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KING JOHN SIGNING MAGNA CHARTA.

Signed by King John at Runnymede in 1215, in the presence of Bishop, Baron, and London Merchant, Magna Charta is regarded as one of the greatest charters in the history of freedom. Altho' it has been called the "Bible of our Constitution."

W. L. C.

From page

MODERN TEACHING

Practical Suggestions for Junior and Senior Schools

General Editor
ENID BLYTON

VOL. 1

JUNIOR HISTORY

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SENIOR HISTORY

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PREFACE

IN every branch of human endeavour methods are changing—new ways are taking the place of old. That this is true of teaching is nowhere more clearly demonstrated than in the latest suggestions of the Board of Education embodied in their excellent Handbook.

Teachers in every part of the country have welcomed these suggestions and many of them have wished that somewhere was to be found a volume, or a series of volumes, in which the suggestions were faithfully followed, extended and developed. With the publication of MODERN TEACHING this wish will be fulfilled.

To every teacher glancing through the pages of these volumes it will be at once apparent that the contributors have approached their task with enthusiasm. Expert knowledge and experience have gone hand in hand with originality, and the result is a thorough and comprehensive work, solving most of the problems likely to beset the modern teacher.

It was an excellent idea to tackle not only the teaching *matter* required, but also the *method* of teaching it. The model or specimen lessons are a new departure in an educational work, and will show experienced teachers the modern way of treating the various subjects, while the inexperienced teachers will be able to follow the right course at the beginning of their careers.

The many syllabuses are admirable in every way. These are not meant to be ready-made for any and every teacher to use, but they will be found excellent guides in the drawing up of termly or yearly schemes, or of schemes for longer periods still. Every syllabus is based on the Board of Education's "Suggestions," and teachers may feel assured that in drawing up their own schemes on the lines of those suggested in these volumes they will be following as closely as possible the desires of the Board.

It is apparent that no trouble has been spared to make MODERN TEACHING of the utmost practical value. Every contributor has produced a section admirably complete in itself, and the six volumes together form a unique and invaluable collection of up-to-date material unavailable hitherto. The diagrams, maps, pictures, photographs and charts must also have a word of praise—it is evident that they have been carefully chosen to enhance the value of the text.

Teachers will note that these volumes will be especially helpful to those likely to need assistance regarding the Board's new recommendations for the separating of Junior and Senior Schools. Many of the courses have been prepared in two parts, one for the Juniors and one for the Seniors, and it is further intended, by means of a unique Service System, to keep teachers in close touch with developments in the educational world involving changes in the teaching or the planning of the subjects dealt with in these volumes.

MODERN TEACHING will thus live up to its name, and it can safely be predicted that the volumes, far from spending their days on the shelf, will pass most of their time on the desk, within easy reach of the teacher's hand.

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HISTORY

“People will not look forward to posterity, who never look backward to their ancestors ”—BURKE.

FOREWORD

THE handbook for teachers recently issued by the Board of Education has certainly one outstanding virtue. The advice given therein is "permissive," and not arbitrary. Written in the form of "suggestions," it is broad in its outlook, reasonable in its requirements, and sufficiently elastic to give freedom to the teacher.

The official stamp which it bears would alone entitle it to careful consideration, but as an independent treatise it would well hold its own. Expert knowledge and opinion have been brought to bear upon it.

The section dealing with history indicates the various aspects of the subject; viz. the political, religious, social, economic, and commercial. Can these several aspects be combined in a single volume on history? Only on one condition, that the book is shorn of unessentials.

In this handbook on history the authors have attempted to deal with all the most important divisions of the subject, to include only what can reasonably be taught to children, and to blend all the subject-matter into a united whole.

Time was when Arithmetic was Arithmetic, and Algebra, Algebra, and "ne'er the twain did meet." So it was with the various branches of history. But happily a more reasonable view now prevails, and it is

realised that the various aspects of the subject not only logically merge into one another but are interdependent.

Supplementary reading on the part of the teacher is a necessary counterpart to the historical information included in this book. The nature and treatment of the subject-matter contained therein may serve at least to point the way, and the bibliography, which has been carefully and economically chosen, will doubtless be found helpful.

The book cannot pretend to be a full narrative of events; but it can claim to be an attempt to record the social development of the nation in relation to its economic conditions, political institutions, and overseas activities.

At the same time the subject is treated in narrative form, is chronological in sequence, and gives prominence to leading persons and events. Altogether the book is written so that the contents should furnish material for the history lessons.

THE following features in the teaching of history in schools are emphasised by the Board of Education for the guidance of head teachers in drawing up syllabuses of instruction, and for the help of class teachers in imparting a knowledge of the subject.

GENERAL

1. Syllabuses should *vary* with the *circumstances* of the school.
2. Children should hear *graphic* descriptions of great events. (An outline narrative does not appeal to children.)
3. Social and local history interest children, but are best taught as *illustrating the national story*.
4. The history course should always be continued to *modern times*.
5. Some knowledge of *ancient history* is desirable.
6. Attention should be concentrated on the *broadest and simplest aspects*.
7. Regular *revision* throughout the course is essential.
8. *Informative* pictures are indispensable.
9. History is an instrument of *moral training*.

JUNIOR

1. Stories should be drawn from the *whole range of history*; the *romantic element* should predominate.
2. The aim should be to give points of interest in historical sequence or as a *basis for later work*.

SENIOR

1. The teacher must see the story in right relation to the *history of the world*, and in this connection the story of Britain and the British Commonwealth of Nations must hold a prominent place.
2. The inter-relationship of *history and geography* must be borne in mind.
3. In dealing with recent times *controversial topics* should be avoided.
4. Training in *note-taking* and *note-making* is necessary.

5. A framework of *dates* is important, and also time charts.

6. Every encouragement should be given to the reading of good historical *poetry and fiction*.

This would seem a goodly array, but no one who has made a study of the subject would deny that the advice proffered is sound, practical and helpful.

The aim of the authors of this volume has been to incorporate the foregoing features in the treatment of the all-important subject of British history. They realise that the suggestions have been drawn up by experts, that they are permissive and not arbitrary, and that the sole object of the Board of Education in compiling the "Suggestions" has been to render all possible assistance to the teacher in handling a subject which not only makes a universal appeal, but which is so pervasive that it touches every phase of our existence. With this knowledge they have drawn up a scheme of history covering the whole range from earliest to modern times, which they hope will be of great service to young teachers, a useful aid to the more experienced, a time-saving expedient, and an up-to-date presentation of the events of history for the use of those who realise the importance of the subject, and who desire to teach it with zeal and efficiency.

HISTORY

FOR THE JUNIOR SCHOOL

"In the Junior Classes the appeal to the child's imagination, which in all teaching of history plays so great a part, will be of primary importance; simple attractive stories should form the substance of the instruction. These stories need not be confined to any one country or to any one age. In addition to stories from the history of the British Isles, the course might well include some stories of the Bible lands, of the Siege of Troy, Leonidas, Horatius, Charlemagne, etc., as well as similarly outstanding characters of more modern times.

"The important thing in such teaching is to concentrate on those parts of the world's history from which modern civilisation can trace a direct descent, i.e. Palestine, Greece, and Rome."—*Suggestions of the Board of Education.*

I. A STORY OF BIBLE DAYS

NEARLY two thousand years before Christ was born, there lived a shepherd lad named Joseph. The country in which he lived was called Canaan. It lies in the neighbourhood of the Red Sea and Egypt. Nearly four thousand years have now passed since Joseph, a lad of seventeen, tended his father's cattle in this land. His companions were his ten brothers, all older than himself. He had one younger, named Benjamin, who had not yet become a shepherd.

Joseph's father's name was Jacob. For some special reason Jacob loved Joseph more than he loved his other sons. One way in which he showed this preference was to buy for Joseph a fine coat. It was made of cloth, probably from goat's hair, and into this cloth beautiful colours were woven. One can imagine that Joseph was very fond of this handsome garment and that his brothers were jealous of him.

They allowed this jealousy to grow, and while they tended their father's

cattle on the grassy plains of Canaan, they plotted to kill Joseph.

But Reuben, the eldest of all, would not let them shed blood, although he, too, was jealous. He thought that to shed the blood of his brother would be the deed of a savage, and the sons of Jacob were not savages. They were civilised men—Jews. They were shepherds, living together as one happy family. They wore clothes; they used money; they could count; they cultivated the land in order to grow their own food, and made bread. Savages do not do these things.

Reuben easily persuaded the nine brothers that they must not commit such a terrible deed as murder.

Now near at hand was a pit which had doubtless been dug for drainage purposes. It happened to be dry, so they removed Joseph's handsome coat and lowered him into the pit. Then "they sat down to eat bread."

Soon after, they saw a company of merchants coming along with their camels laden with merchandise. The men proved to be Ishmeelites coming from Gilead, and they were passing

through Canaan to Egypt, there to sell their goods. The goods consisted of the produce of their country—"spicery and balm and myrrh."

So Judah, one of the brothers, suggested that they should take Joseph out of the pit and sell him to these men, as a slave, for twenty pieces of silver.

They hailed the merchants, who examined Joseph. Twenty silver coins were produced and counted out. The brothers gathered round, checked the number of coins, and handed the seventeen-year-old youth to the Ishmeelite merchants.

Reuben appears to have been absent during this transaction, for when he looked into the pit and found Joseph missing, he rent his clothes as a sign of his distress. So did the poor father, Jacob, when he saw Joseph's coat, stained with blood. But it was the blood of a kid, which the brothers purposely killed in order to deceive the poor old man. Jacob not only tore his clothes—the sign of mourning in those days—but he put sackcloth around his loins.

Joseph was taken by the Ishmeelites into Egypt, where he was sold to Potiphar, an Egyptian captain of King Pharaoh's guard.

Joseph grew into a clever man, and was so capable that he became the head of the Egyptian officer's household. Then he was cast into a prison dungeon through no fault of his own.

Some time after, Pharaoh dreamed some peculiar dreams, and Joseph, who was known to be able to interpret dreams, was sent for by the King. He shaved, washed and changed his clothes before he presented himself. He was able to interpret the King's

dreams, warning him that, during the years when the land would yield plenty of corn, he should take steps to store food against the long famine that he had dreamed would presently prevail over all the lands.

Pharaoh took his advice, and made him the first man in the land, head of his advisers and head of his servants, although he was but thirty years old. He took a ring from his own hand and put it on Joseph's. He arrayed Joseph in fine clothes as befitted his position, and gave him a chain of office to wear round his neck. Joseph married and settled down to his new work.

He set up store-houses all over Egypt; and during the long period when the corn grew so luxuriously on the fertile banks of the Nile, he gathered all the surplus corn in store-houses in the cities of Egypt. Then famine spread, not only over Egypt, but in Canaan and other countries near.

So Joseph opened the store-houses and sold corn to the Egyptians, and paid the money to Pharaoh, who thus became a very rich man. And when the Egyptians had no more money left they exchanged their cattle and horses and lands for corn. And so all the land and cattle became Pharaoh's. Then Joseph gave the Egyptians seed and land in which to sow it. A fifth of the produce of the land was to be given each year to Pharaoh as rent, and the rest kept for themselves.

Now Jacob had not stored up grain in Canaan for use during the famine. So when he needed food he sent his ten sons to Egypt to buy corn. They brought money to pay for the corn and carried grain away in sacks. Joseph recognised his brothers, but they did not know him, for he was

much changed, and wore Egyptian clothes. He returned their payment, by hiding it in their sacks, and told them that if they came again they must bring Benjamin, their youngest brother.

The famine continued for two years, and they had to come again, this time with Benjamin, much against Jacob's wish. They brought also a present for Joseph, "a little balm and a little honey, spices and myrrh, nuts and almonds."

This time, too, they brought double payment, and the money which Joseph had returned previously. Joseph invited them to his house to dine with him. His steward ushered them in and they feasted. Then they were sent off with full sacks, but presently were overtaken by the steward and their sacks searched, because Joseph's silver cup was missing. It was found in Benjamin's sack—not stolen, but placed there at the command of Joseph, who sought an excuse to bring back his brothers. They pleaded their innocence and rent their clothes in their agony. Then they loaded their asses and returned to Egypt with the steward.

Then Joseph repented and told them who he was. He said that the famine would continue for five more years, and so they must go back and fetch Jacob and his family and servants into Egypt in order that they should not starve.

Joseph gave his brothers changes of raiment, and to Benjamin he gave also three hundred pieces of silver. He also sent twenty asses laden with corn and bread and meat to his father. Then Jacob determined to go to his long-lost son Joseph.

Joseph stepped into his chariot, and his servants drove him forth to meet his father, and he brought him and his sons and their wives and children and servants into Egypt. He presented them to Pharaoh, who was pleased to see them, and asked them their occupation. They told him they were shepherds, as their fathers before them had been. Their trade was to rear cattle, and they had brought their flocks and herds with them. They told him, too, that in their own land there was now no pasture left for their flocks. So Pharaoh gave them a piece of land in Egypt, called Goshen, on which to settle, and Joseph fed them and their flocks during the period of famine.

TEACHING NOTES

The advanced state of civilisation in Egypt is evidenced by :

1. The occupation of Joseph and his brethren. They reared and tended sheep. Uncivilised people live by the chase.
2. The people could weave cloth and dye it.
3. They grew corn and made bread.
4. They used coins for money. Barter is used in the lowest forms of civilisation.
5. The Egyptians lived in well-built houses, and Joseph owned a carriage and servants.
6. The king and chief officials wore costly raiment, and had rings and chains of office (cf. our present mayors).
7. Metal-working had become an art.

Other stories of Bible days, as the Life of Moses the Law-giver, and David the Psalmist and King, could be similarly treated.

The object of these Bible stories is two-fold :

1. To interest children in a wonderful narrative, always dear to them.
2. To weave into them, as subtly as possible, some information of the early civilisation of the East.

2. THE ANCIENT GREEKS— THEIR GODS AND MYTHS

THE Greeks of old were chiefly shepherds. As early as 1000 B.C. they knew how to build simple houses of clay and bricks. They clothed themselves in dyed woollen cloth which they bought from the Phenician merchants.

The Phenicians came from Tyre and Sidon, those great cities of Bible days. They had already learned the art of manufacturing, and also that of writing, from the wonderful Egyptians.

This contact with the Phenicians brought the Greeks into touch with much that was beautiful and artistic. They soon learned to love literature and music.

They sang of the deeds of their warriors and the great feats of their heathen gods—whose home was on Mount Olympus in Thessaly. Bards sprang up who accompanied their own singing on the lyre, and were, in consequence, invited to the feasts of kings and nobles.

The most famous of these ancient singers is Homer. He wrote in verse the story of the siege of Troy by the Greeks. His story is known as "The Iliad." He is also credited by some with having written "The Odyssey." His collection of songs was looked upon as sacred; indeed, it was as sacred to the Greeks as is the Bible to us to-day.

Not only did he tell of the heroes of Troy, but he sang of the gods who were supposed to dwell on Mount Olympus and who governed the lives and destiny of the Greeks.

Their two chief gods were Zeus and Apollo. Zeus (or Jupiter) ruled over

the other gods and was the King of Mount Olympus. He was the strongest of all the gods. His chief weapon was the thunderbolt, and his spear a flash of lightning. With these terrible weapons he slew all his enemies and all humans who did wrong against the gods. His favourite bird was the fierce, cruel eagle.

Apollo was the god of light who ruled the shepherds and kept their flocks from harm. He was also the god of poetry, music, and prophecy. The rays of the sun which can be seen glinting across a stormy sunset were supposed to be the golden arrows of Apollo. If mortals offended him he killed them with these arrows.

Diana, Apollo's twin sister, was the goddess of the moon. She was a huntress and carried silver arrows to slay the guilty, such as any human who tortured dumb animals. Her favourite animal was the stag.

