her in Bolton Castle.[1] During her imprisonment there and elsewhere she became implicated in a plot for assassinating the English queen, and seizing the reins of government in behalf of herself and the Jesuits.

It was a time when the Protestant faith seemed everywhere marked for destruction. In France, evil counsellors had induced the king to order a massacre of the Reformers, and on St. Bartholomew's Day thousands were slain. The Pope, misinformed in the matter, ordered a solemn thanksgiving for the slaughter, and struck a gold medal to commemorate it.* Philip of Spain, whose cold, impassive face scarcely ever relaxed into a smile, now laughed outright. Still more recently, William the Silent, who had driven out the Catholics from a part of the Netherlands,[2] had been assassinated by a Jesuit fanatic.

449. Elizabeth beheads Mary. — Under these circumstances, Elizabeth, aroused to a sense of her danger, reluctantly signed the Scottish queen's death warrant, and Mary, after nineteen years' imprisonment, was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle.[3]

As soon as the news of her execution was brought to the queen, she became alarmed at the political consequences the act might have in Europe. With her usual duplicity she bitterly upbraided the minister who had advised it, and throwing Davidson, her secretary, into the Tower, fined him £10,000, the payment of which reduced him to beggary.[4] Not satisfied with this, Elizabeth even had the effrontery to write a letter of condolence to Mary's son (James VI.) declaring that his mother had been beheaded by mistake! Yet facts prove that not only had Elizabeth determined to put Mary to death, — a measure whose justice is still vehemently disputed, — but she had suggested to her keeper that it might be expedient to have her privately murdered.

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1 Bolton Castle, Yorkshire.

2 Netherlands, or Low Countries: now represented in great part by Belgium and Holland. * See The Leading Facts of French History.

3 Fotheringay Castle, Northamptonshire, demolished by James I.

4 £10,000: a sum probably equal to more than $300,000 now.

450. The Spanish Armada. — Mary was hardly under ground when a new and greater danger threatened the country. At her death, the Scottish queen, disgusted with her mean-spirited son James,[1] left her claim to the English throne to Philip II. of Spain, who was then the most powerful sovereign in Europe, ruling over a territory equal to that of the Roman Empire in its greatest extent. Philip resolved to invade England, conquer it, annex it to his own possessions, and restore the religion of Rome. To accomplish this, he began fitting out the "Invincible Armada,"[2] an immense fleet, intended to carry 20,000 soldiers, and to receive on its way re-enforcements of 30,000 more from the Spanish army in the Netherlands.

451. Drake's Expedition; Sailing of the Armada; Elizabeth at Tilbury. — Sir Francis Drake determined to put a check to Philip's preparations. He heard that the enemy's fleet was gathered at Cadiz. He sailed there, and in spite of all opposition effectually "singed the Spanish king's beard," as he said, by burning and otherwise destroying more than a hundred ships. This so crippled the expedition that it had to be given up for that year, but the next summer a vast armament set sail. It consisted of six squadrons carrying 2500 cannon, and having on board, it is said, shackles and instruments of torture to bind and punish the English heretics.

The impending peril thoroughly aroused England. All parties, both Catholics and Protestants, rose and joined in the defence of their country and their queen. An army of 16,000 men under the Earl of Leicester gathered at Tilbury,[3] on the Thames, to protect London. Elizabeth reviewed the troops, saying with true Tudor spirit, "Though I have but the feeble body of a woman, I have the heart of a king, and of a king of England, too."

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1 James had deserted his mother, and accepted a pension from Elizabeth.

2 Armada: an armed fleet.

3 Tilbury: a fort on the left bank of the Thames, about twenty miles below London. Some authorities make this review at Tilbury subsequent to the defeat of the Armada.

452. The Battle. — The English sea-forces under Howard, a Catholic, as admiral, and Drake, second in command, were assembled at Plymouth, watching for the enemy. When the long-looked-for fleet came in sight, beacon fires were lighted on the hills to give the alarm.

> "For swift to east and swift to west the warning radiance spread;
> High on St. Michael's mount it shone, it shone on Beachy Head.
> Far o'er the deep the Spaniard sees along each southern shire,
> Cape beyond cape in endless range those twinkling points of fire."[1]

The enemy's ships moved steadily towards the coast in the form of a crescent seven miles in length; but Howard and Drake were ready to receive them. With their fast-sailing cruisers they sailed around the unwieldy Spanish war-ships, firing four shots to their one, and "harassing them as a swarm of wasps would a bear." Several of the enemy's vessels were captured, and one blown up. At last the commander thought best to make for Calais to repair damages and take a fresh start. The English followed. As soon as night came on, Drake sent eight blazing fire-ships to drift down among the Armada as it lay at anchor. Thoroughly alarmed at the prospect of being burned where they lay, the Spaniards cut their cables and made sail for the north.

