenance of a certain level of merchant shipping and of trade generally also facilitated a rapid increase in the size and quality of the Royal Navy, which eventually (after the Anglo-Dutch Alliance of 1689 limited the Dutch navy to three-fifths of the size of the English one) led to Britain becoming a global power until the mid 20th century.

The East India Company in the 17-18th c. and Indian Colonization

"In the middle of the seventeenth century, Asia still had a far more important place in the world than Europe." So wrote J. Pirenne in his History of the Universe, published in Paris in 1950. He added, "The riches of Asia were incomparably greater than those of the European states. Her industrial techniques showed a subtlety and a tradition that the European handicrafts did not possess. And there was nothing in the more modern methods used by the traders of the Western countries that Asian trade had to envy. In matters of credit, transfer of funds, insurance, and cartels, neither India, Persia, nor China had anything to learn from Europe." The European colonization of the East was the crucial factor that brought the West to the forefront and contributed to the development of the Western countries.

The first Joint Stock Company, the East India Company (The Royal Charter granted by Queen Elizabeth in 1600), was organized to trade with the East, soon to become a great power in its own right, with its own army, staff of lawyers, experts, etc. The members invested capital, which was pooled and used in the trade turnover, while profits were distributed in proportion to the share of capital invested. During its lifetime, the Company first reversed the ancient flow of wealth from West to East, and then put in place new systems of exchange and exploitation. From Roman times, Europe had always been Asia's commercial supplicant, buying spices, textiles and luxury goods in return for gold and silver. And for the first 150 years after its establishment by Queen Elizabeth I in 1600, the Company had to repeat this practice; there was simply nothing that England could export that the East wanted to buy. But when opium began to be grown on a large scale East India Company was able to reverse this process.

In 1601 the English began their first inroads into the Indian Ocean. At first they were little interested in India, but rather, like the Portuguese and Dutch before them, in the Spice Islands. But they were unable to dislodge the Dutch from the Spice Islands. In 1610, the English chased away a Portuguese naval squadron, and the East India Company created its own outpost at Surat. This small outpost marked the beginning of a remarkable presence that would last over 300 years and eventually dominate the entire subcontinent. The English were welcomed by the Indian ruler, Great Moghul Jahangir, who wrote a kind letter to James I, King of England, in 1617.  

However, the European imperialism strangled possibilities and

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25 Jahangir was the son of Akbar the Great, Mughal Emperor of India. The principle, which underpinned the governance of this just and benevolent ruler, was "sul-e-kul", or "universal good."
potential for progress and inaugurated a new chapter in the history of greed. Natural resources — cotton, sugar, teak, rubber, minerals, jewels, gold, the riches of India that had been amassed for millennia, were shipped out in gigantic quantities. The riches taken by the Europeans from India, both property and income, apparently, cannot be ever calculated [Gopal].

It should be said, that initially the English did not conceal the predatory nature of their economic policies in India, using the term “economic drain”. In the first 100 years of the British rule, jewellery and money worth 12 billion gold rupees were exported. According to the estimates of B. Adams, during the first 15 years of colonization, the British took jewellery worth £1 billion from Indian Bengal [Adams 1898: 305]. For many Indians, it was the East India Company's plunder that first de-industrialised their country and then provided the finance that fuelled England's own industrial revolution. In essence, England found India rich and left it poor.

In around 1717-1750 the East India Company began its ever growing production of opium in Bengal for sale in China. At that time China was a large, practically mono-ethnic country, which was impossible to colonize. Smuggling opium there in large quantities was a way to weaken the Chinese statehood, open up its closed market and trade Chinese silver for opium.

All in all, according to Bhattacharyya, from 1749 to 1858 Britain exported from India opium worth £74 million 390 thousand, grain worth £23 million 190 thousand, cotton worth £19 million 380 thousand, wool worth £2 million 210 thousand [Bhattacharyya 1973: 398-412]. In the years 1757-1812 only the direct receipts of British colonizers in India amounted to £100 million.

The historian E.J. Hobsbawm shows that the British cotton manufacture, which was the most important prerequisite of the Industrial Revolution, was “a typical by-product of that accelerating current of international and especially colonial commerce” [Hobsbawm 1999].

One important skill that the English learnt from the Indians was making fabrics. The Indian textile industry was the most advanced in the world when the British arrived therein the 17th c. For hundreds of years, India had been renowned as the workshop of the world, combining great skill with phenomenally low labour costs in textile production. Within half a century of the British rule, though, the Indian textile industry fell into decline [Gopal].

From the middle of the 17th century on, the growing influx of cottons from the East radically improved hygiene and comfort, while tea transformed the customs and daily calendar of the people. And it was in the huge five-acre warehouse complex at Cutlers Gardens that these goods were stored prior to auction at East India House. Here, over 4,000 workers sorted and guarded the Company's stocks of wondrous Indian textiles: calicoes, muslins and dungarees, gingham, chintzes and seersuckers, taffetas, alliballies and hum hums.

At that time England herself specialized in producing raw materials for woollen and worsted cloths. The English textile industry was quite uncompetitive compared to the Indian. Indian fabrics were higher in quality and cost cheaper than the British ones in the European markets. England produced wool, while the Indian cotton or calico won the markets in Europe and at home in England. The English textile manufacturers struggled on the market with their rough products, but to no avail.

As the Company's imports grew, so local manufacturers in England panicked. In 1699, things came to a head and London's silk weavers rioted, storming East India House in protest at cheap imports from India. The problem was solved by England in a number of ways, which were, so far from the claims of the neoconservative historians, neither liberal nor free-trade. The following year, Parliament prohibited the import of all dyed and printed cloth from the East, an act to be followed 20 years later by a complete ban on the use or wearing of all printed calicoes in England – the first of many efforts to protect the European cloth industry from Asian competition. Also, to protect its products from the competition, England resorted to an 80 percent protective tariff [J. Nehru]. And it was behind these protectionist barriers that...
England’s mechanised textile industry was to grow and eventually crush India’s handloom industry.

Thus the domestic English cotton manufacturers were accidentally given a free run of the home market. They were as yet too backward to supply it, though the first form of the modern cotton-industry, calico-printing, established itself as a partial import substitution in several European countries. For the home-market they produced a substitute for linen or wool and silk hosiery; for the foreign market, so far as they could, a substitute for the superior Indian goods, particularly when wars or other crises temporarily disrupted the Indian supply to export markets. Until 1770 over ninety per cent of British cotton exports went to colonial markets in this way, mainly to Africa. The vast expansion of exports after 1750 gave the industry its impetus; between then and 1750 cotton exports multiplied ten times over.

Later in the 18th c. the Indian competition was crushed by the English, when Bengal, the centre of the Indian textile industry, was seized and the local producers were ruined. The situation was aggravated by the famines.

North American colonization

The English Reformation produced the Puritans, who became the basis for North American colonization. The first successful English settlements were the Virginia Colony in Jamestown in 1607 and the Pilgrims’ Plymouth Colony in 1620. In 1620, 102 men, women, and children left Plymouth, England, for America on the Mayflower. They were later called Pilgrims, or Forefathers. On November 21, the Mayflower dropped anchor in the sheltered harbor off the site of present-day Provincetown, Massachusetts. On December 21, after an exploratory voyage along Cape Cod, the Pilgrims landed and disembarked from the Mayflower near the head of the cape and founded Plymouth Colony. Today, people in New England celebrate December 21 as Forefathers’ Day.