Mars was the god of cruel war and bloodshed. He hated all beautiful things and all gentle creatures. If he found a very gentle boy he would send a wild animal to attack him. Once he sent a wild boar to attack a gentle youth named Adonis. Venus found him dying and wept tears over him. Her tears mingled with his blood and became red roses. We get our words *martial*, *marshal*, and *martinet* from the word Mars.

Venus was the goddess of love and beauty. She was born from the foam of the sea and her chariot was drawn by the gentle doves. Unlike Mars, she loved all things beautiful and hated coarseness and cruelty.

Neptune, the brother of Jupiter, was god of the sea. He ruled the waves and caused tempests or calms

HISTORY FOR THE JUNIOR SCHOOL

to arise at his bidding. He was the god of the sailors, and to this day we hail King Neptune as the mythical ruler of the sea. He wore a crown on his head, and held a trident in his hands as a sign of his power over the waves. His attendants were called Tritons.

Ceres was the goddess of all the produce of the fields. She was called "The Great Earth Mother," and was the goddess of harvests. The farmers prayed to her for rain or fair weather and for good crops.

Now all these Greek gods and goddesses and many others dwelt with Zeus (or Jupiter) on Mount Olympus and did his bidding there and on earth. In the quiet haunts of earth were hundreds of lesser gods—nymphs, fauns, and the Tritons. The nymphs lived in meadows, mountains, and groves and in springs, rivers, and seas. The great god Pan—a god of the shepherds—was served by the fauns, and the Tritons served the mighty Neptune. In the Greek mind, no place was uninhabited; even the deserts were stalked by giants and overrun by pygmies.

The stories or myths of the ancient gods of Greece had a great fascination for the people, and were put into song by their bards. Mythology was their religion, and it gave to them, and has given to us, a vast field for the imagination.

The following is a favourite myth.

3. THE KING AND THE OAK

CERES was a Greek goddess. She was called the Earth Mother because the valleys and fields owed their beauty and their vegetation to her. She was the goddess of the

flowers, the trees, and the fruits, of the sparkling springs and the frisking lambs. She lived in the valley of Enna on Mount Olympus in Thessaly.

One day she was walking on the earth, unseen by humans, in a beautiful grove of oak-trees in Thessaly. She was accompanied by the wood-nymphs who dwelt in and under the great and glorious trees of the dells. Ceres and the nymphs loved this grove, so did the god Pan, who sometimes came with his little horns and his goat's feet and skipped and danced about with the dainty nymphs.

Now all the inhabitants of the earth were grateful to Ceres for these glorious glades of trees. They were especially grateful for the tall grand oaks, and looked upon this particular grove as sacred to the goddess Ceres.

But there was a King building a new palace nearby. He ordered his woodmen to saw down some of the oak trees in the glade, and to use the wood for the roof. So twenty of them took axes and saws and set out to do the King's bidding. But when they saw exactly which trees the King wanted, they hesitated, and told him that that particular grove was sacred to Ceres.

He was in a great rage at once, for how dared anyone disobey him! So he took an axe and with a mighty swing sent the blade into the trunk of one of the beautiful oak trees. As he struck the tree, a piercing shriek, like a woman's, was heard. He had struck and killed a wood-nymph.

Then Ceres came from the spreading branches and warned him of her special power. The King was most insolent, and told her that he meant to have her trees for the roof of his

palace. So with a sad expression she left him.

He ordered the frightened woodmen to cut down every oak tree, and as each one fell with a mighty crash there was a moan from the dying wood-nymph within.

The King's palace was completed, and he lived proudly within it. But soon a famine came to Thessaly. Ceres had not forgotten the King's cruelty to her oak grove. So she ordered Famine to dry up the springs and the rivers in the grove. Soon the grass disappeared, and the peasants moved their flocks and herds to other lands.

Then the King blamed his servants, and they left him, till only the King and his daughter were left in all the land.

The whole country gradually became a desert and the King and his daughter had to sit by the highway and beg food from travellers passing from one city to another.

Finally he sold his daughter as a slave to a passing merchant in order to get food, and at last he died in his empty palace, forsaken by everyone. Even Ceres could not bring back the sacred grove of oaks or restore to life the wood-nymphs he had killed.

TEACHING NOTES

1. The term "cereal," the name commonly applied to any corn or grain used as food, is derived from the Greek goddess Ceres.

2. Reference should be made to the British oak, the greatest and most venerable of all our trees.

"Hearts of oak are our ships" (one of the former uses of oak).

3. Touch upon the effect of hewing too much timber, as the King did. Need for re-afforestation.

4. GEOFFREY OF MONMOUTH— THE FIRST GREAT STORY- TELLER

VERY little is known of the early life of Geoffrey of Monmouth.

He was born in Monmouth in the reign of Henry I, in the early part of the twelfth century. As was customary in those days, he received one name, "Geoffrey." All his boyhood days were spent in a monastery, and when he grew up he became a historian. The monasteries were really schools, and the monks teachers. Geoffrey learned to read and to write—a rare accomplishment for boys in those days. The books used were really parchment scrolls on which were written brief chronicles or accounts of the Kings of England. They began with the history of the Saxon Kings, and nothing at all was said about the British race who lived in Britain before the Saxons came.

Now Geoffrey was a Welsh boy, although Monmouth is not now considered a county of Wales. His forbears were Britons, a branch of the Celts. The Britons had been driven into Wales, Scotland, and Ireland by the Saxons, and Geoffrey wished very much to learn more about his forefathers. He hated the Saxons, and more so when he discovered the omission of the history of his race from the Chronicles.

So he gathered together all the stories and songs of the Celtic people that he possibly could and began to write a great Chronicle. This he called "The History of Britain."

It is full of stories of valiant heroes from the time of the first British King, Brutus—a descendant of the Trojans—down to the coming of the Saxons.

How much of the book is true we cannot say, for Geoffrey left out any account which did not please him, and filled in great deeds from his own imagination. His chief aim was to sing the praises of Britain and the British, and so his Chronicles must be regarded as beautiful and exciting stories with a good deal that is true in them and a large mixture of romance. Many of our great writers such as Shakespeare, Milton and Tennyson have taken their stories from these Chronicles.

5. KING ARTHUR AND THE KNIGHTS OF THE ROUND TABLE

THE Saxons were heavily oppressing the British. They had killed their King, and destroyed the cities and the people in them, as they overran Britain from the north. Now great hordes were coming once more from Germany. The British people felt helpless without their King, and the nobles quarrelled among themselves for supremacy. At last some, more sensible than the rest, called a meeting at Silchester to discuss matters. Nothing but quarrelling took place, however, and the meeting was a very stormy and unsatisfactory one.

While they were quarrelling, the prophet Merlin appeared, leading by the hand a goodly-looking youth. Everyone was amazed. For some years Merlin had not appeared in their midst; indeed, many had forgotten him. But Merlin was proud of the good name of Britain, and with scornful looks and flashing eyes he exclaimed, "Cease these unseemly quarrels. Remember you are Britons, and sons of a hero race. Behold your King!"

He then related to the astonished

nobles that the boy was the son of the dead King. He told how he took the boy as a babe from his parents so that no mortal should rear him, and brought him up with the elves and fairies as his nurses. They watched over him and gave him food; moreover, they endowed him with magic power, with riches, with virtues, and with long life, so that he should grow up to be the greatest King ever known. Merlin declared that the boy had been sent by God to deliver the land of the Britons out of the hands of the Saxons.

When Merlin had finished speaking, all the priests and nobles knelt and did homage to the Boy-King, for they implicitly believed their prophet.

King Arthur was only fifteen years of age, but he was endowed with the courage of a strong man. He was kind and generous, wise and just, and loved truth beyond anything else.

From the day that Arthur was King, the fortunes of Britain changed. The country became prosperous and happy. The Saxon leader was defeated and gave back all the treasures he had taken from the Britons.

Then he craved that he and his followers might be allowed to return to Germany in peace.

King Arthur generously consented, and gave them ships in which to return home. Alas! On the way back they met more Saxon hordes coming to Britain. So they repented and returned with them. They landed at the mouth of the Severn and destroyed the peasants and their homes. King Arthur was very angry at their treachery. He summoned all his forces to rally round him. Then the Archbishop of the City Legions addressed them all in the King's presence.

"Britons," he said, "you must fight for God and King and Country. These Saxons are pagans, and no pagan shall conquer the land of our forefathers. Any man who gives his life for his King and Country, gives it to God."

Fortified by the Archbishop's words, they gathered eagerly round their King. Arrayed in a handsome coat of mail, with a golden helmet on his head on which was emblazoned the figure of a dragon, he led forth his men to do battle with the pagan Saxons. In his left hand he carried a wonderful shield on which was painted a picture of the Virgin Mary. In his right, he bore the magic sword Caliburn, which was made by Merlin's followers in the Isle of Avalon. He also carried a huge strong lance named "Ron."

Now the Saxons had entrenched themselves on a hill, and as the Britons approached they were attacked with arrows and stones, and they could make little headway. It was in truth an uphill fight. All day long the battle raged, and all day long King Arthur urged his men to fight on. Then towards evening the King took a bold step. Drawing out his great sword Caliburn, and with a prayer on his lips, he climbed the hill and plunged among the enemy. Slashing right and left with superhuman strength, he killed nearly 500 Saxons himself. With a great shout of triumph the Britons followed. They slew the Saxon leaders and thousands of the soldiers, and so crushed the Saxons that they left Britain alone for many years.

Then the King set his own affairs in order. He surrounded himself with a company of valiant knights. He visited every part of the country and repaired

the damage done by the enemy. He enlarged his territory by conquering Ireland, Iceland, and the Orkneys. He also brought to subjection the Kings of Norway and Gaul. The latter country he took after a terrific fight with the Roman governor, who was eventually slain.

So King Arthur became ruler of the greater part of Europe, and to celebrate his victories he summoned all the kings and dukes under him to a great feast. It was held in the City of Legions, which was built on the River Usk in Monmouthshire.

He spent a long time in preparing for the feast, and guests began to arrive from all parts of Europe. One day they began to quarrel about the places they should occupy at King Arthur's table. Each considered himself of most importance and therefore entitled to the place of honour nearest the King. This saddened King Arthur very much, for he was a man of peace. Just then Merlin appeared and advised him to have a most wonderful round table made which would seat sixteen hundred men, so that no one need be left out.

It took four weeks to make this table, for the best trees and the best men were sought, in order that it should be wondrously handsome and of skilled craftsmanship.

Then Arthur summoned all the kings, princes, and knights to his festival. First of all, a long procession walked to the Cathedral to a thanksgiving service. King Arthur came in his royal robes and with a crown upon his head.

Behind were Merlin with the two archbishops, and in front four kings, each bearing a golden sword. Then

came the princes and nobles and knights, and thousands of people.

The procession was accompanied by beautiful music and a choir.

The Queen, too, came to the festival, but she and her followers went to the Temple of the Virgins, there to hold a separate thanksgiving, for the British still followed the custom of the Trojans, and men and women prayed and feasted apart.

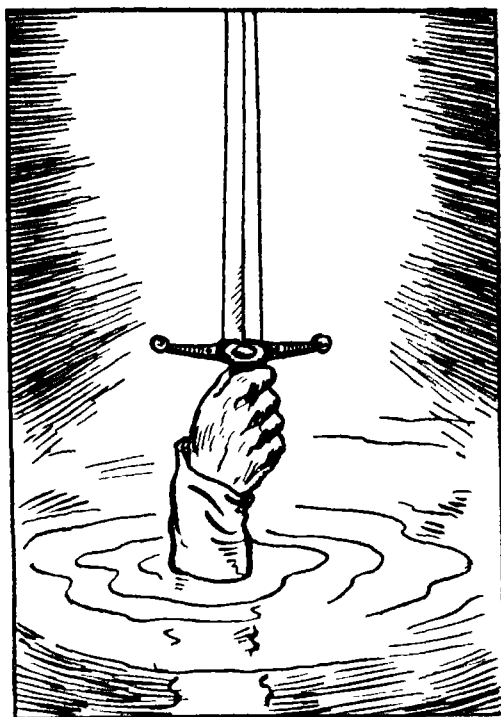
The service over, the King and Queen proceeded to their separate banqueting halls, the King's guests sitting at the newly-fashioned Round Table. From that day the King and his knights always dined there, and so "The Knights of the Round Table" became world-famous.

When the feasts were over, all went to the green outside the city, and there were sham fights with bows and arrows, and also many games, the victors receiving prizes at the hands of the Queen.

On the fourth day of the festival there came a sad interruption. A messenger arrived from the Roman Governor ordering King Arthur to Rome to explain why he had conquered Gaul. King Arthur called a council together consisting of tributary kings, princes, and knights. They all agreed to go with the King to conquer Rome.

So off he and his faithful army went, leaving his nephew Modred in charge of Britain.

After fierce fighting, Rome fell into the hands of the British. But when the King returned to Britain he found that Modred had proved to be a traitor. He had summoned the Saxons, Irish, Picts, and Scots to help him to seize the crown. So, to his intense regret, the King had to fight against



KING ARTHUR'S SWORD, CALIBURN.

"But ere he dipt the surface rose an arm,
Clothed in white samite, mystic, wonderful,
And caught him by the hilt, and brandish'd him
Three times, and drew him under in the mere."

"The Passing of Arthur."—TENNYSON.

his own kinsman. The wicked Modred was slain, but King Arthur received a mortal wound. Then Merlin appeared and cried to the stunned British, "Thy sun is set. Thy glory is over." The dying King ordered his chief knight, Sir Bedivere, to throw his beautiful sword Caliburn into the lake near by. This he did very reluctantly. Then a tiny boat appeared floating from the sea to the lake. In it were three queens, black-hooded. Sir Bedivere took the dying King and gently bore him to the boat where the queens received him with sacred, loving care. They laid him down, with his head in the lap of the fairest queen, and the boat glided gently away to

MODERN TEACHING

the vale of Avalon. But just before he disappeared he turned to Sir Bedivere and said :

" But now farewell. I am going a long way
With those thou see'st—if indeed I go
For all my mind is clouded with a doubt—
To the island-valley of Avilion ;
Where falls not hail, or rain, or any snow
Nor ever wind blows loudly : but it lies
Deep-meadowed, happy, fair, with orchard
lawns
And bowery hollows crowned with summer
sea
Where I will heal me of my grievous wound.

So said he, and the barge with oar and sail.
Moved from the brink, like some full-breasted swan."

" The Passing of Arthur." TENNYSON

After the King's death the Saxons poured into the country and conquered all the land. They drove the Britons to the west into Wales and Ireland, to the north into Scotland, and to the south into Brittany, and there, to this day, the Celtic element is still strong.

Even now, the Celtic people believe King Arthur to be alive. On his tomb at Glastonbury is written :

" Here lies Arthur, once a King and still a
King to be."

POINTS OF SPECIAL NOTE IN THIS LESSON

1. Invasion of the Saxons.
2. King and Council (Parliament).
3. Archbishop's prayers before battle (religion, Christian).
4. Conquest of Ireland, Iceland, Orkneys, Norway, and Gaul by the British.
5. Arthur's capital in Glamorganshire.
6. The Round Table—why round ?
7. Crafts in wood.
8. Cathedral—order of procession. Men and women apart in church. Cf. Catholics and High Church to-day.
9. Music, choir—advance of civilisation.
10. Open-air sports and prizes.
11. The return of the Saxons, Picts, and Scots.

12. Civil War.

13. Death of Arthur, and Britain's fall. Celts in north, west, and south to this day.

14. Literature :

(a) " The Passing of Arthur," Tennyson.
(Parts quite suitable for Juniors.)

(b) " Stories of King Arthur's Knights,"
Macgregor. (Jack.)

6. BRITAIN LONG AGO

IN remote ages, before language came into use, the inhabitants of the earth made themselves understood by noises and signs, in the same mysterious way that animals communicate with one another. They sought for their food in the earth, and they used their hands with which to dig roots from the ground. They fed on these roots, as well as on berries, fruit, and nuts. They lived in the open air and wore no clothes. This was the age of the savage. But in the more peopled parts of the world this state, in all probability, did not last long. It continued much longer in thinly peopled districts.