453. Pursuit and Destruction of the Armada. — They were hotly pursued by the English, who, having lost but a single vessel in the fight, might have cut them to pieces, had not the queen's suicidal economy stinted them both in powder and provisions.[2] Meanwhile the Spanish forces kept on. The wind increased to a gale, the gale to a furious storm. As in such weather the Armada could not turn back, the commander attempted to go around Scotland and return home that way; but ship after ship was driven ashore and wrecked on the wild and rocky coast. On one strand, less than five miles long, over a thousand corpses were

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1 Macaulay, The Armada.

2 The English crews suffered so much for want of food through Elizabeth's parsimony, that thousands of them came home from the great victory only to die.

counted. Those who escaped the waves met death by the hands of the inhabitants. Eventually, only about a third of the fleet, half manned by crews stricken by pestilence and death, succeeded in reaching Spain. Thus ended Philip's boasted attack on England. When all was over, Elizabeth went in state to St. Paul's to offer thanks for the victory. It was afterward commemorated by a medal which the queen caused to be struck, bearing this inscription: "God blew with his winds, and they were scattered."

454. Insurrection in Ireland. — A few years later, a terrible rebellion broke out in Ireland. From its partial conquest in the time of Henry II., the condition of that island continued to be deplorable. First, the chiefs of the native tribes fought constantly among themselves; next, the English attempted to force the Protestant religion upon a people who detested it; lastly, the greed and misgovernment of the rulers put a climax to these miseries, so that the country became, as Raleigh said, "a commonwealth of common woe." Under Elizabeth a war of extermination began, so merciless that the queen herself declared that if the work of destruction went on much longer, "she should have nothing left but ashes and corpses to rule over." Then, but not till then, the starving remnant of the people submitted, and England gained a barren victory which has ever since carried with it its own curse.

455. The First Poor Law. — In 1601 the first effective English poor law was passed. It required each parish to make provision for such paupers as were unable to work, while the able-bodied were compelled to labor for their own support. This measure relieved much of the distress which had prevailed during the two previous reigns, and forms the basis of the law in force at the present time.

456. Elizabeth's Death. — The death of the great queen, in 1603, was as sad as her life had been brilliant. Her favorite, Essex, Shakespeare's intimate friend, had been beheaded for an attempted rebellion against her power. From that time she grew, as she said, "heavy-hearted." Her old friends and counsellors

were dead, her people no longer welcomed her with their former enthusiasm; treason had grown so common that Hentzner, a German traveller in England, said that he counted three hundred heads of persons, who had suffered death for this crime, exposed on London Bridge. Elizabeth felt that her sun was nearly set; gradually her strength declined; she ceased to leave her palace, and sat muttering to herself all day long, "Mortua, sed non sepulta!" "Dead, but not buried!" At length she lay propped up on cushions on the floor,[1] "tired," as she said, "of reigning, and tired of life." In that sullen mood she departed to join that silent majority whose realm under earth is bounded by the sides of the grave. "Four days afterward," says a writer of that time, "she was forgotten." One may see her tomb, with her full-length, recumbent effigy, in the north aisle of Henry VII.'s Chapel, and in the opposite aisle the tomb and effigy of her old rival and enemy, Mary Queen of Scots. The sculptured features of both look placid. "After life's fitful fever they sleep well."

457. Summary. — The Elizabethan period was in every respect remarkable. It was great in its men of thought, and equally great in its men of action. It was greatest, however, in its successful resistance to the armed hand of religious oppression. The defeat of the Armada gave renewed courage to the cause of the Reformation, not only in England, but in every Protestant country in Europe. It meant that a movement had begun which, though it might be temporarily hindered, would at last secure to all civilized countries the right of private judgment and of liberty of conscience.

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[1] See Delaroche's fine picture, "The Death of Queen Elizabeth."

GENERAL VIEW OF THE TUDOR PERIOD.—1485-1603.

I. GOVERNMENT. — II. RELIGION. — III. MILITARY AFFAIRS. — IV. LITERATURE, LEARNING, AND ART. — V. GENERAL INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE. — VI. MODE OF LIFE, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.