The Pilgrims’ first winter was difficult, and many of the colonists died. In the spring Native Americans taught the settlers how to raise corn and catch fish. The Wampanoag leader Massasoit signed a peace treaty with the colonists, in which each promised to live in peace and support the other if attacked. In the fall of 1621 the Pilgrims and the Native Americans shared a bountiful harvest of corn and beans, along with fish and game, in what became known as the first American Thanksgiving.

The 1628 chartering of the Massachusetts Bay Colony resulted in a wave of migration; by 1634, New England had been settled by some 10,000 Puritans.

26 Like in Ireland, the Indian famines were largely induced - through taxation, land expropriation, grain price and grain exports policies. In 1769-1770 famine broke out in Bengal, which took 7 million people, equaling one third of the population (other estimates of the death toll from that famine are 10 million). In 1780-1790s the Bengal tragedy was repeated, this time 10 million people, half the population, died of hunger [Huber, Heifetz 1961]. More famines were recorded in the first century of the British Raj than in the previous 2,000 years. While a million Indians a year died from avoidable famines, taxation was subsidising colonial wars, and relief was often deliberately denied as surplus grain was shipped to England [Gopal].

Taxation was one of the most important sources of revenue. The British imposed a tax system on Indians that caused mass pauperization. The first year of the rule of the East India Company in Bengal gave a sharp jump to the growth of land tax: the size of the annual land tax by the native government for the previous three years ending 1764-65, had amounted to an average of 7,483 rupees, or £742,000. In the first year of the British rule the tax rate increased to 14,705 rupees, or £1,470,000, i.e. was increased almost twofold. In other provinces there was also a continuous growth and yield taxes, for example in Agra in the first year of the British rule the land tax was increased by 15% in the third year - by 25% compared to the overall size of the native government tax. The land tax in 1817 - the last year of the state of Mahratta - was 80 lakhs of rupees. In 1818 - the first year of the British rule - the land tax rose to 115 lakhs of rupees, and in 1823 it was 150 lakhs of rupees, that is within six years the land tax rose by almost a half. Over 11 years (1879-80-1889-90) of the Madras Presidency was sold at an auction in the payment of land tax 1,900,000 acres of land belonging to 850,000 farms. This means that one eighth of the agricultural population has been deprived of land ownership. The peasantry was deprived not only of land, but also homes, working cattle, household possessions, including beds, clothes, kitchen utensils ([Dutt 2001: Vol 1, P. 85, O’Donnel 1903: 21]).

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Since 1634 Maryland had been settled, too. Between the late 1610s and the American Revolution, about 50,000 convicts were shipped to Britain's American colonies. The settlers had spread over much of Maryland, primarily along the rivers and creeks that supplied ocean-borne shipping. They cultivated the land previously cleared by the Native Americans, planting corn and tobacco. Their first harvests were good, and they remained at peace with the Native Americans.

Some of the white settlers had large plantations, some worked smaller tobacco farms averaging 100 hectares in size, with the help of white indentured servants or black slaves from Africa or the Caribbean. In the 1690s, when slave prices fell and the supply of white servants shrank, planters began using slaves almost exclusively. Maryland and Virginia law at the same time defined black slavery as a lifetime condition.

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Slave trade

For well over 300 years European countries forced Africans onto slave ships and transported them across the Atlantic Ocean. The first European nation to engage in the Transatlantic Slave Trade was Portugal in the mid to late 1400's.

Captain John Hawkins made the first known English slaving voyage to Africa, in 1562, in the reign of Elizabeth I. Hawkins made three such journeys over a period of six years. He captured over 1,200 Africans and sold them as goods in the Spanish colonies in the Americas. Later British traders supplied slaves for the Spanish and Portuguese colonists in America.

The first record of enslaved Africans being landed in the British colony of Virginia was in 1619. Barbados became the first British settlement in the Caribbean in 1625 and the British took control of Jamaica in 1655. The establishment of the Royal African Company in 1672 formalised the Slave Trade under a royal charter and gave a monopoly to the port of London. The ports of Bristol and Liverpool, in particular, lobbied to have the charter changed and, in 1698, the monopoly was taken away.

27 A common term for white slaves, former Europeans, including Englishmen, divested of rights and sold into slavery.
British involvement expanded rapidly in response to the demand for labour to cultivate sugar in Barbados and other British West Indian (Caribbean) islands. In the 1660s, the number of slaves taken from Africa in British ships averaged 6,700 per year. By the 1760s, Britain was the foremost European country engaged in the Slave Trade. Slavery was also a legal institution in all of the 13 American colonies and Canada (acquired by Britain in 1763).

A historian David Richardson, has calculated that British ships carried 3.4 million or more enslaved Africans to the Americas. Only the Portuguese, who carried on the trade for almost 50 years after Britain had abolished its slave trade, could probably vie with Britain for the scope of this business.

The triangular route took British-made goods (textiles, rum, manufactured goods) to Africa to buy slaves, transported the enslaved to the West Indies, and then brought slave-grown products such as sugar, tobacco, and cotton to Britain. New England also benefited from the trade, as many merchants were from New England.

By 1783, the triangular trade represented 70-80 percent of Great Britain's foreign income. British ships dominated the trade, supplying British, French, Spanish, Dutch and Portuguese colonies and in peak years carried forty thousand enslaved men, women and children across the Atlantic in the horrific conditions of the Middle Passage.

The profits gained from chattel slavery helped to finance the Industrial Revolution and the Caribbean islands became the hub of the British Empire. The sugar colonies were Britain's most valuable colonies. By the end of the eighteenth century, four million pounds came into Britain from its West Indian plantations, compared with one million from the rest of the world.

In the Transatlantic Slave Trade, triangle ships never sailed empty and some people made enormous profits. This Slave Trade was the richest part of Britain's trade in the 18th century. James Houston, who worked for a firm of 18th-century slave merchants, wrote, "What a glorious and advantageous trade this is... It is the hinge on which all the trade of this globe moves." The money made on the Transatlantic Slave Trade triangle was vast and poured into Britain and other European countries involved in slavery, changing their landscapes forever. In Britain, those who had made much of their wealth from the trade built fine mansions, established banks such as the Bank of England and funded new industries.

Who profited from slave trade?

- **British slave ship owners** — some voyages made 20-50% profit. Large sums of money were made by ship owners who never left England.
- **British Slave Traders** — who bought and sold enslaved Africans.
- **Plantation owners** — who used slave labour to grow their crops. Vast profits could be made by using unpaid workers. Planters often retired to Britain with the profits they made and had grand country houses built for them. Some planters used the money they had made to become MPs. Others invested their profits in new factories and inventions, helping to finance the Industrial Revolution.
- **The factory owners in Britain** — who had a market for their goods. Textiles from Yorkshire and Lancashire were bought by slave-captains to barter with. One half of the textiles produced in Manchester were exported to Africa and half to the West Indies. In addition, industrial plants were built to refine the imported raw sugar. Glassware was needed to bottle the rum.
- **West African leaders involved in the trade** — who captured people and sold them as slaves to Europeans.
- **The ports** — Bristol and Liverpool became major ports through fitting out slave ships and handling the cargoes they brought back. Between 1700 and 1800, Liverpool's population rose from 5,000 to 78,000.
- **Bankers** — banks and finance houses grew rich from the fees and interest they earned from merchants who borrowed money for their long voyages.
Ordinary people — the Transatlantic Slave Trade provided many jobs for people back in Britain. Many people worked in factories which sold their goods to West Africa. These goods would then be traded for enslaved Africans. Birmingham had over 4,000 gun-makers, with 100,000 guns a year going to slave-traders.

Others worked in factories that had been set up with money made from the Slave Trade. Many trades-people bought a share in a slave ship. Slave labour also made goods, such as sugar, more affordable for people living in Britain.