Later on, people hunted and ate animals. So they had to shape weapons with which to hunt, and also to defend themselves against the attacks of wild beasts. These weapons—daggers, chisels, and such-like—were generally made of *stone*, i.e. sharp flints gathered from the earth. Short spears, too, were made with heads of ivory fixed on wooden shafts.

In later times, people began to use and understand words. They learnt to light a fire, producing sparks either by striking two flints one against the other, or by rubbing two dry boughs together. They began to cook meat and to wear a loin-belt of animal skin.

At the time when all mankind was savage, Britain was a land of snow and

ice, and no one inhabited it. But after many thousands of years Britain became warmer. Then men and women from other parts of Europe began to wander into Britain. They walked in from the north and east and south, for there was no North Sea and no English Channel. These people settled down and lived in caves or huts made from branches of trees. They hunted animals for food with their flints; they made skin bottles in which to carry water, sewing the skins with ivory needles, and they clothed their loins with the skins of the animals whose flesh they ate. The reindeer, the hairy elephants and the woolly rhinoceroses, brown and white bears, lions and tigers—all these they hunted in Britain either for food or raiment, or in order to save their own lives. Their limbs and feet were bare. They wore long hair and the men did not shave.

Later, the seas swept over the earth, and the very low lands of Britain were submerged. The North Sea, the English Channel and the Irish Sea were thus made. So the British Isles were formed.

It was about the time when Jacob married and settled in Canaan that the Celts came to Britain from over the seas by way of the North Sea and English Channel. They came in two sections. First came the *Gaels*, from whom the Irish and the Highland Scots derive their language. Later came the *Britons*, who gave the Welsh their tongue.

The Gaels could weave coarse cloth from the hair and wool of animals. They grew corn and made bread. They had discovered metal and knew how to use it. They mixed copper

with a small amount of tin and called the mixture *bronze*. They made weapons and tools of bronze.

The Britons had discovered *iron* and found it much harder than bronze, and therefore more useful. So they made their weapons and tools of iron instead of bronze. Thus we have the three periods in the story of early men: the Stone Age, the Bronze Age, and the Iron Age.

Now heat is required to obtain metals from their ores and also in the fashioning of weapons. So man had discovered not only how to make fire and use it for heating and cooking, but to use it also for simple manufactures.

Even in the very early days of the Stone Age, when men hunted for food, they began to keep domestic animals—sheep, goats, cows, and horses. Dogs, too, seem to have been used as companions in hunting for the necessities of life. Afterwards, hunting for food became less necessary as the uses of the domestic animals became more apparent. These domestic animals fed on grass—not on each other, and so men began to settle down with their flocks where pasture was good and water was abundant. They clothed themselves with the skins of the domestic animals, and hunting, except for sport or self-preservation, died down considerably.

Then, instead of dwelling in caves, men wandered in search of good pasture and there built bowers in which to store food and tools. Afterwards they built houses from the boughs of trees, and covered them with the skins of animals. This marked the tent-making period.

Having found a goodly spot on

which to pitch their tents permanently, they learned to till the earth and sow seeds. In this way they began to be farmers. Each settled down with his family, and the families in turn settled near him, and so villages began to be formed.

Now the Gaels wandered or were driven west and settled near the basin of the River Severn. They became not only farmers, but metal-workers in copper and tin. The Britons settled south of the Wash and north of the Thames. They were excellent farmers and workers in iron and clay. They were also very artistic, as is proved by the beautifully shaped tools and vessels which are preserved in the British and London Museums.

When Julius Cæsar came to Britain in 55 B.C. he found a people who clothed themselves in skins or rough cloth which covered both the upper and lower parts of their bodies. Their occupations were those of farmers, fishers, boatmen, workers in metal and clay, weavers and warriors.

TEACHING NOTES

Reference should be made to :

1. The gradual change from a savage to a semi-civilised state.
2. The great physical change in Britain and the effect of environment on the life of the people of a country.
3. The natural sequence from the Stone to the Metal Age and the corresponding developments in family and civic life.
4. The rise of human settlements at the mouths or along the banks of rivers.

7. KING LEIR (LEAR)

KING LEIR was one of the early British kings and ruled over a state or petty kingdom situated north and south of the Wash. One day as he was walking along the lovely

banks of the River Sore he marked that he found no city. He could not understand this, as water was abundant and the land was fertile. So he ordered his workmen to build a beautiful city there. The workmen laboured for years, and when the city was finished, King Leir named it Koerleir—which means "the City of Leir"—and he went to live there. This city is now known as Leicester.

King Leir had no son to succeed him, but he had three daughters. In those days women were of small account. They stayed in the home, where they superintended the house-maidens. They played on spinets, and did beautiful embroidery, or darning, or tapestry weaving. But they never entered into public affairs, nor were they allowed to join in the sports of men.

When King Leir had been ruling for sixty years, and was old and weary, he felt that he would like to divide his kingdom between his three daughters and to establish them firmly on their thrones before he died.

He thought, however, that he would like to test first his daughters' love for him.

So at the next meeting of the Royal Council he told his Ministers his plan, and they were very much surprised. Then he summoned the Princesses, in order of age, into the presence of the Court.

Goneril came first. She was dark, handsome, and haughty, and wished to be rich and powerful. Next came Regan, who, too, was dark and haughty. Neither she nor her sister loved the King except for the riches he could give them. Last came the gentle Cordelia, who loved her father dearly for his own sake.

When the Princesses were seated, King Leir said, "Tell me, my daughters, which of you shall we say doth love us most?" The two elder daughters protested that all their love was for their father alone. He was so flattered, that, as a reward, he gave to each the man of her choice as a husband, and a third of his kingdom.

But the gentle Cordelia had no other answer to give than that she loved her father dearly, but, she added, "When I shall wed, That Lord, whose hand must take my plight, shall carry half my love with him."

The King was beside himself with rage, for Cordelia was his favourite daughter. He commanded her to depart from his palace and said he should give her portion to her sisters. Cordelia stood speechless and white. Then she silently left the Council Chamber and was for a time lost to her father and forgotten by the Court. For a noble Prince, the heir to the throne of Gaul, heard of the cruel treatment of Cordelia. He had seen her before and loved her for her gentle nature. So he asked King Leir to allow him to make her his wife, and she left Britain and went to live in France.

King Leir divided his kingdom into two. All the land north of the Wash was given to Goneril, who married the Duke of Albany, and all the land south of the Wash was given to Regan, who married the Duke of Cornwall.

Then troubles arose in Britain. The Princesses, once they were settled on their thrones, overruled their father's wishes on every possible occasion and insulted his knights and attendants. At last their cruel torture grew so

unbearable that King Leir's few faithful followers begged him to seek help from the Princess Cordelia in Gaul.

He was so weak and ill in body and soul through the terrible treatment which his cruel daughters had meted out to him that he offered no resistance. So the tiny band of attendants left to him took him to the sea-coast, and there they boarded a ship going to Gaul. They had a very stormy passage, but the King, who was now demented, knew nothing of it. He sat for several days and nights cursing his wicked daughters and looking vacantly around.

At last they came to the sea-port now known as Calais, and sent a messenger to the King of Gaul.

When Cordelia heard the news from her father-in-law, her heart melted with pity. She forgot the unjust treatment received at her father's hand; all she wanted was to see and kiss her father once more. So she sent men and money to fetch him to her in royal style. The poor old King revived, and the meeting between the two was a very touching and tender one.

King Leir stayed in Gaul till he was strong enough to collect and lead an army against his cruel daughters and their wicked husbands, and the King of Gaul helped him. The British people were tired of the rule of such tyrants as Goneril and Regan, and were delighted to get back their old King. He ruled for three more years over his state, living happily in the city of Koerleir, and there he was buried.

He left the crown to Cordelia, and for five years she ruled the people well. But the sons of Goneril and Regan had by this time become men and wanted the State. So they drove

Cordelia off the throne and put her in prison, where she died of a broken heart. Then once more all the land became filled with strife and bloodshed, for the Britons hated their new rulers and mourned for the old.

TEACHING NOTES

Draw attention to :

1. The position of Leir's kingdom.
2. The reasons the King had for building the city of Leicester where he did :

(a) Because of the river.

(b) For his retirement from royal duties.

3. How women were occupied in the home.

4. Early forms of government—King and Council.

5. The succession of women to the throne—they ruled through their husbands.

6. The geographical position of the kingdom of Gaul.

7. The long sea-journey from the Wash to Calais, several days, now a few hours.

The quotations are from Shakespeare's "King Lear."

This lesson is not only for the purpose of teaching the life-story of a British king, but also to pave the way to a proper understanding of Shakespeare's play later.

8. BOADICEA

"When the British warrior Queen,
Bleeding from the Roman rods,
Sought, with an indignant mien,
Counsel of her country's gods,

Sage beneath a spreading oak,
Sat the Druid, hoary chief,
Every burning word he spoke
Full of rage, and full of grief."

COWPER.

QUEEN BOADICEA, the British warrior Queen, was the wife of the King of the Iceni. The Iceni were the Britons who lived in that part of our island now known as Norfolk and Suffolk.

Boadicea was a brave woman and a noble Queen. When the King died in A.D. 60, she took on his duties. The people loved and admired her, and were intensely loyal to her and her three daughters. She appears to have had no son to succeed the King. If she had had, it is possible that the Romans in Britain would not have acted as they did, for taking advantage of the death of the King of the Iceni, they seized his territory. Then they did a very foolish thing; they publicly beat the Queen and her daughters with thongs; they made slaves of the Iceni nobles, and they cruelly treated the people. The Iceni were most indignant, and in consequence hated the Romans. Boadicea tried to forget the insults to herself, but she could not see her people and her own children suffer. She was furious with the Romans, and so she consulted the high priest (or chief Druid) as to what she should do. He sat in his leafy temple, the roof of which was formed by the boughs of a large spreading oak tree. He was clad in flowing white robes and had a long beard. He, too, was enraged when he heard of the brutal deeds of the Romans. "Rome shall perish," he cried, and goaded the Queen to revenge.

So, encouraged by "her country's gods," she called her men together and bade them take up arms against the cruel Romans. They came in hordes with their darts and their mighty chariots. Each chariot was drawn by small, swift, fiery horses, two abreast. On the wheels of the chariots were large sharp knives, and when the spirited horses leapt among the enemy, the knives cut them down mercilessly.

The Queen drove one of the great chariots herself, and all the great army of chariots and men followed, inspired by her brave action and her fierce hatred of the enemy.

She and her army crushed the Roman colony in Colchester. Then she took St. Albans and London, also Roman colonies. Some say her army slew as many as 70,000 Romans, who never dreamed that a woman would fight them, and so were unprepared. But the news of the Romans' defeat spread across the country to the Isle of Anglesey, where Suetonius Paulinus, the Roman Governor in Britain, had gone to set things in order.

He hastened back, most indignant at the turn of events. He brought 10,000 trained men. They came with arrows, javelins, swords, and shields. Boadicea had an army eight times as large, but many were untrained and already weary with fighting. So the Romans were able to defeat and scatter the army of the noble Queen.

She saw her brave men hunted and cut to pieces by the enemy, and she knew that, if she were taken prisoner, she would be made a slave and cruelly treated. So, overcome with despair, she poisoned herself, and the Romans took possession of her State.

On the north side of Westminster Bridge, and facing the Houses of Parliament, is a magnificent statue of Boadicea in her war chariot. She is standing erect, with flowing hair and robes, holding the reins and driving two fiery, snorting horses into battle.

TEACHING NOTES

Refer to :

1. The cruelty of the Romans to those they sought to conquer or had conquered.
2. The religion of the British.

3. The Queen asking the high priest for spiritual help before going into battle—a custom to this day.

4. The war-weapons of the British and the Romans.

5. Roman towns in Britain.

This lesson is a very suitable one to link up with Literature. Cowper's poem "Boadicea" can be referred to throughout.

9. JULIUS CÆSAR VISITS BRITAIN

THE fame of our beautiful island had spread to Rome, and Julius Cæsar, the great Roman general, began to look on fair Britain with covetous eyes. He could see her white cliffs as he travelled along the coast of Gaul, which country he had conquered.

One day, as he stood gazing across the Channel, he said to his companions, "The time has come when we should seek fair Britain for our own. Its people are our brothers, the same blood flows in the veins of us both, for are we not both descended from the Trojans? But they have wandered far from us, even to the north and south, and east and west of Britain, and they and we are strangers. Perchance they are savage and without knowledge. Let us beseech them, therefore, to submit peaceably to us and be our subjects, that we bring not shame on our own race by shedding the blood of our kinsmen. But if, perchance, they resist our demands, then will we conquer them with our mighty arms."

And all his companions agreed.

The King of the Britons was most indignant when he received a message from Cæsar demanding that the island of Britain should be subject to Rome.

He sent a spirited answer to Cæsar, reminding him that kinsmen should be friends, not foes.

"Nay," replied Cæsar, "news has reached our ears that you helped Gaul against Rome, so it is you who have already raised the battle-standard against your kinsmen."

"And if we did," answered the British King, "are not the Gauls our kinsmen also; are they not yours too? Is it not shameful that Rome should seek to make slaves of her own kith and kin? We Britons will never submit. Free we are, and free we mean to remain. We will fight if you attempt to land on our fair shores."

Then Cæsar got ready his fleet. He waited for a favourable wind; then he hoisted his sails and in a short time eighty sailing vessels and several galleys each manned by many oarsmen, appeared at the mouth of the Thames, not far from Deal. Altogether a great army of about 10,000 men prepared to land. It was a warm summer evening, for it was on August 26th that Julius Cæsar first came to Britain in the year 55 B.C. The tide was high, so he could not land on the cliffs. He waited till early morning when the tide was low. Then the Roman sailing vessels and rowing galleys stuck in the sand; so the Romans, carrying their swords and javelins and shields, had to wade through the water to the unknown shores of Britain.

Meanwhile the British King had not been idle. He was much beloved by his people, and they rallied loyally round him, for they were terribly indignant at the invasion of the Romans. The Britons looked most fierce when arrayed for battle. Their bodies were painted with blue dye,

and their locks and moustaches were long and shaggy. Some of them were on foot and carried bows and arrows, which they shot swiftly and surely at the oncoming Romans. Others were in war chariots drawn by fiery horses, two abreast. These chariots the warrior-drivers drove furiously into the sea, scattering the enemy in all directions, or mowing them down mercilessly with the knives which stuck out from the axles.

The mighty Julius Cæsar called to his men to advance. He led them forth himself and came to a hand-to-hand fight with the son of the British King. Down came the sword of Cæsar on the helmet of the brave Prince, and all the Romans and Britons round thought the Prince would be killed and the day lost to the British.

Not so; Cæsar's sword stuck in the helmet and the gallant and youthful prince seized the great Roman general's sword with both hands and kept it. All day he slashed it hither and thither among the enemy, killing with every blow. The Britons and the Romans fought with equal strength, but towards the evening the Romans began to weaken and retired to their camp.

Then came night and a full moon, with the high tide as a result. Added to this, a great storm arose, and the ships and galleys were hurled against each other by the angry waves. The Romans were unaccustomed to tides, so the tides on the British shore puzzled and frightened them and, together with the bad weather, made them lose courage. Then, hastily breaking up their camp, they packed their belongings into their boats, and headed by Cæsar, went back to Gaul.

When Cæsar returned to Rome, he was hailed as a great conqueror and fêted and publicly thanked, for he had shown a way to the conquest of Britain.

Now Cæsar was a great character. He was of fair height—not really tall—with a stern but kind face. From under the high brow peered a pair of keen, black eyes, which seemed to pierce even the darkness and never missed seeing anything. He was a skilful swordsman, a wonderful rider on horseback, and a splendid swimmer. Moreover, he was always busy at reading, writing, and inquiring. Above all, he loved his country, and was determined that Rome should be the most famous Empire the world had ever known.