GOVERNMENT.

458. Absolutism of the Crown; Free Trade; the Post-Office. — During a great part of the Tudor period the power of the crown was well-nigh absolute. Four causes contributed to this: 1. The destruction of a very large part of the feudal nobility by the Wars of the Roses;[1] 2. The removal of many of the higher clergy from the House of Lords;[2] 3. The creation of a new nobility dependent on the king; 4. The desire of the great body of the people for "peace at any price."

Under Henry VII. and Elizabeth the courts of Star-Chamber and High Commission exercised arbitrary power, and often inflicted cruel punishments for offences against the government, and for heresy or the denial of the religious supremacy of the sovereign.

Henry VII. established a treaty of free trade, called the "Great Intercourse," between England and the Netherlands. Under Elizabeth the first postmaster-general entered upon his duties, though the post-office was not fully established until the reign of her successor.

RELIGION.

459 Establishment of the Protestant Church of England. — Henry VIII. suppressed the Roman Catholic monasteries, seized their property, and ended by declaring the Church of England independent

[1] In the last Parliament before the Wars of the Roses (1454) there were 53 temporal peers; at the beginning of the reign of Henry VII. (1485) there were only 29.

[2] Out of a total of barely 90 peers, Henry VIII., by the suppression of the monasteries, removed upwards of 36 abbots and priors. He, however, added five new bishops, which made the House of Lords number about 59.

of the Pope. Thenceforth, he assumed the title of Head of the National Church. Under Edward VI. Protestantism was established by law. Mary led a reaction in favor of Romanism, but her successor, Elizabeth, reinstated the Protestant form of worship. Under Elizabeth the Puritans demanded that the national church be purified from all Romish forms and doctrines. Severe laws were passed under Elizabeth for the punishment of both Catholics and Puritans, all persons being required to conform to the Church of England.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

460. Arms and Armor; the Navy. — Though gunpowder had been in use for two centuries, yet full suits of armor were still worn during a great part of the period. An improved match-lock gun, with the pistol, an Italian invention, and heavy cannon were introduced. Until the death of Henry VIII. foot-soldiers continued to be armed with the long-bow; but under Edward VI. that weapon was superseded by firearms. The principal wars of the period were with Scotland, France, and Spain, the last being by far the most important, and ending with the destruction of the Armada.

Henry VIII. established a permanent navy, and built several vessels of upwards of 1000 tons register. The largest men of war under Elizabeth carried forty cannon and a crew of several hundred men.

LITERATURE, LEARNING, AND ART.

461. Schools. — The revival of learning gave a great impetus to education. The money which had once been given to monasteries was now spent in building schools, colleges, and hospitals. Dean Colet established the free grammar school of St. Paul's, several colleges were endowed at Oxford and Cambridge, and Edward VI. opened upwards of forty free schools in different parts of the country, of which the Blue-Coat School, London, is one of the best known. Improved text-books were prepared for the schools, and Lilye's Latin Grammar, first published in 1513 for the use of Dean Colet's school, continued a standard work for over three hundred years.

462. Literature; the Theatre. — The latter part of the period deserves the name of the "Golden Age of English Literature." More,

Sydney, Hooker, Jewell, were the leading prose writers; while Spenser, Marlowe, Jonson, and Shakespeare represented the poets.

In 1574 a public theatre was erected in London, in which Shakespeare was a stockholder. Not very long after a second was opened. At both these (the Globe and the Blackfriars) the great dramatist appeared in his own plays, and in such pieces as King John, Richard the Third, and the Henrys, he taught his countrymen more of the true spirit and meaning of the nation's history than they had ever learned before. His historical plays are chiefly based on Holinshed and Hall, two chroniclers of the period.

463. Progress of Science; Superstitions. — The discoveries of Columbus, Cabot, Magellan, and other navigators had proved the earth to be a globe. Copernicus, a Prussian astronomer, now demonstrated the fact that it both turns on its axis and revolves around the sun, but the discovery was not accepted until many years later.

On the other hand, astrology, witchcraft, and the transmutation of copper and lead into gold were generally believed in. In preaching before Queen Elizabeth, Bishop Jewell urged that stringent measures be taken with witches and sorcerers, saying that through their demoniacal acts "your grace's subjects pine away even unto death, their color fadeth, their flesh rotteth." Lord Bacon and other eminent men held the same belief, and many persons eventually suffered death for the practice of witchcraft.