Diagram of a slave ship from the Atlantic slave trade

From an Abstract of Evidence delivered before a select committee of the House of Commons in 1790 and 1791. After being captured and held in the factories, slaves entered the infamous Middle Passage. Meltzer's research puts this phase of the slave trade's overall mortality at 12.5%. Around 2.2 million Africans died during these voyages where they were packed into tight, unsanitary spaces on ships for months at a time.

Besides black slavery, there was white bondage, euphemistically termed "indentured labour". Indentured servitude was a method of increasing the number of colonists, especially in the British colonies. The journey across the oceans was dangerous, and the indentured servants provided necessary people. Like slaves, indentured servants could not marry without the permission of their owner, were subject to physical punishment, and saw their obligation to labour enforced by the courts. But unlike slaves, servants could look forward to a release from bondage. If they survived their period of labor, servants would receive a payment known as "freedom dues" and become free members of society. Indenture labourers were Scottish and Irish prisoners of the Crown, as well as English voluntary migrants and convicts.
During the 17th century, many Irish were taken to Barbados. In 1643, there were 37,200 whites in Barbados (86% of the population). Many people were captured by the English during Oliver Cromwell’s expeditions to Ireland and Scotland and were forcibly brought over as indentured servants as between 1649 and 1655. All in all, half a million Europeans went to the Caribbean before 1840; they usually did so as indentured servants. "Redlegs" was the term used to refer to the class of poor whites that lived on colonial Barbados, St. Vincent, Grenada, Trinidad, British Guiana, Surinam and a few other Caribbean islands.

Men, women and children from English debtor prisons were bought by the American colonies. Indentured servitude was one of the primary forms of labor supply in colonial America since the 1620s through the time of the American Revolution. The labor-intensive cash crop of tobacco was farmed in the American South by indentured laborers. Shortly after the American Revolution (1775-1776), however, indentured servants became less and less a part of the American labor force while black slavery grew into greater prominence.

Comprehension questions

1. Economic and social development of England during the reformation and bourgeois revolution.
2. The social structure.
4. Enclosures.
5. Rise of industries, trade and finance.
6. English colonialism and principles of foreign policy.
7. Colonization of Ireland
8. Trade monopolies.
9. The East India Company in the 17-18th c. and Indian colonization.
11. Slave trade
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Caledonians — каледонцы, жители Шотландии, так их называли римляне
Hadrian — Адриан, римский император
the Tyne — Тайн, река в Северной Англии
the Solway — Солвей, река, там же
little by little — понемногу, мало помалу
Cornwall — Корнуолл, п-в на юго-западе Англии
Wales — Уэльс, на западе Англии
Cumberland — Кемберленд, область на северо-западе Англии
forefathers — предки, праотцы
ancient — древний
Boadicea — Бодацера, королева бриттов (ум. в 62 г.)
with all her might — изо всех сил, со всей мочи
Caractacus — Каррактакус, король бриттов (50-е годы)
weaporns — оружие
armour — броня
when danger arose — когда возникала опасность
jewellery — драгоценности, драгоценные камни
writing materials — письменные принадлежности
pottery — гончарное дело
greatness — величие
to connect — объединять
traders — торговцы
goods — товары