Now such a man would not brook defeat at the hands of the Britons. For a while he left them in peace, but he did not forget, and planned quietly and carefully for another invasion.

Then in 54 B.C. he came again, this time with a much larger army. He knew now what to expect from the Britons, so he brought horsemen too, who could skilfully dodge the clumsy war chariots.

The Britons heard of his coming through various travellers, and prepared for it. They repaired ruined walls, fortified their cities, and set armed men to watch all ports.

But this time Cæsar was fortunate and made a better landing, and finally, after hard fighting, crossed the Thames not far from London. Then he compelled the British King to seek for peace.

It was decided that the British nation should pay 3,000 pounds of silver every year to Rome and receive in

return her protection against all enemies.

Julius Cæsar spent the winter in Britain. Then, tired of the climate, and hearing that he was needed at home, he departed, and was received with great honours in Rome.

The Britons remained unvisited by the Romans for nearly one hundred years, but they paid the yearly tribute and felt it no disgrace to be subject to the great State which had conquered the world.

TEACHING NOTES

1. The Britons were the second batch of Celts who had come from Europe to Britain. The Gaels were the first.

2. Compare the equipment of the two armies, and hence show the more advanced civilisation of the Romans.

3. Cæsar's first visit paved the way to the Roman conquest of Britain. It was inspired by a love for his country and a wish to expand the Roman Empire. Rome was a great colonising power even in early times.

10. AN EARLY CHRISTIAN MARTYR: ST ALBAN

THE teachings of Jesus Christ were gradually spreading from Rome throughout the Roman Empire and accounts of the new religion reached Britain. The people began to hear of a God who was greater and more wonderful than the Roman god Jupiter (who was really the Greek god Zeus). The Romans disliked the new religion very much and did their best to discourage it. Indeed, some of the Emperors, whom Romans regarded as sacred beings, treated the Christians with great cruelty and put many to death. But in the hearts of the British people there arose a yearning to know

more of the great God whom so many of the Romans hated.

One of the early British kings, named Lucius, got teachers from Rome to come over to instruct him and his people about Christ. From their Bible readings the British learned of the new God. Then Lucius and many of his nobles and people were baptised and became Christians. They pulled down the heathen temples and set up Christian churches. Moreover, they ceased offering sacrifices to gods.

The Christian religion spread over Britain for some years uninterruptedly. Then a Roman Emperor (Diocletian) began to persecute the Christians throughout the Roman Empire and sent a cruel general to Britain, there to carry out his persecutions. This general destroyed the churches and burnt in the public market-places all the copies of the Bible that he could find. He put to death all those who refused to give up Christianity. Some were beaten to death, some torn to pieces, some burnt, but they did not falter in their faith. Indeed, many others became converts when they saw the cruel martyrdom of their kinsmen.

Now there lived in Britain in the city of Verulam, about twenty-five miles from London, a certain nobleman named Alban. Although he had heard much about this new God and of the Christians, he remained faithful to the old gods of the Romans. He was a good man, and everyone loved and respected him, because he was not only a kind and just ruler, but he allowed his people to have the religion they desired. His heart ached at the persecution of the Christians. He was the greatest pagan in the land, yet he

refused to aid the Roman general in his terrible work.

One day, after an absence from home, Duke Alban went to the temple of Jupiter to offer a sacrifice as a thanksgiving for his safe return. There he learnt from the chief priest that the cruel Roman general was in Verulam seeking out and massacring the Christians.

Sad at heart, Alban went home, and at the palace gate found a poor old man, bent double with fatigue and sickness. He inquired of him his trouble.

"I am the servant of Christ," came the answer, "and the Roman general seeks my life. I pray thee help me to escape from mine enemy."

This was a remarkable request, since everyone knew that Alban was not a Christian.

The old man turned faint with fear and hunger. Then Alban, moved with a great pity, took him into his arms and carried him to his private chamber. He gave him food and money and, dressing him in some of his princely robes, sent him with three trusty servants to his own brother, who lived on the sea-coast.

The old man was much moved and knelt at Alban's feet, covering his hands with kisses of gratitude. "The great God will reward thee. I cannot," he said. "Thou art too brave and kind and good to be a pagan. Take this scroll and, I pray thee, read it carefully. Fare thee well and may my God bless thee."

Alban was so impressed that he sat far into the night reading of the wondrous love of this new God, for on the scroll which the old man had given him was written no other than

the Gospel of St. John. Suddenly he arose; quietly he took the gods and goddesses from their different shrines and heaped them in a corner of his room. Then he took the incense and threw it in the fire. Finally he knelt down to the new and invisible God and prayed for help.

Very soon after there was a great clatter in the courtyard. The Roman general had arrived with his band of soldiers, all armed with spears. He demanded the surrender of the old man, who had been traced to the castle. "He who shields a traitor is himself a traitor," said the general.

Then Alban, without flinching and with a beautiful expression on his countenance, faced the Roman band of murderers. "Behold me, a follower of Christ," he cried triumphantly. "Thou canst hurt my body, but thou canst not hurt my soul."

The Romans were amazed. They seized him and bore him to the stake, where they burned him to death.

Then all his people mourned the loss of the man they loved. They called him a saint and changed the name of Verulam to St. Albans as an everlasting memorial to his glorious name. They built a church and a monastery to the new God, and to-day there stands on the same site in the city of St. Albans a beautiful cathedral named after this martyr to Christianity.

introduction of Christianity into England would also form an interesting and informative lesson.

II. KING ALFRED THE GREAT AND THE COMING OF THE DANES

IN A.D. 849 there lived in the capital of Wessex—in the royal village of Wantage in Berkshire—King Ethelwulf with his wife and four sons. The youngest had just been born and was named Alfred. The family was an exceedingly happy one, for Ethelwulf was a wise King and a good father, and Osburh was a kind and clever mother.

At this time the Danes or Vikings were constantly coming over from Denmark to raid and plunder our shores. When Alfred was but two years old his father met them in battle and put them to flight. Again, when Alfred was six years old, they entered the mouth of the Thames with three hundred and fifty ships, each manned by fifty rowers and conveying a large army. This time they came not only to raid but to conquer. The Danes were tall, fair men, and very strong. They were brave and fearless, both on land and sea, and were a very dangerous foe. They were armed with heavy axes and spears and bright shields. They held aloft large standards on which were emblazoned a serpent or a raven or an eagle. They got as far as London and Canterbury and did much damage to both towns. But eventually they were repulsed.

During these years Alfred was growing up. When he was five years old he was sent on a visit to the Pope at Rome, and the Pope received him into the Church. When he was seven years

TEACHING NOTES

1. In a story of this nature it must be pointed out that religious intolerance has gradually given way to the religious toleration which we at present enjoy. The religious persecutions of the Middle Ages should be referred to.

2. The story of St. Augustine and the

old he again journeyed to Rome and remained there for a year, learning much and showing a deep love for study. When he returned, his mother encouraged him in this, for she was a great lover of books and could read, which was a very rare accomplishment in those days.

A pretty story is told by Asser, a Welshman, who lived all his life in King Alfred's family and wrote the life of his King and friend in Latin. He tells in this chronicle, among other incidents, that the Queen offered a book of Saxon poetry as a prize to whichever son should be the first to learn to read, and that Alfred won the prize, although he was the youngest.

As Alfred grew older he had a tutor whose name was Swithin. He was the Bishop of Winchester, and when he died he was called St. Swithin by the people who knew of his goodness and wisdom. He died on July 15th, and there is a saying that if it rains on St. Swithin's day there will be forty wet days after. Under Swithin, Alfred learned not only to read, but also to write. He also learned to play on the harp, to ride, to shoot, and to hunt.

In 866 Alfred shared the throne of Wessex with his brother, for his father and his two other brothers were dead.

Alfred was but seventeen when he undertook the great responsibilities of kingship. He had now grown into a noble, God-fearing youth, full of an earnest desire for the good of his people, and in consequence he was much beloved by them. When he was nineteen he married a noble Mercian lady who was much beloved because of her sweet disposition.

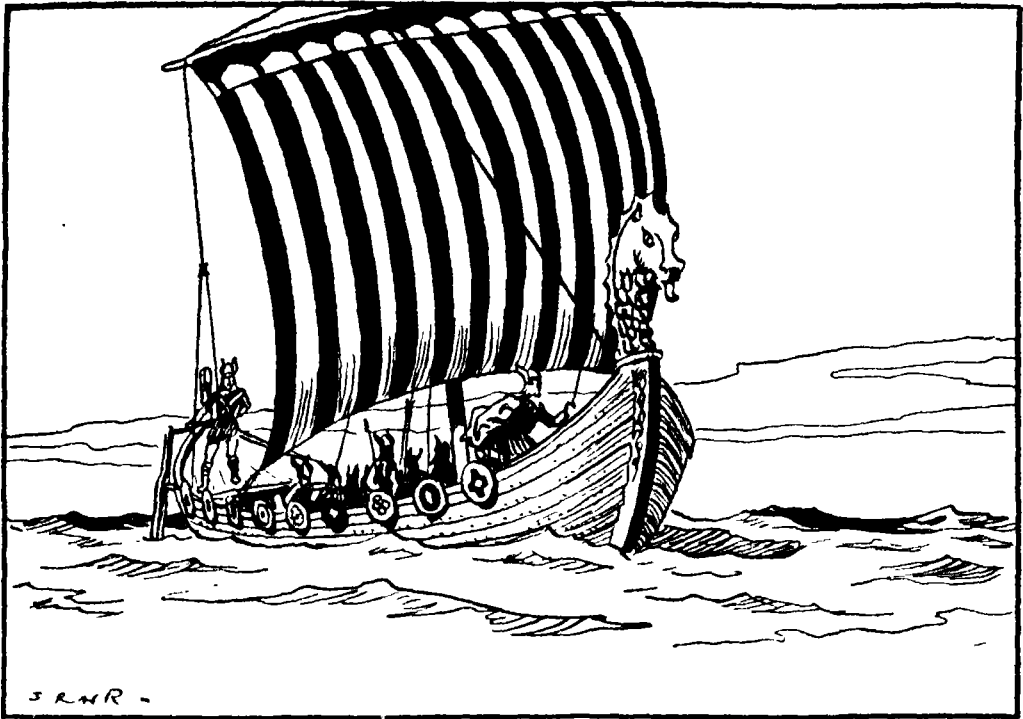
The Danes were now getting very

troublesome. They had marched into York and had captured that city. Then they proceeded south to Mercia and settled in Nottingham. Three years afterwards they descended on Reading, and defeated King Alfred's brother. He died soon afterwards, and Alfred became King of all Wessex.

Once more the Danes began their attacks and Alfred's army lost heart and fled. Then the King wandered to the marshes of Athelney in Somerset with only a few faithful followers, and together they endured great hardships. Often the King would be disguised, sometimes as a peasant, sometimes as a wandering minstrel. Once he strolled into the Danes' camp disguised as a harpist and there learned of their plans against his kingdom. It is to this period that the famous story of Alfred and the burnt cakes belongs.

It seemed to Alfred that the Danes would conquer all England, for they had now advanced even to Devonshire. But the Devonshire men proved the stronger and drove them away. Alfred, encouraged by this, came out of his hiding-place and, calling his men together, met the Danes in battle at Uffington, in Berkshire. The Danes were utterly beaten, so they made peace. Alfred gave to them the land north of the Ouse, and he was left in peaceful possession of Wessex.

On the chalk hills of Uffington is to be seen, to this day, the white figure of a great horse. The English soldiers drew the outline of the figure on the spot where the battle was fought and then cleared away all the grass so that the chalk was exposed. And there the figure remains, and can be seen as the train on the Great Western railway passes through the "Vale of the White



A DANISH WARSHIP.

The Danes crossed the North Sea in long, narrow boats from 75 feet to 300 feet long, and 15 or more feet broad. They were manned by twelve to thirty-eight rowers, and had one mast and a square sail, with the image of some animal at each end.

Horse " on its journey from London to Exeter.

The Danes, however, broke their promise once more and continued to send fresh hordes of invaders to England. So Alfred set to work to found a navy. He had learned this lesson : that, being an island, Britain must depend upon the fleet for her safety. So he caused galleys to be built which were larger and swifter than the Danish ships, and he had large numbers of sailors trained. Then the Danes began to fear the Saxon fleet and became less troublesome in consequence.

King Alfred also built many towns and rebuilt those that had been sacked. He built a monastery at Athelney, and invited monks from many countries

to settle there, so that they could teach the people to read and write. He also built a convent at Shaftesbury.

He studied the laws of other nations and then made new laws for his own country. These he set before the Witan for advice and approval and had them written down so that all who could might read them. He also ordered the history of the times to be written in English. This book was known as the " Old English Chronicle," and it was carefully preserved in Winchester Cathedral. It is from this source that we get most of the history of these times.

The King was a diligent writer and translator, and in order that not a moment of his day should be wasted he caused a candle to be made on which

were equal divisions. Each division took one hour to burn, and so the King could note the passing of time.

These and many other stories are told of his wisdom and learning, and we still reverence his memory and speak of him as "Alfred the Great."

POINTS TO BE EMPHASISED IN THIS LESSON

1. Alfred's youth.
2. Danish raids, (a) for plunder, (b) for settlement.
3. Divisions of the land : map needed.
4. Chronicles.
5. St. Swithin's day.
6. Geography incidental to the history of these times, Uffington, etc.
7. Navy—founder. Laws—Witan. Learning—books, history. Religion—monasteries. Time—candle-clock.

12. THE STORY OF CANUTE

AFTER the death of King Alfred in 901 the Danes slowly but surely gained a firmer footing in England.

In 1016 Edmund Ironside the Saxon was proclaimed King of the south, and Canute the Dane, King of the north. When Edmund died in 1017, Canute became King of all England. He was already King of Norway and Denmark.

He was a good, sensible man, and made up his mind to make friends with the English. He married the widow of the Saxon king, Ethelred the Unready. He sent away most of his Danish counsellors and appointed English ones instead, and so he was able to rule the English according to their own laws. Then he divided the kingdom into four great parts and appointed an earl to be governor of each ; the Earls of Mercia, Northumbria, Wessex, and East Anglia.

Next he journeyed throughout the country, restoring the towns, monasteries, and cathedrals which had been damaged during so many years of war.

Then he took an English army and defeated the Swedes in a great battle. When he returned he kept several thousands of soldiers as a bodyguard, and this became our first standing Army.

While Canute was King he ruled so wisely and made England so great that foreign countries learnt to respect us.

There are many stories told about Canute's greatness and wisdom. The following is the best known :

One day the King stood on the seashore at Southampton, surrounded by some courtiers. They began to flatter him, and one said, " Even the waves of the sea will do thy bidding, O King," and the others agreed. The King was indignant, for he knew they were currying favour. So he ordered a chair to be brought to the advancing waves. Then sitting in it, he commanded the waves to recede. This he did thrice, but they continued to advance, as the tide was coming in. Then he turned to his courtiers and rebuked them for saying what they knew to be false.

W. M. Thackeray wrote the poem " King Canute " on this theme. The last four verses are given below :

" Will the advancing waves obey me,
bishop, if I make the sign ? "
Said the bishop, bowing lowly, " Land and
sea, my lord, are thine."
Canute turned towards the ocean—" Back ! "
he said, " thou foaming brine !

" From the sacred shore I stand on, I com-
mand thee to retreat ;
Venture not, thou stormy rebel, to approach
thy master's seat :
Ocean, be thou still ! I bid thee come not
nearer to my feet ! "

But the sullen ocean answered with a louder,
deeper roar,
And the rapid waves drew nearer, falling
sounding on the shore ;
Back the keeper and the bishop, back the
king and courtiers bore.

And he sternly bade them never more to
kneel to human clay,
But alone to praise and worship That which
earth and seas obey :
And his golden crown of empire never wore
he from that day.