464. Architecture. — The Gothic, or Pointed, style of architecture reached its final stage (the Perpendicular) in the early part of this period. The first examples of it have already been mentioned at the close of the preceding period. See Paragraph No. 376. After the close of Henry VII.'s reign no attempts were made to build any grand church edifices until St. Paul's Cathedral was rebuilt by Wren, in the seventeenth century, in the Italian, or classical style.

In the latter part of the Tudor period many stately country houses[1] and grand city mansions were built, ornamented with carved woodwork and bay-windows. Castles were no longer constructed, and, as the country was at peace, many of those which had been built were abandoned, though a few castellated mansions like Thornbury Gloucestershire were built in Henry VIII.'s time. The streets of London still continued to be very narrow, and the tall houses, with projecting stories, were so near together at the top that neighbors living on opposite sides of the street might almost shake hands from the upper windows.

[1] Such as Hatfield House, Knowle and Hardwick Hall; and, in London, mansions similar to Crosby Hall.

GENERAL INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE.

465. Foreign Trade. — The geographical discoveries of this period gave a great impulse to foreign trade with Africa, Brazil, and North America. The wool trade continued to increase, and also commerce with the East Indies. In 1600 the East India Company was established, thus laying the foundation of England's Indian empire, and ships now brought cargoes direct to England by way of the Cape of Good Hope. Sir Francis Drake did a flourishing business in plundering Spanish settlements in America and Spanish treasure-ships, and Sir John Hawkins became wealthy through the slave trade, — kidnapping negroes on the coast of Guinea, and selling them to the Spanish West India colonies. The domestic trade of England was still carried on largely by great annual fairs. Trade, however, was much deranged by the quantities of debased money issued under Henry VIII. and Edward VI.

Elizabeth reformed the currency, and ordered the mint to send out coin which no longer had a lie stamped on its face, thereby setting an example to all future governments, whether monarchical or republican.

MODE OF LIFE, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.

466. Life in the Country and the City. — In the cities, this was an age of luxury; but on the farms, the laborer was glad to get a bundle of straw for a bed, and a wooden trencher to eat from. Vegetables were scarcely known, and fresh meat was eaten only by the well-to-do. The cottages were built of sticks and mud, without chimneys, and were nearly as bare of furniture as the wigwam of an American Indian.

The rich kept several mansions and country houses, but paid little attention to cleanliness; and when the filth and vermin in one became unendurable, they left it "to sweeten," as they said, and went to another of their estates. The dress of the nobles continued to be of the most costly materials and the gayest colors.

At table, a great variety of dishes were served on silver plate, but

fingers were still used in place of forks. Tea and coffee were unknown, and beer was the usual drink at breakfast and supper.

Carriages were not in use, except by Queen Elizabeth, and all journeys were performed on horseback. Merchandise was also generally transported on pack-horses, the roads rarely being good enough for the passage of wagons. The principal amusements were the theatre, dancing, masquerading, bull and bear baiting (worrying a bull or bear with dogs), cock-fighting, and gambling.

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IX.

"It is the nature of the devil of tyranny to tear and rend the body which he leaves." — MACAULAY.

BEGINNING WITH THE DIVINE RIGHT OF KINGS, AND ENDING WITH THE DIVINE RIGHT OF THE PEOPLE.

KING or PARLIAMENT?

HOUSE OF STUART. — 1603–1649, 1660–1714.

James I., 1603–1625.	Charles II., 1660–1685.
Charles I., 1625–1649.	James II., 1685–1688.
The Commonwealth and Protectorate, 1649–1660.	William & Mary,[1] 1689–1702.
	Anne, 1702–1714.

467. Accession of James I. — Elizabeth was the last of the Tudor family. By birth, James Stuart, only son of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, and great grandson of Margaret, sister of Henry VIII., was the nearest heir to the crown.[2] He was already king of Scotland under the title of James VI. He now, by choice of Parliament, became James I. of England. By his accession the two countries were united under one sovereign, but each retained its own Parliament, its own church, and its own laws.[3] The new monarch found himself ruler over three kingdoms, each professing a different religion. Puritanism prevailed in Scotland, Catholicism in Ireland, Anglicanism or Episcopacy in England.

[1] Orange-Stuart.

[2] See Table, Paragraph No. 421.

[3] On his coins and in his proclamations, James styled himself King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland. But the term Great Britain did not properly come into use until somewhat more than a hundred years later, when, by an act of Parliament under Anne, Scotland and England were legally united.