islanders — островитяне, жители острова
had to defend — вынуждены были защищаться
Picts — пикты, малорослый воинственный народ
Scots — скотты, северяне, предки шотландцев
they were used — они привыкли
to take care — заботиться
relatives — родственники
groans — стоны
barbarians — варвары
to drown — тонуть, топить
to destroy — разрушать, крушить
Jutes — юты, одно из германских племен
Saxons — саксы, германское племя
Angles — англы, германское племя
Sussex — Сассекс, англо-саксонское королевство в Южной Англии, теперь область.
Essex Эссекс, англо-саксонское королевство, ныне область.
Wessex — Уэксекс, англо-саксонское королевство на юго-западе, ныне область.
customs — обычай
as time went on — с течением времени
till all were overcrowded — пока все не стало перенаселено
quite a terrible sight — совершенно ужасное зрелище
supremacy — превосходство, первенство
in turn — по очереди
Ethelbert — Этельберт
pagans — язычники
Woden — Один, верховный бог скандинавской и германской мифологии
Thor — Тор, бог-громовержец в той же мифологии
Freya — Фрейя, богиня мира
slave — раб
market — рынок
development — развитие
Thanet — Танет, остров к северо-востоку от Кента
clergy — духовенство, священники
set up — устанавливать
Gospel — Евангелие
Augustine — Августин
Ireland — Ирландия
Northumbria — Нортумбрия, область на севере Англии, прежде отдельное королевство
Mercians — мерсийцы, жители Мерсии, королевства на территории Англии
6
to protect — защищать
fertile — плодородный
castle — замок
protection — защита
condition — условие
to baptize — крестить
rose against — поднялись (восстали) против
scholar — ученый
Bede the Venerable — Беда Достопочтенный
the elders — старшие
a copy — экземпляр, копия
to contain — содержать
manuscripts — рукописи, манускрипты
handsome — красивый
fair — прекрасный
he made a joke on it — пошутил, обыграл слова
Angels — ангелы
so far as I could gather it — насколько могу собрать
I was given — меня отдали
7
Hardly had Edgar become... — Не успел Эдгар стать...
sea-rovers — морские пираты
furious — разъяренные, свирепые
Raven — Ворон
lowlands of Denmark — низменности Дании
Sweden — Швеция
Norway — Норвегия
of the same stock — того же происхождения
Vikings — викинги
fury — ярость
good Lord — Бог
to plunder — разграблять, мародерствовать
no doubt — нет сомнений
left no room — не оставалось места
in the midst of all — в самый разгар всего этого
industry — трудолюбие
subjects — подданные
attractive — привлекательный
it happened just so — именно так и случилось
nothing was heard — ничего не было слышно
to reign — править
Ethelred — Этельред
to inherit — наследовать
the public life — общественная жизнь
an unsuccessful attempt — безуспешная попытка
were quiet for a time — на некоторое время притихли
made a good use — хорошо воспользовался
to prevent — препятствовать
Ashdown — Эшдаун
drove Alfred to take refuge — вынудили Альфреда искать убежища
to divide — разделить
the Danelaw — Датское право (Закон)
champion — победитель
she let him sit — позволила ему посидеть
cinders — зола
to venture — осмелиться
disguised — переодетый
to encourage — поощрять
as hard as they could — как только могли, изо всех сил
he made the people keep them — заставлял народ их соблюдать
9
his work was carried on — его деятельность была продолжена
were going to settle down — собирались осесть /поселиться
who poured out of their creeks — которые устремились из своих заливов (бухт)
the Peaceful King — мирный король
on good terms — в хороших отношениях
revolt — восстание
restoring order — восстанавливая порядок
he was recognised — его признали
overlord — верховный господин, сюзерен
10
counsel — совет
to make descents — совершать высадки, нападать
bought them off — откупались от них
to require — требовать
geld — денежный выкуп
used it — пользовались этим
matters became worse and worse — становилось все хуже и хуже
fled away — бежал
witty — остроумный
temptation — искушение
to call upon — явиться к
to invade — завоевать
we are quite prepared to fight — мы вполне готовы драться
unless — если не
to pay cash — расплатиться
to get rid of — избавиться
to look important — с важным видом
defeat — нанести поражение, разбить
we have not the time to meet you — у нас нет времени с вами встретиться
once — однажды, один раз
it is wrong — неправильно, нехорошо
for fear — из страха
no matter how trifling the cost — не имеет значения, как бы мало это ни стоило
11
to save themselves — спасти себя
to bring up — воспитывать
the Confessor — исповедник
cared more for... than for... — больше заботился о... чем о...
attending services in churches — посещение церковных служб
had had enough — было недостаточно
Edward was called back — Эдварда призвали назад
he was not at all fitted — совершенно не подходил
Discontent — недовольны
it was built after the pattern — оно было построено по образцу
received Edward to be the king — приняли Эдварда как короля
inclined much more to foreigners — больше склоняли его к иностранцам
he fell more and more — он все больше и больше попадал...
that he should be the king — что он будет королем in any case — во всяком случае
12.
thus — так, таким образом
to weep — плакать
to crowd — толпиться, переполнять (народом)
the successor — преемник
furious — в ярости
set to work — принялся за работу
the people's right — право народа
to go on foot — идти пешими
the Normans were led out by — впереди идущих шли... footmen — пешотинцы,
archers — лучники
to induce — побудить
this he succeeded in doing — это ему удалось
retreat — отступление
to annihilate — уничтожить
to give way — уступить
did their best — делали все, что могли
13
to recognise — признать
shouts of welcome — приветственные крики
had to say — вынуждены были сказать
followers — последователи; те, кто шли за ним
estates — поместья
a number of — множество; большое количество
heavy fines — большие штрафы
to supply — снабжать
to give protection — давать защиту
had to look for help — должны были искать помощи
neighbourhood — соседство; округa
to provide — обеспечивать
units — территориально-административные единицы
manor — манор, феодальное поместье
was bound to — был связан с
14
broke out — разразилось
gave William much trouble — причинило Вильгельму много неприятностей
in order to — для того, чтобы
to order — приказать
Domesday Book — книга земельной описи Англии
15
Ere I was a lover — прежде, чем я стал возлюбленным
fief and fee — феодальное поместье и жалованье
the other way over — перешел на другой путь, иначе
hath = has
his own hour — свое собственное время, т.е. когда сам был
Rouen — Руан, город во Франции
youth is the time for mating — юность — время для женитьбы
their way is not my way — их образ жизни не для меня
before I am blamed — прежде, чем меня бранить (обвинять)
howso great man's strength be reckoned — как бы силен ни был (ни считался) мужчина...
16
the will of the people — воля народа
that... should be — что... ему быть (королем)
court — королевский двор
English meanings below — английские значения (надписаны) снизу
he has so arranged it — он так это устроил
the law courts — суды
the use of the language — употребление языка
as some thought it would — как думали некоторые, что так будет
by slow degrees — постепенно, понемногу
both French and English — и по-французски, и по-английски
who were turned out — которых выгнали
keeps — центральные башни средневекового замка
siege — осада
the Tower — Тауэр, замок-крепость в Лондоне, исторически часто использовался как тюрьма для государственных преступников
16
heir — наследник
before you go over to rule it — прежде, чем ты начнешь сю (землей) управлять...
justice and right — справедливость и правда
this isn't fair dealing — это несправедливо
leave the Saxon alone — оставь сакса в покое, не трогай сакса
Gascony — гасконский
Picardy — пикардийский (Гаскония и Пикардия — области Франции)
you'll have the whole brood round your ears — ты навлечешь на себя негодование всего их племени
Thane — Тан, вождь древних саксов и скоттов
to master — овладеть
clerk — чиновник (первоначально лицо духовного звания)
to interpret — переводить (устную речь)
wrongs — несправедливости, обиды
let them know that you know — пусть они знают, что ты понимаешь
that's wasteful as well as unkind — это лишняя потеря времени, да и не по-доброму
parish priest — приходской священник
don't ride over seeds — не скачи верхом по посевам
you fellows — вы, братцы (ребята)
tell'em — tell them
17
succession of the crown — преемственность короны
inheritance — наследие
red — (ед.) рыжий
because of — из-за
to face a rising — оказался перед фактом восстания
in favour of — в пользу
duchy — герцогство (в смысле титула)
subjects — подданные
archbishop's pall — мантия архиепископа
to acknowledge — признавать
settled down to his work — приступил к работе
a certain man — некий человек
in desperate anxiety — в отчаянной тревоге
a knight — рыцарь
solemnly protested his innocence — торжественно утверждал, что невинован
18
to claim — требовать, претендовать
secured support — обеспечил поддержку
to gain — добиться, завоевать, достигнуть
nickname — прозвище
Beau clerk — (ед.) ученьй
unlettered — необразованный
to wax — развивать, расти
as they willed — как они хотели
he held them in check — держал их в узде
the common folk — простой народ
not so much because... as because — не столько из-за того... сколько потому...
the gainers — те, кто выигрывает
19
the only son — единственный сын
except — кроме того, что
another's safety before his own — о безопасности других прежде своей
especially — особенно
unjustly — несправедливо
favourable — благоприятный
out of sight — из виду, из поля зрения
it was not until nightfall that they left the port — они покинули порт только с наступлением ночи
rowers — гребцы
in a fit condition — в подобающем состоянии
incapable — неспособные
to steer — править, вести (корабль)
nearly — почти
to rescue — спасти
Rouen — Руан (Франция)
to cling — уцепиться
was picked up — (едо) подобрали
a weeping page — хнычущий (плачущий) паж
nobody ever saw him smile — никто больше никогда не видел, чтобы он улыбался
20
Count of Anjou — граф Анжуйский
both these things — и то, и другое
My liege — мой господин (сеньор)
he steered the ship — он вел корабль
prow — нос (судна)
the same office — та же служба
set sail — отправился (на парусах)
to wonder — дивиться, удивляться
yoke — ярмо, впрягать в ярмо
aboard — на борт
to make merry — веселиться
the vessel shot out of the harbour — судно вышло из бухты
the sails were all set — все паруса были подняты
the oars all going merrily — весла работали весело
it was the cry that... — это был тот крик, который...
push off — отплывайте (оттолкнитесь)
row back at any risk! — гребите назад, невзирая ни на какой риск!
to be overset — перевернуться
they clung to the main yard — уцепились за главную рею
by-and-by — постепенно
gone — исчез; погиб
I am chilled from the cold — я окоченел от холода
21
to swear — поклясться
to recognize — признать
Anjou — Анжу, Анжуйский
took the oath — дали клятву
crumbled away like a hollow heap of sand — рухнули, точно полая внутри кучка песка
to mistrust — не доверять
Blois — Блуа (город во Франции)
a false witness — лжесвидетель
the late king — покойный король
upon the death-bed — на смертном одре
so as not to be seen — чтобы их не заметили (не увидели)
to till — возделывать, пахать
wickedness — злодейства, греховность
standard — знамя, штандарт
to defeat — потерпеть поражение
to acknowledge — признавать
everything was thrown into confusion — все пришло в смят
Matilda was successful — Матильда имела успех
in due course — в должное время, с течением времени
humane — человечный
moderate — умеренный
than at any former period — чем в любой предыдущий период
the two rival claimants — два соперника-претендента
every cruelty he wanted — любую жестокость, какую он хотел
the castles were filled with devils rather than... — замки скорее были полны чертей, чем...
sharp-pointed — остrokонечные
dreary wastes — унылые пустыни
on his own right — по собственному праву
much as he had, he was always going to war — как бы много у него ни было, он всегда собирался воевать (на войну)
trial by jury — суд присяжных
had to be sworn — должны были дать присягу
their own wild ways — свои собственные дикие нравы
things were as bad again — все снова стало так же плохо
now in... now in... — то... то...
he may be rather said — о нем скорее можно сказать, что...
a pilgrimage to the Holy Land — паломничество в Святую Землю, т.е. в Палестину
was taken prisoner — был взят в плен
fell in love — влюбилась
in disguise — в переодетом виде
she made her way — она пробралась
counting-house — контора (торговая)
with his breath almost gone — он почти перестал дышать
as I live — живу (так же верно, как то, что я живу)
the lady is going up and down the city — госпожа бродит взад и вперед по городу
a wondering crowd — толпа любопытных
thought of the tenderness — вспомнил ту нежность
his heart was moved — он был тронут до глубины души
he it was who... — именно он был тот...
25
he had fully deserved the high office he received — он полностью заслуживал того высокого места по службе, которое получил
to carry out — выполнять, осуществлять
poor thing — бедняга
come — (пр) и, так давай!
ermine — горностай
no power but himself — ничья власть, кроме его собственной