Canute died in 1035, aged forty years,
beloved by everyone. Under his rule
the country was at peace, but when
he was dead, all the old troubles with
the Danes recommenced.

EMPHASISE :

1. Canute—first Danish king.
2. Wise ruler. Danes returned home or
settled quietly in east and north-east.
3. Earldoms created.
4. Canute's work for England.
5. Standing Army (cf. Alfred's Navy).

13. THE NORMAN CONQUEST OF ENGLAND

FOR centuries various nations had
come to our land to conquer it.

First came the Gaels, then the
Britons, followed by the Angles, Saxons,
and Danes. Now the Normans who
lived on the northern shores of France
cast envious eyes on England.

On January 6th, 1066, Harold the
Saxon became King of England in
succession to Edward the Confessor.
But William, Duke of Normandy, laid
claim to the throne. It appears that
Harold and William had met about
two years before Edward's death in
the following circumstances. Harold
was shipwrecked in the English Channel

and cast on the Norman coast. He
was taken prisoner by the Normans.
Duke William sent for him to go to
Rouen, and there, so the Norman
Chronicles say, Harold swore, on a
silver casket containing sacred relics,
that he would support William's claim
to the English throne when Edward
the Confessor died.

William was a cousin to Edward by
marriage, and on this relationship he
based his claim. Moreover, William
declared that when he visited Edward
in England the latter had named him
as his heir.

William's claim was really a very
weak one, but directly Edward died
he called himself the King of England
and said that Harold was a usurper.
Then he gathered together 700 ships
and 60,000 men with which to invade
England. He persuaded the bishops
in Normandy that his cause was a
just one, and he received their support ;
next he turned to England for help.
Now Harold's brother Tostig was
jealous of Harold, so he joined forces
with William.

William landed at Pevensey on
September 28th, 1066. Harold was
fighting Tostig at Stamford Bridge in
Yorkshire. Tostig was defeated and
killed, and then Harold hurried south,
but he was too late to prevent William
landing.

The two armies met on October 14th,
1066, on Senlac Hill, five miles north
of Hastings. From 9 a.m. till 4 p.m.
the armies fought with no definite
result. Then the Normans pretended
to run away, and the English left their
strong position and swarmed after the
enemy. But the Normans turned and
faced the English, and the Norman
archers poured forth their arrows,

shooting high in the air, so that they struck the heads of their enemy. One pierced Harold's eye and he was killed.

Then William was proclaimed the victor. Loving hands afterwards bore away the body of the dead King and he was buried at Waltham Abbey in Essex. He was the last of the English kings.

Some time after, a beautiful abbey was built on the site of the battle. It is known as "Battle Abbey," and thousands of people visit it yearly. Only certain parts, however, can now be viewed by the public, for a large portion is occupied by a girls' high school.

But winning the Battle of Hastings did not mean the complete conquest of England. William had much work to do yet. He now pressed forward to Dover, Canterbury, and London, subduing as he went. Then he halted at Berkhamsted, about thirty miles north of London. By this time some of the English had begun to respect William, and several of the most important men came and offered him the throne. Among them were the Archbishops of Canterbury and York.

So William, Duke of Normandy, was crowned King of England by the Archbishop of York on Christmas Day, 1066, in the Church of St. Peter. This church stood on Thorney Island in the River Thames. It has been added to frequently and is known as Westminster Abbey, where all British kings are crowned, following the old custom.

Now William did not find his task as King an easy one. To begin with, he could not speak the English language; he spoke Norman-French, and misunderstandings often arose in conse-

quence. Then, it must be remembered, there were people of four different races in England—Saxons in the south, Danes in the east and north, Welsh in the west, and the Normans just settling; all spoke different languages and had different ideas and customs, and the coming of the Normans only added to the difficulties. Many risings took place in various parts of the country, often because the people could not understand one another; and for several years the country was laid waste by William and his soldiers, as a punishment to the English and Welsh and Scottish rebels.

Eventually England settled down and for more than a hundred years was ruled by Norman kings.

14 WHAT WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR DID FOR ENGLAND

WHEN William came to the throne of England he was thirty-nine years of age. He was of medium height, stout and strong, and had a loud voice which terrified most people. Really "his bark was worse than his bite," and although people feared him because of his fierce manner, nevertheless, they learned to respect his justice and his love of order.

Whatever William did, he did thoroughly. It was he who introduced the Curfew Bell. The word "curfew" comes from the French and means "cover fire." The order went forth that at sundown a bell should ring in every town and village in England. This was the sign for every householder to put out his fire and for everyone to remain indoors for the night. No doubt this law had to be made because of the

constant quarrels and robberies which took place between the Normans and the English, who at first hated each other.

So after nightfall England now became a safe place in which to live ; and in the daytime, too, for murder and robbery were considered by William to be terrible crimes. Where travellers used to fear to go long journeys they now felt they " might travel over the kingdom with a basinful of gold unmolested."

William also wished to know something of the land he had conquered, so he sent men all over the country to view it, and to find out who owned it and what was its value. All this information was kept in a book called " Domesday Book," which is preserved to this day in the Record Office in London, although it was written between 1085-7.

When the Norman barons began to demand English lands as a reward for helping William to conquer England, he gave them portions in return for services. It is usual to receive regular money payments as rent for the use of a piece of land or a house, but William had other ideas. He did not wish to keep up a standing Army at his own expense, although he desired to have one ready whenever it should be necessary to go to war. So every landowner or landlord had to agree to provide William with a certain number of armed men in time of war. The landlord was to be their chief, and William was to be the landlord's chief. These landlords were allowed to let out land to others, who also agreed to serve the King when necessary.

So King William was always certain of a sufficient number of trained

soldiers. By this means, too, William obtained some measure of peace over the whole land, for each great landlord became busy making a success of the new arrangements.

" It is to the stern discipline of our foreign kings that we owe not merely English wealth, and English freedom, but England herself. And of those foreign masters, the greatest was William of Normandy."—J. R. GREEN, " History of the English People."

It was in the Norman times that surnames first began to be used. A word was added to the Christian name of a man to describe his calling or special characteristic, and such names as Smith, Gardener, Miller, Webster, Strong-in-th'-arm, Stout-and-gay, and even Wink-at-the-Ladies appear in the Domesday Book. Some were formed by prefixing or affixing " Fitz " (Norman, son) or " Son " (Saxon), or " Mac," or " O " (Celtic, son) to the Christian name ; thus Fitzgerald, MacWilliam, O'Conner, Thomson, Johnson, Wilson, Harrison. Such names denoted that the man was the son of Gerald, William, Tom, and so on.

15. HEReward THE WAKE

IN LESSON FORM

THIS lesson will afford a good opportunity to link up history with literature and geography. Kingsley's book is a standard work, and it might with profit be freely drawn upon. Suitable parts will be pointed out later. The history matter concerns the relationship between Norman and Saxon, whilst the scene of Hereward's last stand can well be used to describe a portion of England which

presents unique geographical features, and which has cost the nation money and labour for its reclaiming.

Repression of the English

William, compelled to reward his nobles for their share in the conquest, seized the land of the English for this purpose. Nothing causes more bitterness than confiscation, and attacks on the Normans were frequent, though they were punished with severity and cruelty.

The English suffered social restrictions also. Their fires were ordered to be put out at sundown, and they were bidden to remain indoors after nightfall. The curfew bell was the signal. The word came from the French "*couvre-feu*," meaning "cover the fire."

Resistance of the English

Ill feeling, discontent and bitterness at last broke out into open war. It was led by Edgar Atheling, a descendant of the English kings, assisted by Edwin and Morcar, two great English earls. The resistance, however, was soon broken, and Edgar fled to Scotland. There was now left one leader only, Hereward, the son of an English noble. By his alertness and vigilance he won the name of Hereward "the Wake," i.e. the "Watchful," and it will now be pointed out how his efforts justified the title. After battling with, and baffling, the Conqueror's forces for a long time, he was forced to take refuge in the Fen country, in the midst of which now stands the city of Peterborough. The marshes here were practically impassable, and the Normans were for a long time defied. William, a man of device, as the Battle of Hastings proved, had a number of

flat-bottomed boats made, in which he placed his soldiers. In addition to this he built a road on wood piles, two miles long, through the marshes, and thereby reached the camp of Hereward. William's elaborate efforts indicate to some extent the difficult nature of the territory, which will now be described in greater detail.

The Fen Country

The Fens is an extensive tract of flat land in the east of England, and is of a very marshy nature. It extends inland around the Wash into six counties, namely, Northampton, Huntingdon, Cambridge, Lincoln, Norfolk and Suffolk, and has a total area of about twelve hundred square miles. It receives the waters of several rivers, and is intersected also by many artificial channels. (A map of England is necessary here.)

In the time of the Romans it seems to have been a great forest, but even so far back as this period the trees were cut down to form embankments to shut out the tide. So the tract was turned for a time into a fairly fertile region. But since those early days there have been violent inundations of the sea, and particularly in the thirteenth century. These inundations were so considerable that the outflow of the rivers was stopped, and the whole district became a morass. It will be remembered that King John was overtaken by the tide in the neighbourhood of the Wash and lost a good many of his valuables. In the fifteenth century the question of draining the Fens received serious attention, and from this time onwards some partial attempts were made in this direction. The first effectual effort, however, did not occur till

1634, when the Earl of Bedford, after whom the district was then called, obtained a grant, with other persons, of some hundred thousand acres, on condition that he was responsible for draining it. The work was partly accomplished in three years, at a cost of a hundred thousand pounds, but was pronounced unsatisfactory by the Government.

Charles I, whose good work for the Fens is likely to be overlooked, owing to his unconstitutional practices, tried to get the matter into his own hands, but the civil war stopped further progress. It is only within the last hundred years that efforts have been really successful in keeping back the tidal waters, and have effected the draining of the district. Thanks to engineering skill the Fen district can no longer be regarded as a morass, but as a district which is under continual cultivation and which includes some of the finest agricultural land in the country.

But in the time of Hereward the whole place was nothing but a sort of sea morass. The channels were tide channels, and were bewildering in numbers. Some were small, some large, whilst others attained to the dignity of rivers like the Witham, Welland, Nen and Ouse. But large or small, the channels consisted of nothing but light and sodden slime. It was the high tide that used to drown the land, and low tide that drained it, and wherever a patch could be found just above the influence of the tide, or near enough to some main channel for the rush and swirl of the waters to drain the island, there the villages grew. Wherever such a patch could be found, men built their first homes.

The men of the Fens were quite a race apart, and their lives and occupations peculiar to this weird district. In spring and autumn they devoted themselves to eel-catching; at mid-winter they gathered in their annual reed harvest; all through the winter they kept watch for the wild fowl which flocked to these watery wastes.

Literary Passages for Reading to the Class

But time has changed the Fens, as it does everything, and Kingsley, the author of "*Hereward the Wake*," speaks of them with rapture:

"They have a beauty of their own, these great fens, even now, when they are dyked and drained, tilled and fenced—a beauty as of the sea, of boundless space and freedom. Overhead the arch of Heaven spreads more ample than elsewhere, whilst such cloud-lands, such sunsets, such sunrises, can be seen nowhere else within these isles."

Hilaire Belloc speaks in the same strain:

"Unpicturesque as the fens may appear to some, those who know them love them; they delight in the long rows of trees, the occasional wind-mills, the wide expanse which gives a sense of space and freedom, the calm sheets of water fringed with trees, reeds and hedges and grasses, and the beautiful atmospheric effects."

Hereward's Last Stand

By means of his flat-bottomed boats, and the road he constructed, William was able to overcome Hereward's small forces. It has been said that treachery played its part, but this seems to lack historical proof, and whether this was so or not, it is certain that Hereward could not hold out long against William

and his superior forces and more abundant resources.

Hereward himself escaped and continued the war. Attacking from the sea, he managed to land his men on the coast and to harass the Norman towns. It is here that Hereward justified his title of "the Wake," for even the dauntless William seemed to tire of such an active, if not dangerous foe. So he made terms with Hereward, gave him back his lands and restored to him his former honours. This is the true sequel to Hereward's resistance, though other fates have been meted out to him. The sequel speaks well for William. He knew when to make concessions, and it is this quality of character which has given greatness to many of our English monarchs.

Hereward's dramatic and heroic stand, when all seemed lost, has left a lasting impression, and his memory was long cherished by his English compatriots. But despite his gallantry, the power of the Norman rapidly spread over the whole of England, and within the space of five years William was supreme.

Chapters for Further Reading

From "Hereward the Wake" Charles Kingsley.

(a) Chapter I. How Hereward was Outlawed.

(b) Chapter XXIII. How William the Norman conquered England.

(c) Chapter XXXIX. How Hereward went to Ely.

It should be pointed out to young students of history that historical novels, even the best of them, like those of Scott and Kingsley, are partly fiction. The author's imagination has been at work, and this factor makes

the work a novel instead of a history book. At the same time every good historical novelist adheres to fact in the essential part of the story.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. *Cause of bitterness between English and Normans* :
 - (a) Confiscation of property of the former.
 - (b) Social laws restricting their freedom.
2. *Resistance of the English*, led by :
 - (a) Edgar Atheling, Edwin and Morcar.
 - (b) Hereward the "Wake" ("Watchful").
3. *The Fen Country* :
 - (a) Position and peculiarities.
 - (b) Condition of the land and efforts to improve it.
 - (c) People and their occupations.
 - (d) Literary descriptions of the Fens.
4. *Hereward's last stand* :
 - (a) Means adopted by William the Conqueror to overcome Hereward.
 - (b) William's peace terms.

16. THE WHITE SHIP (1120)

"The barque that held a prince went down,
The sweeping waves rolled on;
And what was England's glorious crown
To him that wept a son?
He lived—for life may long be borne
Ere sorrow break its chain;
Why comes not death to those who
mourn?—
He never smiled again."

MRS. HEMANS.

KING HENRY the First was the third Norman king of England. He succeeded his brother William Rufus and both were the sons of William the Conqueror. He was a clever man and could write and speak in Latin, French and English, and William the Conqueror, who could not write, had been very proud of him.



THE NATIVE PEOPLE OF THE ISLANDS

AN EARLY BRITISH SETTLEMENT

Chiefdom of the people. A photograph of the settlement of the people of the island.

Although Henry was a Norman he married an English wife (Matilda), and this made him very popular. The English and the Normans in England now became more friendly than they had ever been before. They began to speak each other's language and to intermarry.

In 1106 King Henry became master of Normandy, and, in consequence, he frequently visited that country. In 1120 two of his children, William and Mary, accompanied him there. On the return journey, King Henry started for England first, and his children followed in *The White Ship*. It was manned by rowers who were determined to overtake the King's ship, so they rowed with might and main. The young Prince and Princess and their friends were making merry, when suddenly there was a shock and some shouts of fear. The ship had struck a hidden rock; water poured in and it began to sink. The sailors lowered a boat and, remembering that Prince William was their future King, placed him in first and pushed off the boat. Then cries were heard from the sinking vessel. They were the cries of the Princess Mary. Prince William ordered the boat to be turned back. Many people jumped into it and it was swamped and sank. In but a few minutes that gay crowd were all drowned, and only one man, a butcher, was saved.

For a long time no one dared tell the King of the disaster. When he did hear the sad news, he was so overcome with grief that he was never seen to smile again. His son and heir was dead, and he had only one child left, Matilda.

17. THOMAS À BECKET

KING HENRY II was the son of Matilda, who was the daughter of Henry I. Her brother had been drowned through the wreck of *The White Ship*, so her son became King when King Stephen (Matilda's uncle) died.

The most important man during the reign of Henry II was Thomas à Becket. He was born in London in A.D. 1118. His father was a Norman and had lived for some years in Rouen before the birth of Thomas. He was a famous citizen of England and had been Mayor of the City of London, so Thomas came in touch quite early with noteworthy people.

Thomas was well educated and very clever, so clever that when he arrived at manhood the Archbishop of Canterbury took him into his own household. Here he did so well that he was introduced to the notice of the King, and was made his Chancellor. This was a most important office, for he was the King's chief secretary and chief adviser. Moreover, he and the King became great friends, often taking their pleasures together when the business of the State was over for the day.

Thomas lived in great luxury during this period of his life. He dwelt in magnificent houses, kept large numbers of servants and horses and even rivalled the King in the splendour with which he surrounded himself.

Later on the King raised him to the position of Archbishop of Canterbury, the highest position attainable in the Church.

From that day, differences arose between the King and Becket. Now the two great powers in the State were

the King and barons, and the Church. In Rome, the Pope was the head of the Church, but in England the King was over the Church, and the Archbishop was his chief clergyman. But Becket did not want to acknowledge the King's power over him. He claimed that only the Church could punish "churchmen" guilty of crime, and not the King's courts.

The term "Churchmen" included in those days not only clergymen but also all people connected in any way whatever with the service of the Church. Monks, clerks, teachers and often servants of a church or monastery were called "churchmen," and had the right to be tried in the Bishop's Court. The fact that a man could read and write was often held to be proof that he was a "churchman." The King said that whether a man was a "churchman" or not he must obey the laws of the land. If he did not, then he must be punished by the judges of the King's court. Becket refused to allow "churchmen" to go to the King's court and much confusion arose. Again, Becket said that the "churchmen" should pay their taxes to him and not to the King.

The quarrels continued, and at last Becket was banished to Normandy. For six years he remained away from England. Then Henry crossed to Normandy and the quarrel was patched up. Becket returned to Canterbury, and the people turned out to give him a hearty welcome, for they looked upon him as their protector against the laws of the barons.

At once Becket began to disobey the King as before. Henry had remained in Normandy, and when the news of Becket was brought to him, he hastily spoke the words which he

afterwards regretted—"Will no one rid me of this turbulent priest?"

Four knights heard the remark, and hoping thereby to gain favour with the King, they hurried home to Canterbury. They arrived at Canterbury Cathedral on the evening of December 29th, 1170. It was a cold, dreary night when they reached the sacred edifice. They found the Archbishop near the little chapel on the left-hand side of the cathedral. They called him "traitor" and then they slew him with their swords.

"Where is the Archbishop, Thomas Becket?"

"Here.

No traitor to the King, but Priest of God, Primate of England. I am he ye seek, What would ye have of me?"

"Your life."

TENNYSON: "Becket."

Such a murder within the precincts of the cathedral raised horror and anger all over England, and indeed over Europe.

Henry was overcome with remorse. He hurried home and, barefooted and in mean attire, he did penance before the tomb of Thomas à Becket. Before a crowd of bishops and monks and courtiers he knelt, while seventy monks of Canterbury in turn scourged him.

The Pope made Thomas à Becket a saint, and more than a hundred churches all over the country were dedicated to his memory. Thousands of pilgrims made their way to Canterbury every year to pray at his tomb.

Geoffrey Chaucer, "the Father of English Poetry," wrote "The Canterbury Tales" some two hundred years after. In these he describes the various pilgrims journeying to the shrine of Becket.

On the site where St. Thomas's Hospital now stands at Westminster, opposite the Houses of Parliament, a hospital was erected soon after his death "in honour of God and His blessed martyr St. Thomas."

TEACHING NOTES

1. Deal with the struggle for power between Church and State, hence the Constitutions of Clarendon.
2. Compare the struggle in France over the same question.
3. Deal simply with the position of the Church of Rome.

18. RICHARD LION-HEART AND THE CRUSADES

HENRY II had four sons, of whom Richard and John in turn became King of England.

Richard reigned for ten years, and during that time he was only twice in his own country, for he was fighting in the Holy Land, and the government of the country was left in the hands of the barons.

Richard was a very strong man, and as bold as a lion, hence the surname "Lion-Heart." (Norman "Coeur de Lion.") He was a great and fearless fighter and a splendid leader. When Richard appeared on horseback before his army, clad in shining armour and swinging his mighty battle-axe, his soldiers' faces beamed with love and admiration for him, and they followed him against any foe.

His battles were fought abroad against the Turks, in Palestine, the land of Joseph and his brethren, the land of David, the land of Christ. The Turks did not follow the teachings of Christ, but of the prophet Mahomed, and so they persecuted all those who

dared to be Christians. Now there arose a priest, "Peter the Hermit," who was determined that the Turks should be turned out of the Holy Land, of which Jerusalem was the capital. So he called upon the kings, princes and people of Europe to give up all pleasures and devote their time and energies to this end. With a cross held aloft, he travelled from place to place, urging the people to follow the banner of Christ, to fight for Christianity and to turn the Turks out of Jerusalem. He stirred up such fervour and enthusiasm that thousands followed him, each wearing, as their badge, a cross. So "Peter the Hermit" is said to have preached a "cross-ade," which word became shortened to "Crusade" (cf. blockade). The Turks' sign was a crescent, and is seen on their flag to this day.

Among the many who took up the cause of Christianity was Richard Lion-Heart. He was the most famous and the most heroic of all the Crusaders. Indeed, when he appeared on the scene, the other Crusaders had almost lost heart. But he inspired them to such great deeds of bravery that the infidels began to be terrified of him. In the end the Turks were able to keep Jerusalem and the Crusaders lost their cause for the time being.

So Richard turned his thoughts homeward. On his way back from Palestine he was seized by his enemy the Duke of Austria and put into prison. He lay there undiscovered by his friends for twelve months. Then his old friend and companion, Blondel the musician, who was searching for the King all over Europe, happened to play on his harp outside the walls of — — — which the King was im-

prisoned. The King recognised Blondel's music and sang an answering note. Overjoyed, Blondel took the news back to England, and a big ransom was paid to get the King free.

About a year after, Richard Lion-Heart was killed by an arrow in Normandy. King Philip of France had threatened to seize Richard's lands there, so Richard went over to defend his rights.

Now while King Richard was absent in the Holy Land, things were not going smoothly in his own country. There is an old and very true saying that "When the cat's away, the mice will play." Taking advantage of the King's absence, the nobles and barons were making themselves very powerful in the land, and this fact should be remembered, for much trouble came later through the struggle for power by the barons.

Although the loss of Palestine did not affect England, yet the Crusades had some influence on our country.

Our soldiers came into contact with the learned men of the East, and one of the results of this was that instead of using the awkward Roman numerals *xlvi*, *ix*, and so on, people began to use the Arabic 48, 9. Then again, people began to take a greater interest in geography, for many of them had travelled across Europe to Asia and brought back glowing descriptions of their travels. Trade, too, increased with Europe and the East. Many of the Crusaders brought back with them damask, muslin, carpets, spices, sugar, lemons, dates, and other manufactured articles and fruits.

All these things added interest, new ideas and comfort to life; and the

homes of the people were brightened in consequence.

TEACHING NOTES

1. Link up early Bible stories with the present story.

2. Emphasise:

(a) The fight between Christian and Moslem.

(b) The rise of the barons' power—very important.

(c) The influence of the Crusades on home-life in England.

19. KING JOHN AND THE GREAT CHARTER

WHEN King John succeeded Richard his brother, he found the country in a very troubled state, owing to the long absences of King Richard at the Crusades. The barons and nobles were constantly quarrelling with each other for more power, and then they began to quarrel with John for the same reason.

Now John was not the sort of man to make peace. He had been pampered by his father, King Henry II, and was selfish, greedy and cruel in consequence. He did not mind telling lies, or poking fun at religion, and he even murdered his nephew Arthur, of whom he was jealous. To punish him the King of France took away all his possessions in Normandy, and so the Kings of England ceased to be lords of France. The English people rejoiced, for the Norman knights had been continually absent from home. Now they could give more time and attention to the needs of England, and the English people hoped for better times.

But John was a very quarrelsome man. He quarrelled with the Church and then he quarrelled with the barons.



A CRUSADER.

The Crusades were wars which were carried on during the 11th, 12th and 13th centuries with the object of wresting Palestine from the Turks. The warriors, called Crusaders (Cross-aders), wore the sign of the Cross on their breasts. Richard I (Lion-heart) was the greatest of English Crusaders.

Now Henry II had been more powerful than his barons. He kept the country in order and also made peace with the Church, but King Richard allowed the barons to become powerful because he gave all his attention to the Crusades and none to his country. John wanted to put down both the power of the clergy and the barons, and to rule the country by himself, and how he pleased. So the clergy and barons joined together against the King.

The Archbishop of Canterbury, Stephen Langton, showed them the Charter of Freedom which King Henry I had given to the people a hundred years before. Encouraged by this, the bishops and barons and some of the important merchants of the City of London came to John and set before him the Great Charter (*Magna Charta*), which they had drawn up.

They arranged to meet him on June 15th, 1215, at Runnymede—a meadow in the valley of the Thames between Staines and Egham. A tent was erected for the King; above it waved the royal banner and the banners of the barons and nobles. On a dais in front, a beautiful throne was built, on the back of which were the golden lions of England, emblazoned on scarlet silk. Several steps led to the dais, and these were covered with crimson carpet. A golden canopy was fixed above, and everything was arranged in keeping with the dignity of kingship and the importance of the occasion.

King John met his clergy and barons and merchants very fiercely; at first he refused to listen to their demands. Then, seeing the stern look of resolve on their faces, he sulkily consented to hear them.

He ascended the throne, and there he

sat in his royal red robes, a crown upon his head and the sword of state in his hand, listening to the monk reading the Charter, and silently vowing revenge on the barons.

The Pope's legate stood on his left, and the barons and nobles encircled him at a respectful distance. Nearby was a bench, at which was seated a clerk with wax and seal ready for the King to use.

Slowly and clearly the monk read to the King the terms of the Great Charter:

1. That the people could be taxed only with the consent of the King's Council.

2. That no man could be punished or hurt in any way unless he had been properly tried according to the law.

There were many other clauses, but these were the two most important, and they affect our laws to this day.

When the monk had finished reading, King John was furious. He gnashed his teeth and scowled, and refused to sign. But like many bad-tempered and selfish men, he was a coward. He saw the determined looks of those around him, and he felt that his throne was in danger. So he bent forward and set his seal to the Great Charter.

Directly King John had signed the Charter, his fury knew no bounds. He sent to the Pope and asked him to free him from his bond. The Pope wished to do this, as he was anxious to keep the King of England friendly to Rome. But the barons were angry with both the King and the Pope. Just when it looked as though there might be civil war between the supporters of the King and those of the barons, King John died and was regretted by no one.

Ever since the days of King John, the Charter has been the written law of our land, and if kings in later years did unlawful or tyrannical acts, they were reminded and cured of their lawlessness by being made to sign the Great Charter. It has been signed nearly forty times.

In the Royal Exchange in London there is a beautiful fresco by a famous artist, depicting King John listening to the monk reading the clauses of the Magna Charta to him, and there is a copy of the Great Charter in the British Museum.

20. SIMON DE MONTFORT AND THE FIRST PARLIAMENT

WHEN King John died his son Henry became King. He was only a boy nine years old when he took over the reins of government, so a Regent was appointed till he became of age in 1227. He soon showed the barons and people that his reign would not be a success, for he began early to break the laws of the country, and surrounded himself with bad advisers.

The King married Eleanor, a French lady. She invited her friends in large numbers to the English courts. Henry gave to them estates, money and office, so that they were "eating up the land like a flight of locusts."

He also taxed the people in order to meet the demands made by the Pope upon the purse of the country. At last the English barons and nobles were roused, and they met together, determined to find some way of ridding the young King of his hordes of foreign favourites.

Now the leader of the barons was

Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, a good and just man. He had come over from France as one of the King's foreign courtiers. He married the King's sister and became an Englishman in all his ways and conduct. He was an honourable man, and he was grieved when he saw that Henry was acting unjustly to his own country. So he, with the barons' support, forced the King to swear that he would keep the laws of the Great Charter. This Henry promised to do many times, but broke his promise on every occasion. At last the barons in despair took up arms against the King, with Simon de Montfort at their head, and in 1264 the King was defeated at the Battle of Lewes.

The next year (1265) Simon de Montfort summoned the *first real Parliament*. It consisted of twenty-three barons, together with one hundred and twenty representatives of the Church. Besides these, there were representatives from the towns, who were chosen by the townspeople themselves. The archbishops, bishops, abbots, nobles, knights and townsmen all met together in one chamber, and there decided what money was needed for carrying on the government, and how it could be obtained.

They also decided other points concerning the well-being of the country, and asked the King to act according to their decisions.

This Parliament, however, did very little, as its members seemed afraid of offending the King. Simon de Montfort was killed by Prince Edward's army at the battle of Evesham in 1265. Edward was Henry III's eldest son. After Simon's death Parliament did not meet again for ten years, and

the country went on suffering under the King's bad government.

The greater part of Westminster Abbey, as we know it to-day, was built in the reign of Henry III, with money which the King raised by taxes, or took from the people in ways which were not always legal.

21. THE FIRST PRINCE OF WALES

WHEN Henry III died in 1272, his son Edward became King. He was very popular with the barons and the people, because he already had the good of the country at heart.

The Norman and English barons were now becoming friends, for the former were fast learning to speak the English language, and were adopting English ways. Moreover, they were intermarrying, and so the two peoples were gradually becoming one. But although there was peace among the English, there was much trouble with the Welsh. In the reign of Henry III, led by Prince Llewelyn, they were constantly attacking the English from their mountain fastnesses.

Now the people who inhabited "wild Wales" were descendants of the Britons who came over from Gaul soon after the Gaels landed in Britain, i.e. they were Celts. When the Saxons invaded England between A.D. 400-500, the Britons were driven to the west, and they entrenched themselves among the mountains of Wales. There they settled permanently and kept their own language, habits and customs. They were shepherds and remained so; they dwelt in huts on the mountain sides and

clothed themselves in skins. They were fond of music, and the mountain air and free life seem to have given them strong voices, with the courage to use them freely. To this day they speak the Celtic language, and are clever at "natural" singing. Many now speak English too, but there are societies and annual festivals for keeping alive the old Welsh language.

When Edward I came to the throne, he was determined to be the chief ruler of Wales, and to put an end to these petty wars between the Welsh and English. So he sent word to Prince Llewelyn to pay homage to him as the King of Wales. This Llewelyn refused to do, so Edward declared war against him, and led an army into Wales.

After much fighting, with doubtful results, the Welsh were beaten and their Prince killed (1282).

Then King Edward was proclaimed King of Wales. He built strong castles in many parts of the country, and the armies therein guarded those parts against any risings. Next he divided the country into twelve counties, after the English fashion, and he appointed justices to carry out the laws of Wales. He styled himself King of England and Wales. In 1301 Prince Edward, who had been born in Carnarvon Castle in 1284, was given the title of *Prince of Wales*, as King Edward had promised at his son's birth. The warm-hearted Welsh people were delighted; they forgot all old enmities, and did homage to the young Prince. Ever since, the eldest son of the sovereign of England has borne the title of "Prince of Wales." The present Prince of Wales is Colonel-in-chief of the Welsh Guards,

and wears the uniform on many public and State occasions.

"Among our ancient mountains
And from our lovely vales,
Oh let the prayer re-echo,
'God bless the Prince of Wales.'

"With heart and voice awaken
Those minstrel strains of yore,
Till Britain's name and glory,
Resound from shore to shore."
GEORGE LINGLEY.

22. SCOTLAND AND HER HEROES

KING EDWARD I conceived the idea that England, Scotland and Wales should be governed by one King. By 1282, he was King of Wales, and now he turned his attention to conquering Scotland. This proved a much harder task than the conquest of Wales, for here were settled in different parts various people unlike in race and language, and living under their petty kings.