to escape England — бежать из Англии
Henry II had had his eldest son Henry secretly crowned — старшего сына Генриха II, Генриха, тайно короновали по приказу короля
to excommunicate — отлучить (от церкви)
it was likely — похоже на то, что...
to deliver — избавить

either... nor — ни... ни...
making a terrible noise with their armed tread — создавая ужасный шум из-за того, что шли вооруженными
pavement — (зд.) каменный пол (в церкви)
Chapter House — здание капитула, Высшего Церковного Совета
knitted cords — веревки, завязанные узлами
began to fail — (пр) начал слабеть
they brought him — ему принесли
the list — список
let the world go as it will — пусть мир идет своим путем
I care for nothing — мне все безразлично
27
Richard was said... by way of flattery — о Ричарде говорили... ради того, чтобы польстить
whatever it was — каково бы оно ни было
cause — причина
bower — жилище, дом
Woodstock — Вудсток, город недалеко от Оксфорда
jealous — ревнивый
took the poison — приняла яд
nunnery — женский монастырь
comely — хорошенькая, миловидная
her name was called so — так ее звали
the like was never seen — подобного никто никогда не видел
when his grace had passed the seas — когда его величество отбыл за моря
take pity — пожалей, смилуйся
and let me not... enforced be to die — и не вынуждай меня... умереть,
entomb — погреби, похорони
28
crusader — крестоносец
Jerusalem — Иерусалим
the God's tomb — гроб Господень
the long spear he used — он пользовался длинным копьем, которым он пользовался
never entered the country — ни разу не посетил эту страну
adventures were to be had — приключения должны были случиться...
Mediterranean Sea — Средиземное море
Our Lord — Он
to get up expeditions — устроить походы (экспедиции)
to do their best — сделать все возможное,
postararся из всех сил
a great deal of — большое количество
the Crown Domains — королевские владения (земли)
the high offices of State — высокие государственные должности
subjects — подданные
they were fit to govern — они подходили для того, чтобы управлять
to secure — обеспечить, заручиться
the more... the more... — чем больше... тем больше
Acre — Акка, город на средиземноморском побережье Палестины
Cyprus — Кипр
to besiege the besiegers — осаждать осаждающих Saracens — сарацины
Our Saviour — Наш Спаситель (Бог)
to make the attempt in disguise — сделать попытку переодетым (замаскированным)
in doing so — выполняя это
charged... with some other crimes — обвинил... в нескольких других преступлениях
in a manner more becoming his dignity — более подобающим его достоинству способом (образом)
Viscount of Limoges — виконт Лиможа (город во Франции)
heard it sung — он услышал, как ее поют
because of the bad treatment — из-за дурного лечения
go unhurt — иди с миром (неповрежденным, не раненым)
29
popular ballad — народная баллада anon — сейчас
he held up great wrongs — он поддерживал большие несправедливости
he put down great rights — он подавлял (пресекал) дела справедливые
Falaise — Фалез (во Франции)
to get rid of — избавиться от
put out his eyes — выколите ему глаза
the warden of the castle — начальник тюрьмы
the winding stairs — винтовая лестница
trod upon his torch — наступил на факел
put it out — погасил его
spread through — распространились
false — лжец
made war — объявил войну
no bells were to be rung — нельзя было звонить в колоколa
they were used — они привыкли
declared John imposed — объявил, что Иоанн должен понести наказание
it was forced from John — у Иоанна вынудили силой (эту хартию)
to pay taxes — платить налоги
wrong-doing — правонарушение
a proper trial — праведный (законный) суд
it is said — говорят
to gnash — скрежетать
to gnaw — грызть
a troublesome time — беспокойное время
to hold any terms — договориться об условиях (соблюдать условия)
Sandwich — город в Кенте, Англия
rather than suffer this — чем страдать от этого...
met with some successes — добился некоторых успехов
when the tide is out — когда наступает отлив
30
was but — было всего
Marshall — (эд.) гофмаршал
Gloucester — графство в Англии
to heal quarrels — уладить ссоры
to want money — нуждаться в деньгах
unless he promised — пока (если) он не пообещает
to keep the Great Charter — соблюдать Великую Хартию
Simon de Montfort — (1208?-1265)
they were caught in a bad storm — они попали в сильную бурю
only to break them — только для того, чтобы
Henry was forced — Генрих был вынужден
what the people... wanted done — что народ хотел... чтобы было сделано
had little time to show its merits — не успел проявить свои достоинства
Leicester — город и графство в Англии
however much he hated it — как бы он ее ни ненавидел
n. (nearly), near — около, приблизительно
31
that very — тот самый
however long and thin they were — какими бы длинными и тонкими ни были его ноги
da deal of trouble — масса неприятностей
loose robe — свободная одежда
better than was often to be found — лучше... чем зачастую можно найти
she is said by some — некоторые говорят о ней...
to swear allegiance to him — поклясться ему в верности
to do homage — оказать почести; признать себя его вассалом
to take refuge — найти убежище, укрыться
Snowdon — Сноудон, высочайшая горная вершина Уэльса
he was starved into an apology — голод вынудил его сдаться
whatever they had — все, что у них было
the Welsh — валлийцы, жители Уэльса
their blood was up — их кровь вскипала
this was the time Merlin meant — и есть то время, о котором говорил Мерлин
Llewellyn was surprised — Ллевелин был застигнут врасплох
disturbances — беспорядки
 provision was made — была обеспечена
the priests were prevented from... священникам препятствовали
should be engaged to be married — должна быть обручена
the advantages — преимущества, выгода
Norham
in favour of— в пользу
Baliol
on the one hand — с одной стороны
seized the opportunity — воспользовался удобным случаем
showed a demonstration to resist — демонстративно проявили сопротивление
30000 foot — 30 тысяч пеших
4000 horse — 4 тысячи конных
Surrey — графство в Англии
guardian — опекун, попечитель
the principal offices — главные должности
burning words — воспламеняющие слова
fell upon... — накинулись на
Kildean
to cross it abreast — перейти его вплотную друг к другу
stone images — каменные статуи (изваяния)
not a feather stirred — ни одно перышко не шелохнулось
to take the field — выступить против; начать боевые действия
Bruce
Burns , Robert — Бернс, Роберт (1749 - 1796), поэт
wha ha’ wi’ = who have with
to bleed (bled, bled) — проливать кровь
now’s the day = now is the day
o’ battle = of battle
lour — хмуриться, мрачнеть
fa’ = fall
governor — губернатор
the Scottish cause — дело шотландцев
set up the rebellious standard — подняли знамя мятежа
to have his revenge on — отомстить
horse-litter — носилки, помещенные между двумя лошадьми
to lose a battle — проиграть сражение
32
Cornwall — Корнуол, полуостров и графство в Англии
made bad jokes — зло вышутивал
Warwick — Уорик, граф Уорикшира, Англия
to be not fitted — не подходить
of which Shakespeare has made beautiful use — которую великолепно использовал Шекспир
to try — примерять
to set free — освобождать
his wild companions — неистовы люди, с которыми он проводил время
once on the throne — оказавшись на троне
a sound judgement — здравое суждение
on the same grounds — на том же основании
it did not matter to him — для него не имело значения
Harfleur
Somme — Сомма
Agincourt (Azincourt)
to make little use of — плохо использовать
to be eager — жаждать
otherwise than — ничем иным, как
the thorough conquest — полное завоевание
played into his hands — играло ему на руку
Troyes — Труа, город во Франции
nothing of the kind — ничего подобного
37
the late king — покойный король
to be under age — не достигнуть возраста
on his mother's lap — на коленях у матери
object — цель
to keep his hold on — держать в своих руках
Crevant
the board and lodging — содержание (плата за еду и жилье)