When the Saxons came to England from Germany they drove the Britons before them. Some of them went to Scotland and settled south of Glasgow. The Saxons followed them and settled in Cumberland and in the south of Scotland also. They drove out the Picts and Scots, or else intermarried with them. The Picts went further north in Scotland, and the Scots settled north of Glasgow. Each of these peoples—the Saxons, Britons, Picts and Scots—had its own petty king, and often these petty kings were at war with one another. Gradually, through conquering each other's domains, the number of kingships and kings in Scotland became less and less until at last there was but one king over all Scotland (A.D. 844).

The most important king of the whole of Scotland was David I (A.D. 1124–1153). He married the sister of King Henry I of England. He was often at the English court and improved the conditions of life in his own country by introducing English customs there. He taught his people how to cultivate orchards and gardens. He took Norman nobles to his court to enable him to govern the country in a more organised way, for he was really anxious that all men should receive the full measure of justice. He founded the beautiful abbeys of Melrose, Jedburgh, Holyrood and Kelso.

Now the Scottish Kings had at various times been induced to acknowledge the English Kings as their overlords. During Edward I's reign the heir to the Scottish throne died; thirteen claimants appeared, and Edward was asked to act as umpire. John Baliol and Robert Bruce had the best claim, and Edward decided in favour of *John Baliol* (1290) because he had acknowledged Edward as his overlord. So Baliol became the new Scottish King, but immediately afterwards he refused to acknowledge Edward as his overlord.

Edward was infuriated; he stormed Berwick-on-Tweed—then a Scottish town—and won the battle. To this day Berwick remains an English town. Then he marched his army north. Everywhere the English were victorious. They got as far as Scone and carried away the "Stone of Destiny," on which the Scottish Kings were crowned. Edward placed it in Westminster Abbey under the Coronation Chair which he had built for the Kings of England, and it has remained there ever since.

But Edward could not conquer all Scotland so easily. There arose in the south a mighty leader, *William Wallace*. No one seems to know whence he came, and for that reason he has often been likened to Joan of Arc. He met Edward in battle at *Falkirk* and was defeated, but for five years after, he continued to lead the struggle against the English King for Scotland's independence. Then he was betrayed and executed in 1305. The Scottish people looked upon Wallace as a saint. Not far from Stirling there is a magnificent monument erected to his memory. It is built on a hill and overlooks the whole of the valley between the Rivers Forth and Clyde, including the battlefields of Falkirk and Bannockburn.

But Scotland was not subdued. Edward I died in 1307 and Edward II was busy with wars in France. *Robert Bruce*, grandson of the Robert Bruce against whom Edward I had decided in favour of Baliol, now placed himself at the head of the Scottish army. He was a fearless man, and people flocked to his banner. Edward II sent only a small army against him, but hearing that it was defeated he withdrew troops from France and marched a large army to Scotland. The two armies met at *Bannockburn*, two miles from Stirling, in June 1314. The English were hopelessly beaten. King Edward II had to flee on horseback to Dunbar on the coast, and thence escape to England. So Robert Bruce became the Scottish King and Scotland won back her independence.

Sir Walter Scott has immortalised the battle in "The Lord of the Isles," and Robert Burns, "the poet of the Scottish people," has written the following :

ROBERT BRUCE'S ADDRESS TO HIS ARMY BEFORE THE BATTLE OF BANNOCKBURN

Scots, wha hae wi' Wallace bled,
Scots, wham Bruce has aften led,
Welcome to your gory bed,
Or to glorious victorie.

Now's the day, and Now's the hour ;
See the front o' battle lower !
See approach proud Edward's power—
Edward ! chains and slavery !

Wha will be a traitor knave ?
Wha can fill a coward's grave ?
Wha sae base as be a slave ?
Traitor ! Coward ! turn and flee !

Wha for Scotland's King and law
Freedom's sword will strongly draw,
Freeman stand, or freeman fa' ?
Caledonian ! on wi' me !

By oppression's woes and pains !
By your sons in servile chains !
We will drain our dearest veins,
But they shall—they shall be free !

Lay the proud usurpers low !
Tyrants fall in every foe !
Liberty's in every blow !
Forward ! let us do or die !

TEACHING NOTES

Omit complicated history of the British, Saxon and Scottish settlers in Scotland. A very bare account only is necessary. An outline map must be used and the names of the peoples inserted as the lesson proceeds.

23. FAIRS AND MARKETS

IN LESSON FORM

1. Fairs

Introduction

AS it is a golden rule in teaching to proceed from the known to the unknown whenever possible, this lesson can reasonably be opened by a reference to the so-called fairs commonly held in many of our cities at the

present day. These fairs often take the form of places of entertainment only—there are stalls containing “goodies” of every description; shows and shooting galleries; flying horses and roundabouts; conjurers and coco-nuts. Some such fairs are still held in every country, and they connect the present day very closely with the life of bygone days, for at many of them a good deal of buying and selling is done.

But most fairs at the present day put pleasure before business; the fairs of olden times put business before pleasure.

The Origin of Fairs

The word “fair” comes from an old Roman word which meant “feast” or “festival,” and there are many villages in England which still have their annual village feast—an event often regarded as more important than a Bank Holiday.

In the beginning, the village feast was connected with the parish church—it was perhaps the festival of the saint after whom the church was named. The day of the feast was made a general holiday, and the people went to church as a matter of course.

So the church was the meeting-place, and in the porch, churchyard and afterwards on the village green, relatives, friends and neighbours met to rejoice.



A TOWN-CRIER.

The town-crier still exists in several places, e.g. Holborn (London) and Eastbourne. From points of vantage he gives out public notices, descriptions of lost property, etc., attracting attention by the vigorous ringing of a bell. His opening cry, “O yez, O yez,” is very ancient and quaint.

A gathering of this kind would naturally attract pedlars and hawkers, who would spread out their goods on the green, in the porch, or in the churchyard. This practice seems to savour of desecration. We read in John ii. 14-16, that Jesus made a scourge of cords and drove the money-changers out of the Temple, and those that sold oxen, sheep and doves. The sale of these animals in the precincts of the temple was sanctioned on the score of procuring animals for sacrifice, but it is apparent that the sellers had invaded the sacred

courts of the temple, and the money-changing also was often conducted dishonestly. There seems little justification for hawking in the porch or churchyard, though such transactions were not likely to have been conducted with studied irreverence.

Hence, little by little, the "feast" became a "fair," and in many cases developed later into an important business gathering. Fairs go back to very early times. They were held in Italy in the fifth century, and Cicero mentions them in the early days of Greece.

The Right to Hold Fairs

Here it must be pointed out that the life of the time was "local." Villages were self-supporting; towns were comparatively few; a stranger was a "foreigner." It did not suit the ideas of the time, therefore, that outsiders should come into the village to sell as they pleased. To prevent this invasion of the "foreigner," the lord of the manor began to regulate matters. Outsiders who brought their goods were called upon to pay "due" or "toll" to the lord of the manor for permission to trade; and the right of receiving tolls for fairs became one of his special privileges. When the towns saw how profitable fairs had become they were anxious to have fairs of their own. But the King himself had a voice in this matter, and every stall set up brought him an income.

The King had the right to grant, almost to whom he pleased, the privilege of holding a fair; and the privilege was much sought after. Towns got charters from the King, which very often gave to them this right. But it was quite a common thing for the King

to make a grant of an annual fair to a religious house which he wanted to benefit, without much cost to himself, and the profits of the fair went to support the house. The King's nobles did the same kind of thing.

The tradesmen of the place had to pay their tolls to the person or public body to whom the fair had been granted, just as the strangers coming into the town did.

Fairs lasted in some cases for only one day; in others for two, three or more days, and sometimes as long as a fortnight, during which time the shops in the place had to be closed—all trade had to be carried on only at the fair. That was one of the things which caused jealousy between the trading class and the religious houses, and often led to much ill-feeling and disorder.

Then, too, the King could grant to a person the right to go to any fair in the country, without paying toll and duty. Of course, those persons to whom the King granted this right had to pay him very heavily for this privilege, but you can see that it was quite worth their while.

Many of the religious houses had entered into trade, too, and very often the same privilege of putting their goods on the market was granted to them. Members of a religious house could often travel from place to place without having to pay tolls and duties which other folk had to pay. That might be quite right and reasonable when they were on some religious duty or errand of mercy, but when it was connected with buying and selling the goods produced or manufactured on the monastery lands, it was a handicap to the traders. The grievance grew up

gradually, but it very often caused a bitter feeling between the towns and the religious houses in them.

Some reference should be made here to the desirability of fair trading for a fair profit, and to old-time trading under the system of monopolies, where to one trader was granted the sole right to trade in a particular commodity.

Jews and monks later came under a ban: the Jews were expelled and the monasteries suppressed, though how far this was due to trading, it would be difficult to say.

Some Great Fairs

Some very large fairs are still held in England at the present day, such as those at Lincoln and Carlisle. At Barnet a large fair is held every year in September. Stourbridge in Cambridgeshire still has its fair, which is quite ordinary now, though in the Middle Ages it was one of the most important, not only in England but in Europe also.

Great fairs are held at Nijni-Novgorod in Russia, Leipzig and Frankfort-on-the-Main in Germany, and Vienna in Austria.

Fairs in England, and in fact over the world, have declined in size and importance for the following reasons:

1. Improved methods of transport have enabled goods to be carried from place to place, goods to persons and persons to goods.

2. Tolls and dues are no longer an important part of a monarch's income.

3. Most of our food and raw materials is imported from foreign countries.

4. England has become a nation, instead of a collection of self-sufficing towns and villages.

Revival of Fairs

Though not held so frequently as formerly, fairs on a large scale have continued since the Middle Ages; and of late there has been a distinct revival.

The Great Exhibition of 1851, arranged by Prince Albert, the consort of Queen Victoria, was undertaken on a very large scale. The so-called exhibition was to be a grand fair, to which foreigners were to be invited to display their goods, along with those of British tradesmen. But the entry of the foreigners was not received with much favour at first, though opposition was at last overcome.

The building was to be erected in Hyde Park and was entrusted to Joseph Paxton, who afterwards became Sir Joseph Paxton. He was not a builder, but a great gardener, and his idea was to build a structure like a huge greenhouse, to be known as the Crystal Palace. When the exhibition was opened on the first of May, the Queen wrote in her diary, "The great event has taken place. A complete and beautiful triumph." Lord Palmerston said, "It was indeed a glorious day for England."

Six million people are said to have visited the fair. Amongst others, the Queen noted that there was an old woman who had walked all the way from Cornwall.

The Duke of Argyll, in his life of Queen Victoria, says:

"The bringing together of French, German, Italian and other European specimens of art showed us where we were behind; while on the other hand we compared very favourably with foreigners in all the heavier and more durable products, especially machinery. In the making of china too,

Stoke was soon shown to be by no means inferior to Dresden and Sèvres. The colonies all made a fine show at the exhibition, chiefly of raw material. Enormous masses of gold came from Australia, splendid iron from New Zealand, and wheat and fur from Canada. One of the greatest achievements in mechanics was the Nasmyth steam hammer. It was five tons in weight, and when raised came down with a tremendous force, but was nevertheless so perfectly under control that the workmen were in the habit of putting a nut under the hammer and cracking it without injuring the kernel."

The whole building has since been transferred to Sydenham, where as the "Crystal Palace" it has given entertainment to myriads of people.

In 1927 a large British Industries fair was held in London and Birmingham. The Press of the time said

"Ten thousand foreign buyers have arrived, or are on their way to England, and will invade the two sections of the British Industries fair at the White City, and Castle Bromwich, Birmingham, from the opening hour at 10 a m on Monday until the end of the exhibition on March 2nd

"They represent almost every civilized trading country throughout the world, including such distant places as Siam, Iceland, and the Seychelles Islands. It is expected that a hundred countries will be represented at the Fair, and that their representatives will create an expansion in British trade beyond even the most optimistic expectations."

2. Markets

The transition from fairs to markets is a natural and easy one.

Description.—A pleasant sight to behold is the market-place of an old-fashioned country town on a market-day. In many such towns the weekly market is held, in the same place where it has been held for centuries.

Corn-markets are held in most

market-towns, frequently on the same day as the general market, and many towns now boast a corn exchange. Then, too, in some places there are markets held in connection with the chief trade of the neighbourhood.

The market-house is often a curious building. It might be described as "a big room on legs." There is a large room standing on stone or wooden arches. The open space underneath serves to shelter some of the market stalls, and a staircase leads up from the street to the room above, where the town council holds its meetings. On the roof of this building is a turret containing a clock, and perhaps a fire-bell and a market-bell.

The stalls set up on the market-day are of the same simple kind as those which have been used for centuries. It is curious to notice how the different trades keep to different parts of the market-place, butchers in one place, greengrocers in another, and fish-mongers in another.

The market-cross still remains in some towns, but the cross itself has in many cases disappeared long ago. In some places the steps and the lower part of the cross still remain, but there is a kind of open shed built round it to form a shelter. Some of these shelters are very ornamental, like those of Chichester and Winchester. At the cross a good deal of business was done. There the mayor or his officers would read out public notices on market-day, that everybody might hear. Not far from the cross was the cage, where folk who had been "taken up" were put for a time. The stocks, the pillory and the whipping-post, in the seventeenth century, were usually in the market-place, not far from the cross.

In the Middle Ages, markets provided for the retail trade, whereas fairs generally provided for the wholesale.

Rules of the Market

Every precaution was taken in olden times to secure fairness of dealing in the markets, and the rules which follow were sufficiently stringent to ensure this :

1. The butcher could sell at his stall by retail until noon, when he was obliged to sell wholesale. When the vesper-bell rang, all his meat must have been sold : he could take none home to store or salt down.

2. All goods had to be sold in the open market, not in secret places.

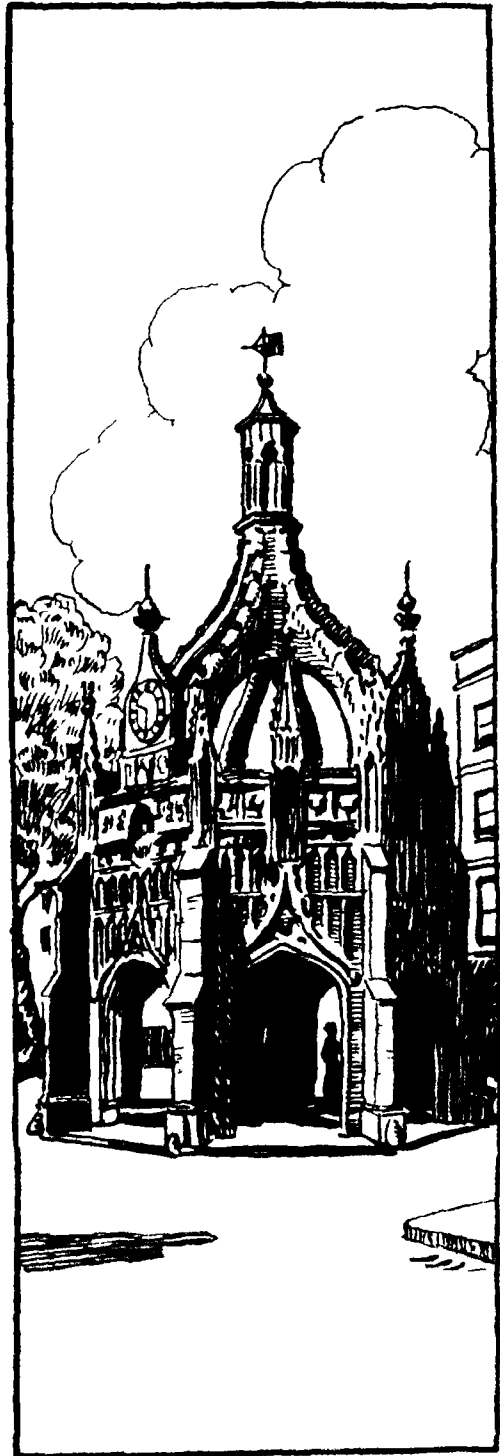
3. No market could be set up without the King's leave.

4. Even the *day* of the market could not be changed without the King's leave.

"The market of Newcastle-under-Tyne has been changed, therefore the town is in mercy," says an old statute. ("In mercy," means that it had to pay a fine to the King.)