Verneuil
Baudincourt
squire — (эд.) оруженосец
Chinon — Шинон
Compiegne
the more they pretended... the more they caused her... — чем больше они притворялись... тем больше заставляли...
it is no wonder — неудивительно
Beaufor
Margaret of Anjou — Маргарита Анжуйская
the commons in Kent — простонародье в Кенте
as if to protect — как бы для того, чтобы защитить
should come of age — достигнет возраста
the ups and downs — эти взлеты и падения
should be given up — должен сдаться
Salisbury
to pay court — оказывать почести
38
if they would have Henry... for their king — хотят ли они, чтобы Генрих... был их королем
cheered tremendously — громко выкрикивали свое сильнейшее одобрение
on which his father had laid his hand — которым его отец когда-то завладел
the total loss amounted to — общие потери дошли до...
the war was by no means over — война никоим образом не кончилась
was active for her young son — действовала в пользу своего сына
for the present — на некоторое время
who should set an example of honour — которым следовало бы подавать (другим) пример чести
left either side — бросали (оставляли) любую сторону
Henry had a narrow escape — Генрих едва спасся
chivalrous romances — рыцарские романы
for a friend or a foe — в качестве врага или друга
to swear the allegiance — покляться в верности
she took sanctuary at... — укрылась, нашла убежище
whosoever they were — кто бы они ни были
in confusion — в растерянности
if's — всякие «если» (во множ. числе)
there was a rash into the chamber — в комнату ворвалось...
let him have a priest — пусть к нему позовут священника
the green — зеленая лужайка
the principal citizens — знатные горожане (стоящие во главе городского управления)
Guildhall — ратуша (в Лондоне)
in Lord Protector's behalf — в пользу Лорда-Протектора
Bayard Castle
there was nothing he desired less — нет ничего, чего он желал бы меньше
for being so poor-spirited — из-за того, что были такими слабодушными
with a great deal of show — с большой внешней помпой (пышное зрелище)
to put to death — предать смерти
gave authority — дал распоряжение
what was wanted — что требовалось
by trade — по профессии
gone for ever — исчезли навсегда
she was remembered — ей помнили
he made love to — ухаживал за
was not so far in that prediction — не так далеко ушел от этого предсказания
he took good care of that — он как следует позаботился об этом
the King was even obliged — король даже был вынужден
lest his crimes should not be denounced — чтобы гам не было объявлено о его преступлениях
it was said — говорили
he took the field — выступил против
he plunged into the thickest of the battle — он бросился в самую гущу битвы
he was unhorsed — его сбросили с лошади
social life — общественная жизнь
to have a notion — иметь представление
might be profitably preserved — можно было сохранить к своей выгоде
to hold the land — владеть землей (держать землю)
better off — лучше обеспеченные (т. е. богатые)
worse off — хуже обеспеченные (т. е. бедные)
you must have taken their best — изо всех сил старались
they took advantage of — использовали
manufactured goods — фабричные изделия
to go in for — увлекаться
sheep cannot be kept... — овец невозможно держать
clothes — одежду
enclosures — огораживанья
on the one hand — с одной стороны
on the other = on the other hand
protection is not to be found — защиту невозможно найти
the open country — открытая местность
in whatever way they arose — каким бы образом они не возникли
at any rate — во всяком случае
fair — ярмарка
on the occasion of — в том случае, когда
Offa — король Мерсии, умер в 796
Charlemagne — Карл Великий, французский король (742-814)
Flemish weavers — фламандские ткачи
unlike — не без сходства с...
at handsome rates of interest — с хорошими процентами
Yorkist — житель Йорка
the original purpose — первоначальное назначение
level country — равнинная местность
foot — пьедестал
they fought at close range — они сражались на близком расстоянии
in course of time — в дальнейшем
Chateau Gaillard
the keep — центральная башня замка
the town poor — городская беднота
42-43
Bluff' King Hal — король Хэл (уменьш. от Генри), обманщик
Burly King Harry — Толстяк король Гарри
much depended on — во многом зависело от
if he should possess — если бы он владел
show and display — зрелища и «показуху»
they were set upon horses — их посадили на коней
at any rate — в любом случае
to be based — было основано
to be taken into favour — сделался фаворитом
home affairs — внутренние дела (страны)
opportunity — удобный случай
make his first appearance — впервые появиться
would be sure — наверняка, несомненно
in spite of — несмотря на
make a claim to certain lands — претендовать на определенные земли
to take into one's head — забрать себе в голову, решиться
used to believe — обычно верили
champion of the dames — любимчик дам
that he should be — что он должен быть, ему следует быть
as soon as — как только
Cloth of Gold — золотая ткань
free as water — бесплатно, как вода
was hardly yet secure — едва-едва заслужила
whoever bought — всякий, кто покупал
to buy himself off — откупиться от
for all that — несмотря на это
44
the best way to make it right — лучший способ это исправить
on the ground — на основании
on the other hand — с другой стороны
to fall in with the Pope's plan — поддерживать планы Папы
to cause delay — устраивать отсрочки
to wear one away — мучить, уничтожать
nothing but — только, исключительно
Had I served... — служил бы я...
to try one's hand at many trades — испытать себя во многих занятиях, профессиях
in the next place — затем
to manage so — устроить так
when they heard them uttered — когда они слышали, как эти слова произносились
on the score — по причине
the Smaller ones — более мелкие (монастыри)
Order (here) — указ парламента
Were not to be stopped — их нельзя было остановить
unreformed one — т.е. нереформированной религии
the more he quarreled ... the more ... — чем больше он ссорился... тем больше...
as ... so ... — как ... так и ...
no sooner... than — как только ... так сразу
to set one's mind on — обратить внимание на, увлечься
a very good one — очень хороший (палач)
she would be soon out of her pain — скоро избавится от боли
ordered out his dogs — приказал вывести ему собак
just long enough — достаточно долго для того
she managed the King so well — она так хорошо управлялась с королем
so narrow was her escape — она едва спаслась
the world went on — мир продолжал идти своим путем
45
sought to get — искали случая, стремились получить
a rising barrister — успешно делающий карьеру барристер, т.е. юрист
to wait on somebody — прислуживать кому-нибудь
the proper age — подходящий возраст, надлежащий
without a degree — без ученой степени (каждый, до конца прошедший университетские науки, получал степень бакалавра)
New Inn, Lincoln Inn — в Лондоне в описываемую эпоху было четыре школы барристеров, «Судебные Инны», в т. ч. Линкольн Инн
Charterhouse - Чартерхаус, дом для престарелых в Лондоне
Erasmus — т.е. Эразм Роттердамский (1466-1536) — крупнейший ученый-гуманист нидерландского возрождения
much above the ordinary Latin — много выше обычной латыни
to be knighted — быть посвященным в рыцари
to get somebody out of the way — убрать кого-то с дороги
without previous notice — без предварительного извещения
it should not fail to go — она не замедлит отделяться от тела
affecting to be dull — стараясь стать скучным
the meaner ... the more — чем ничтожнее ... тем более
he was marked for vengeance — был намечен для мести
the Act of Supremacy — закон о главенстве английского короля над церковью
46
what was the sight — как выглядел
Nineveh — древний ассирский город
had they stayed — если бы они (римляне) остались
London was burnt again and again — Лондон сжигали снова и снова
who thought of little more than war and the chase — которые мало о чем думали, кроме войны и охоты
sitting-room (here) — место для сидения
England’s privileged ones — привилегированные люди Англии
platforms — воззвышения
carpeted — покрытые коврами
sat on to be crowned — садились, чтобы их короновали
a like purpose — подобная, такая же цель
clothed like Solomon for splendour — раздетая роскошно, точно Соломон
to catch one's breath — задержать дыхание
Lord Protector — лорд-протектор, регент, правящий вместо несовершеннолетнего короля
ceremony of the Recognition — церемония официального признания, утверждения
who would keep him safe — которые будут охранять его безопасность
when at work — когда он работал
he was given to tears — он предавался слезам
taxed the people — облагали народ налогами
he did wrong — когда он поступил неправедливо
with better reason — по более веской причине
double as many — вдвое больше
so to speak — собственно говоря
and what-not — и кого только еще не было (среди них)
talked bridy talk — разговаривали на языке Моста
47
this king was meant — этого короля имел в виду...
to be not the like person — не быть таким человеком, чтобы...
to be under age — не достигнуть возраста
the first one — первому (Совету)
whatever promises he had made — все обещания, какие он давал
social evils — социальное зло
to sympathise — сочувствовать (не симпатизировать!)
at large — в целом
laugh = low (шотл.)
bonny = good (шотл.)
toom = empty (шотл.)
but never came he — но он так и не вернулся
in which case — в каковом случае
that tree may be said — можно сказать, что это дерево
keep at home — оставаться по домам
once powerful — некогда могущественный
he kept a journal — он вел дневник
wrongs and sorrows — несправедливости и горести
the old Mass — старая месса
of one so young — такого молодого существа
48
Lord Mayor — Лорд Мэр
aldermen — олдермены, старшие советники муниципалитета в Лондоне
be unfit — быть неподходящим, не соответствовать
until she was crowned — пока ее не короновали
from whence — после чего
there was no help for it — с этим ничего нельзя было поделать
to set forth — выступить вперед, отправиться
to turn out well founded — оказаться хорошо обоснованными
to turn one's back on — повернуться спиной к ..,
отвернуться от
the Princess Mary's — т. е. дело, сторону принцессы Мэри
poor wretches — бедняги
wrinkled in the face — с морщинистым лицом
without much sense in them — в них не было особенно большого смысла
to put down — покончить с
to put up — возвысить, возобновить
the unreformed one — нереформированную (религию)
a shower of stones — водопад камней
to unmake — переделать, переиначить, отменить
on the subject of religion — по вопросам религии
felt about for it — нащупывала вокруг себя, ища ее (колоду)
The father ... soon followed — отец ... вскоре последовал за ней (т. е. его тоже казнили)
to come in out of the wet — войти внутрь, чтобы не промокнуть
to set aside — отстраниться, отойти в сторону
surprised Calais — захватили Кале врасплох
to catch the fever — подхватить лихорадку
49
she looked all the better — но она все-таки выглядела лучше
hard sweater — человек, употребляющий сильные ругательства
coarse talker — тот, кто выражается непристойно
the one thing needed — единственное, что нужно as a means of finding out — как средство это обнаружить
act of Uniformity — Акт о Единообразии
an Act of Supremacy — см. выше, в гл. о Генрихе VIII
however innocent — как бы невинны они (развлечения) ни были
if she ever succeeded to the English crown — если только ей удастся получить английскую корону
to rise in arms — восстать с оружием в руках
a private staircase — потайная (личная) лестница
a range of rooms — анфилада комнат, ряд комнат
to be blown to atoms — взорваться, и от нее остались только мелкие частицы
that very revenge — та самая месть
the dead of the night — глухая ночь
to have in safe keeping — держать надежно
goodly — славное войско
newes = news
leeve London = dear London
speede = speed
royall = royal
rysing = rising
whether no means could be found — неужели не найдется какого-то способа спасти жизнь Мэри
50
as well as — та же, как и
it soon appeared — вскоре оказалось
anything but — все что угодно, только не...
at a great advantage — с большим преимуществом
to seize the opportunity — воспользоваться возможностью
to play off — (раз.) отвергать
Society of Jesus — орден иезуитов
to be fined — подвергаться штрафу, наказанию
could hardly help itself — едва ли могло помочь себе
to work the mines — разрабатывать шахты
Poor Law — закон о бедных, регулирующий оказание помощи неимущим
Lord Deputy — официальный представитель
to stir up afresh — вновь вызвали, возобновили
race hatred — национальная ненависть
if she did = (if she went to bed)
she would have for her successor — своим преемником она желала бы иметь whom should I mean, but... — кого бы я имела в виду, если не... as she has been made out — как из нее делали she was an old one — "one" means "woman" (here) 51 confidant — доверенное лицо forwarded — направил the staple of the English imperialism — характерная черта английского империализма was skilled in manufacture of poisons — был специалистом в изготовлении ядов a unique right of duty-free-transit trade with the East by way of the Volga — уникальное право беспошлинной транзитной торговли с Востоком по Волге evade in every way any negotiations on the alliance, especially on the marriage basis — всячески уклоняться от любых переговоров о союзе, особенно на основе брака by universal acclaim — по всеобщему признанию those were the dashing times in the world — то были лихие времена в мире St Bartholomew's Day massacre — резня в День Святого Барлогомея the fact convincingly shown nowadays by facts from archives and records — факт убедительно доказан в настоящее время данными архивов и летописей annexed — присоединил with the commons including not only burgesses, artisans, but many peasants — в том числе не только горожане, ремесленники, но и многие крестьяне as a check against the hereditary nobility — как средство сдерживания потомственного дворянства Anointed Tsar of God — Помазанник Божий sought to discredit the very name of the Russian state — стремились дискредитировать само имя русского государства the realization of insidious plans by means of secret services — реализация коварных планов с помощью спецслужб 52 to come in full flower — достигнуть полного расцвета to be all the richer for delay — тем богаче из-за задержки to take its complexion — принимать характер letters — (ед.) литература who is said to be — о котором говорили, что он был... literary people — деятели литературы under the influence of torture — под действием пыток Privy Council — Тайный Совет by minding horses of theatergoers — заботой (заботясь) о лошадях тех людей, которые пошли в театр смотреть представление a member of a great household — домочадцем в большом хозяйстве company of players — труппа актеров blest = blessed curst = cursed 53 to present an appearance — представлять (собой) внешность, т. е. выглядеть against being stabbed — чтобы его не зарезали Scottish Kirk = Scottish Church hoped for the best from... — надеялись на лучшее из-за того... Authorized Version — «Официальный вариант», перевод Библии, одобренный Иаковым I в 1611 г. the popular will — воля народа no less a scheme — план, не меньший чем... — не более, не менее, как commons (here) — члены Палаты Общин one and all — всех до одного and other matters — и других материалов (веществ) to avoid observation — чтобы избежать наблюдений за собой to prorogue (here) — отложить, перенести to take no notice of each other - не замечать друг друга mine (here) — подземелье to be put to look — быть поставленным наблюдать, следить to let alone — оставить в покое, не трогать slow matches — спички медленного действия, т. е. такие, которые не зажигаются от случайных соприкосновений to have the heart — решиться 54 James — согласно традиции, имя «Джеймс», если оно имя короля, по-русски произносится как «Иаков» (как и Джордж — Георг) it was not indeed until — и только в 1583 to break away — избавиться, покончить с чем-либо now on one side, now on the other — то на одной стороне, то на другой missed her husband — разминулась со своим мужем greatly liked — его очень любили to get him through the crowd — провести его сквозь толпу he would rather — он бы предпочел; ему больше хотелось shaking fit — приступ дрожи safe and sound — целый и невредимый 55 in his bearing — по своему поведению he was not to be trusted — ему нельзя было доверять at the very time — в то же самое время for all this — для всего этого the Commons — Палата Общин I am the man — Я тот самый человек
to leave the chair — оставить место председателя
Aye, aye! — обычный призыв в английском парламенте, переводится как «Слушайте, слушайте!»
to gain their liberty — вернуть себе свободу
court of King's Bench — высший суд в Англии, где присутствовал сам король
to have given way — сдавать
forced loans — вынужденные займы
to be sympathetic — сочувствовать
to throw oneself heartily — от всей души, с душой взялся за...
ship-money — «корабельные деньги», особый налог на строительство флага
pronouncement — официальное заявление
Forest Laws — Лесные законы, изданные Вильгельмом I с целью сохранности королевских лесов и дичи в них, нарушители подвергались наказаниям
Histriomastix — закон о наказаниях актеров театра
Service Book — молитвенник
an army of sorts — сборная армия
Covenant — Ковенант (соглашение между шотландским и английским пресвитерианством)
Triennial Act was passed — был принят (прошел) Трехлетний Акт
the King could not help himself — король ничего не мог сделать в своих интересах
he could do nothing but — он мог всего только
to get the best of it — обратит дело в свою пользу
this was made public — это было предано публичной гласности
Grand Remonstrance — Великая Ремонстрация (протест)
the Speaker — спикер в парламенте
the House of Commons — Палата Общин
the House = the House of Commons
anything but that — ни для чего, кроме того, что...
to watch in arms — дежурили вооруженными
in great state — с большой торжественностью
they were taken by waters — их отвезли по воде
his coach and six — карета, запряженная шестеркой лошадей
train-bands — ополченцы
to deprive of votes — лишать права голоса
whatever the two Houses passed — какие бы решения ни приняли обе палаты
at high interest — при условии высоких процентов
the cloth towns — текстильные центры, города
'gainst = Against
enrich'd = enriched
Solemn League — соглашение, подписанное между английским и шотландским парламентами в 1643 во имя «мира между 3-мя странами» (еще Ирландией)
more than hold its own — может больше, чем сохранять свои позиции
to show oneself at one's best — проявить себя наилучшим образом
ever seen — какие (армии) когда-либо видели
to break through — прорваться
to keep his Highlands together — удержать единой Горную Шотландию (горцы в Шотландии дрались каждый за свой клан)
Independent — индепенденты, конгрегационалисты
with good reason — совершенно обоснованно
to come to terms — прийти к соглашению
to address the King no further — не обращаться более к королю
58
the Scottish sort — шотландская разновидность
privates — рядовые
on any account — (эд.) ни в коем случае, ни за что
now it had nothing else to do — ей (армии) стало нечего делать, ничего другого не оставалось делать
except upon — кроме как на
a certain — некий
and so to be got rid off — и таким образом избавиться от него
nothing came of — ничего не вышло из...
waited on him at the table — прислуживали ему за столом
had his hair combed — был тщательно причесан
march on apace! — агом марш!
but very short — зато короткая (ступенька)
but one stage — всего одна ступенька
59
of that of Elizabeth = of the reign of Elizabeth
to make room — освободить (оставить) место
to cut short — урезывая, ограничивать
very well read — очень хорошо начитан
Christendom — христианские страны
Ironsides — «железобокие»
let us have room to pass here — дайте нам здесь пройти
the goods originally came — откуда грузы шли
perвоначально
to have the best of it — иметь преимущество в ней (в войне)
Bring them in! — Введите их!
for their own good — для их же блага
60
in due course — в положенный срок
the greatest gain — величайшее достижение
neither of which — ни один из которых
would have had — ...согласился бы иметь
open table = open for everybody who wanted to have a dinner with him
not below the rank — не ниже чина
he would sometimes — он имел обыкновение иногда
61
want of any fixed principles — отсутствие (нехватка) каких-либо твердых принципов
the Regicides — цареубийцы; так называли судей, вынесших смертный приговор Карлу I в 1649 г.
with a high hand — жестоко, властно
Clarendon Code — Кларендон — особый шрифт, каким было напечатано уложение церковных законов, о которых идет речь
ministers — (зд.) священники
the Commonwealth — так называлась английская республика во время Английской буржуазной революции XVII в.
St. Giles's — церковь в Лондоне, первоначально построенная в XII в.
Lord, have mercy on us — Пощади нас, Боже
half their remedies cured you dead — от половины их лекарств можно было умереть
Dirt has nothing to do with disease — грязь не имеет ничего общего с болезнью
They took their lives in their lancet-hands — они брали жизни в свои вооруженные ланцетами руки
a plague of rain — ливневые дожди
the want of more houses to burn — требовалось, чтобы горели еще и еще дома
willingly — охотно, по доброй воле
62 was sadly in need of repair — сильно нуждалось в ремонте
to be longed — ждать, тосковать
they followed the old line of the streets — они следовали (в строительстве) старым очертаниям улиц
wretched, crooked ways — неудобные, извилистые улицы
was not altogether wasted — не совсем пропал
the Royal Exchange — Королевская Биржа
Temple Bar — лондонские ворота перед зданием Темпля
only just of age — только-только достигший надлежащего возраста
an Exclusion Bill — по этому парламентскому биллю пытались отстранить наследника (будущего Иакова II) от управления государством
Act of Habeas Corpus — закон о неприкосновенности личности, принятый английским парламентом в 1689 г. (буквально на латыни Habeas Corpus tuum — располагай своим телом)
Rye House Plot — заговор об убийстве Карла II и его наследника;
Rye House — (Ржаной дом) назывался дом в Хертфордшире, где встречались заговорщики to be at the high — достигнуть крайнего предела.
63 gentry — дворянство
yeomanry — мелкие землевладельцы
freeholders — свободные землевладельцы
copyholders — копигольдеры, наследственные арендаторы помещичьей земли
leaseholders — лизгольдеры, арендаторы земли
cotters — батраки
the Petition of Right — Петиция о праве
Tonnage and Poundage — пошлина за тоннаж и пошлина с веса
the Forest Law — закон о лесах
the Act for the Settlement of Ireland — закон о колонизации, или заселении, Ирландии (1652, in response to the Irish Rebellion of 1641)
the Corn Laws — Хлебные законы
«...Данное пособие предлагает взвешенный и разносторонний исторический нарратив, подкрепленный значительным количеством историографических источников. ...Наряду с эндоцентрическим национальным ракурсом истории, предлагается экзоцентрический взгляд (взгляд извне). Как считает автор, объективный подход в отношении истории Великобритании будет продуктивен, поскольку позволит лучше понять причинно-следственные связи во временной перспективе и современность».

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«Затронуты все основные хронологические периоды, начиная с древнейших времен до буржуазной революции XVII века. Описываются социальный, политический, культурный аспекты жизни. Одним из несомненных достоинств рецензируемой работы является аутентичность материала, актуальность и вместе с тем занимательность текстов по столь сложной проблематике».

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