5. A man who had goods for sale had to bring them to the market himself, so that only one person got a profit on the sale instead of two or more.

(A golden opportunity is afforded here for the teacher to dwell upon our present vicious system, where goods pass through the hands of so many persons, each of whom expects to get a profit. Too many middlemen and too many agents are often the reason for high prices. Compare the price of coal at the pit's mouth with the price the householder has to pay.)



CHICHESTER MARKET CROSS.

Conclusion

As a fitting close to the lesson the teacher might read the following account of Fairs and Markets in the Middle Ages, written by a contemporary.

"There are (as I take it) few great towns in England that have not their weekly markets, one or more granted from the prince, in which all manner of provision for household is to be bought and sold, for ease and benefit of the country round about. Whereby, as it cometh to pass that no buyer shall make any great journey in the purveyance of his necessities, so no occupier shall have occasion to travel far off with his commodities, except it be to seek for the highest prices, which commonly are near unto great cities, where round and speediest utterance is always to be had.

"To conclude, therefore, in our markets all things are to be sold necessary for man's use; and there is our provision made commonly for all the week ensuing. Therefore, as there are no great towns without one weekly market at least, so there are very few of them that have not one or two fairs or more within the compass of the year, assigned unto them by the prince."

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. *Origin of Fairs:*

The village feast and the parish church; the village green, and the hawkers and pedlars.

2. *The Right to Hold Fairs:*

Right belonged to the villagers; outsiders banned, or they paid "tolls" to the lord of the manor for privilege.

Spread of Fairs from village to town.
King received payment for granting privilege of holding stalls.

3. *Some Great Fairs:*

Where still held; decline of fairs and reasons thereof.

4. *Revival of Fairs:*

Exhibitions, notably those of 1851 and 1927.

5. *Markets:*

Transition from Fairs to Markets; market-days, market-towns, corn exchange, the market-house, market-cross.

6. *Rules of the Market:*

Reasons for rules; benefits derived.

24. EDWARD, THE BLACK PRINCE

KING PHILIP of France was anxious to pick a quarrel with King Edward III of England. So he declared that, as the Scots were descended from the Celts, they were the kinsmen of the French and therefore he must protect them against the English.

Edward replied that the Scottish people were his enemies, and if the King of France helped them, he too must be considered an enemy of England.

Another quarrel between the two Kings was about Flanders. In those days England reared sheep and produced the best wool in Europe. This wool was sent to the great wool markets at Bruges and Ghent in Flanders (now Belgium). The Count of Flanders quarrelled with the English merchants there and put them in prison. King Edward retaliated by preventing any more English wool being sent to the great wool markets of Flanders. The merchants of Flanders found themselves getting poorer in consequence, and begged Edward to be their overlord instead of the King of France. This offended Philip; thus was another excuse found and war was declared.

This was the beginning of a war between the two countries which lasted, with intervals, for a hundred years, and cost thousands of lives, besides doing much damage to property and commerce.

The fights between France and England took place both on land and on sea. The most famous on land was the *Battle of Crécy*, 1346. The King of England crossed the Channel with his army, and halted at the little village of Crécy in the north-east of France, near the borders of Flanders. There he met the King of France, who had an army of 120,000 men—about four times as large as the English army.

Armies in the fourteenth century consisted mainly of knights and archers. The knights were horse-soldiers, and wore mail shirts over their bodies. They had their limbs and heads covered with plated armour. The faces and some parts of the bodies of their horses were also protected. When the knights charged the enemy, they advanced in closed-up rows, and at a slow trot. Arrows fell harmlessly on their armour, but if their horses' limbs were shot, and the knights pitched off the animals' backs, it was a difficult matter for them to rise again in this stiff armour. Hence the archers always tried to hit the limbs of the enemy's horses, and so disable the knights.

The archers were foot soldiers. In this battle, each English archer was armed with a "long-bow." The bow was about two yards long, and the arrows were about half the length. Arrows shot from a "long-bow" could hit with tremendous force, and could kill even at a distance of an eighth of a mile. The bow was carried in a

leather case slung from the hip, so that it would not get wet, for damp would slacken the bow, and render it almost useless.

The archer wore a metal helmet, a leather jersey, long tight hose, very like the drill hose of the schoolgirl to-day, and a leather belt round the waist. From this hung, on the left, the case for his bow and sheaf of arrows, and on the right, a short sword.

The English archer was a past-master of his art, for he began to learn it as soon as his fingers were big enough to handle a bow. He could shoot so surely and so fast that the battle of Crécy was described by one writer as "a snow-storm of arrows."

The enemy's archers were armed with the "cross-bow." It was a clumsily made weapon, and did not shoot as far or as surely as the "long-bow," nor could it be handled so quickly.

Now the English were entrenched on a hill at Crécy, and watched with keen enthusiasm the on-coming of the Genoese cross-bowmen, whom Philip of France had hired from Italy. With a war-whoop the Italians let fly their arrows. But thousands of them missed the mark and fell harmlessly to the ground. Then the English archers, steadily and with sure aim, shot forth their arrows, "so thick that it seemed to snow." The Genoese wavered. On rushed our cavalry, led by King Edward himself on a beautiful white charger. The French cavalry, led by Philip, were beaten back, but they bravely rallied again and again.

The Prince of Wales, known as the "Black Prince" because of the colour of his armour, was in the thick of the fight, and at one time in danger of his

life. The Earl of Warwick sent a messenger to the King, asking him to send aid to his son. "Not so," said the King, "let the boy win his spurs." This answer was conveyed to the Prince, who fought more gallantly than ever and at last put the French to flight. King Philip fled for his life.

For the first time in the history of battles, the thunder of cannon was heard at Crécy. An English monk (Roger Bacon) is credited with introducing its use to the English. The cannon were small and made of wood, and strengthened with iron hoops. The balls were about the size of a leather cricket ball, and although they probably did very little damage at Crécy, yet from that time, the use of the mailed knight and the archer in battle began to decline.

King Edward followed up this victory by besieging and capturing Calais in 1347. Calais was then a most important town. It was our gateway into France, and also one of our great wool markets. This town remained in the possession of the English till the time of the Tudor Queen, Mary.

CRÉCY 1347

"To the King run the messengers, crying
'Thy son is hard-press'd to the dying!'
'Let alone; for to-day will be written in
story

To the great world's end, and for ever:
So let the boy have the glory.'

"The Prince to his father kneels lowly;
'His is the battle! his wholly!
For to-day is a day will be written in
story

To the world's end, and for ever:
So, let him have the spurs, and the
glory.'"

F. T. PALGRAVE

25. JOAN OF ARC SAVES FRANCE

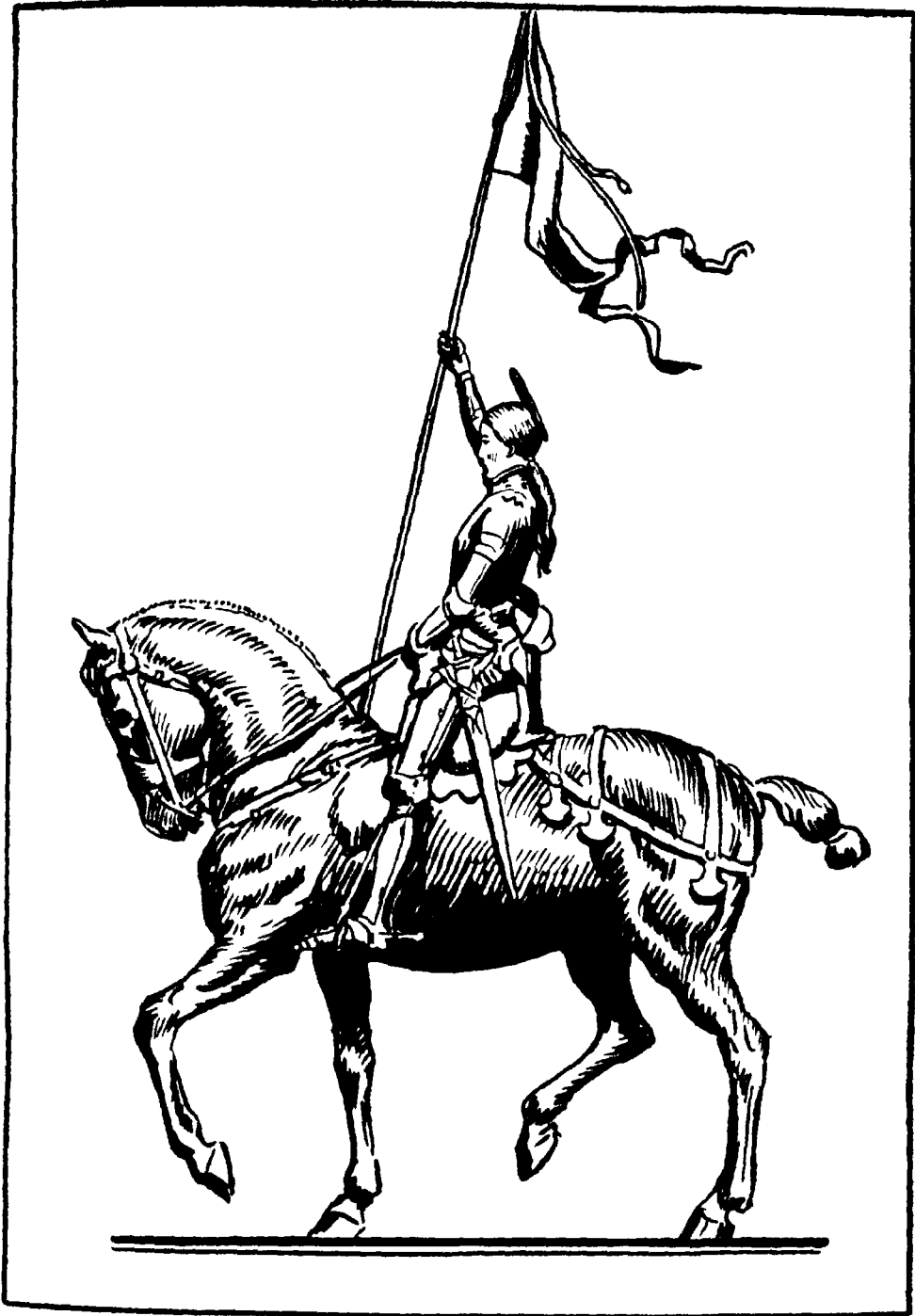
HENRY V conquered France at the Battle of Agincourt, 1415, and for several years after, war continued at intervals between the two countries.

When Henry V died in 1422, his son succeeded him. The new King was a babe nine months old, and his uncles became "Regents." The wars with France went on, but gradually the power of the English in France began to wane.

The first great blow came in 1429. The English were besieging Orleans, and were getting the better of the French. Now there was living in a French village a certain young peasant girl, named Joan of Arc. Her father was a farm labourer, and Joan assisted him in tending the sheep. One day, as she was thinking sadly of the bad fortunes of her beloved France—for the French people are very patriotic—she dreamed that an angel appeared to her, and bade her go to the French King and offer to lead his troops to victory against the hated English foe.

She told this dream to her family and neighbours, who laughed at her and made light of the vision. Nothing daunted, and still much impressed by the visit of the angel, this young Frenchwoman took a long journey alone, to try to see King Charles himself. She encountered many dangers on the way, but at last obtained an interview with him. She told him that he would be crowned King of France in his own city of Rheims.

The King was inclined to believe that the girl was not quite sane, for Rheims and its beautiful cathedral were at the time in the hands of the English. But eventually both he and his courtiers



JOAN OF ARC.

A picture of the gilded equestrian statue erected in the heart of Paris. Condemned to death at the stake, Joan of Arc met her fate with great fortitude at Rouen in 1431. The repentant French, in addition to making her a saint, have immortalised her in this beautiful statue.

were moved by her earnestness, and she was allowed to join the royal army.

She rode in front, seated on a white horse and clothed in gleaming armour. In her right hand she held aloft the colours of France. The courage of the young woman roused the fallen spirits of the French soldiers. The men believed she was sent from God to deliver them from their enemy.

So they rallied to her banner and followed her to battle against the besiegers of Orleans.

The English were amazed when they saw the French leader. They thought a "witch" had come among them, and were alarmed. They lost heart, and the French were victorious. From that day the fortunes of the French took a happy turn. The City of Rheims was retaken, and Charles VII was crowned in its beautiful cathedral three months later.

But the French people were not grateful to Joan of Arc. They, too, began to whisper that she was a witch. For ten thousand francs they sold her to the English, who in 1431, to their lasting disgrace, burned the young woman in the market-place of Rouen.

Years after, France repented of her share in this terrible deed. Joan of Arc's memory was kept green by making her a saint, and she became known as "St. Joan of Arc," and "the Maid of Orleans." The market-square where she was burned is known to-day as "The Maiden's Square."

"The fray began at the middle-gate,
Between the night and the day;
Before the matin bell was rung
The foe was far away.
No knight in all the land of France
Could gar that foe to flee,
Till up there rose a young maiden,
And drove them to the sea.

"We fought across the moonless dark
Against their unseen hands—
A knight came out of Paradise
And fought among our bands.
Fight on, O maiden knight of God!
Fight on and never tire,
For lo! the misty break o' the day
Sees all their forts on fire!

"Sixty forts around Orleans town.
And sixty forts of stone!
Sixty forts at our gates last night—
To-day there is not one."
From "A Ballad of Orleans,"
By A. M. F. ROBINSON.

26. HOW PRINTING CAME

BEFORE the year 1470 printing was unknown in England. The art had been practised abroad, but no printing press had ever been set up in this country. All printing was done by hand, generally by the monks.

But in 1477 William Caxton set up a printing press in England. William was a Kentish man who came to London when quite young, in order to seek employment. He found it with a wool merchant. At that time the great wool market was at Bruges in Belgium, and William sometimes accompanied his master there to buy wool. Finally he settled in his own business at Bruges and became very prosperous. Now the town of Bruges was under the government of the Duke of Burgundy, who had married Margaret, the sister of King Edward IV of England.

William Caxton was now fifty years of age, and he filled up his spare time by translating French works into English. He translated a French poem called "The History of Troy." Princess Margaret, hearing of the cleverness of her countryman, asked him for a copy. The poem occupied a whole book, and Caxton

found the work of copying a very tedious one. So he got into touch with some Dutch printers who had settled in Bruges. They taught him the art of printing by machinery, and soon he was able to print a copy of his translation. He sent this to the Princess, and she sent it to her brother, the King of England, who was delighted with it.

Then Caxton made up his mind to come back to England. So he set up his printing press in the Almonry near Westminster Abbey, in the year 1477. It was a very small press, but he was able to print ninety-nine books with it before he died.

There were, at that time, no letters "J" or "U" in our language, and "I" and "V" had to be used instead respectively, so *July* would read *Ivly*, for instance. Then confusion arose; so that many years afterwards J and U were added and put at the end of the alphabet.

William Caxton had no title page to his books. In some, too, he used no stops at all, while in others he used the colon and full-stop. The comma was a short (/) or long (/) line, and the pages were not numbered.

The invention of printing brought about an enormous change, for it soon became possible for the people to have a chance to learn to read, and, in time, to buy and read books for themselves. By this means they acquired knowledge and began to think over many matters.

Soon numbers of printing presses were set up all over the country. Now hundreds of newspapers are published daily or weekly, and millions of books annually.

Moreover, every boy and girl learns to read and can purchase books for a small sum. There are libraries, too,

in every school, and larger ones in every town, so that all have a chance of reading the best books.

27. THOMAS WOLSEY

IN LESSON FORM

Early Life of Wolsey

Thomas Wolsey was born in the east of England at the fine old town of Ipswich. He was not a poor boy. His father was a grazier, a butcher and a wool-merchant, and was consequently a flourishing business man. The three occupations he followed were all of a series. England at that time was fast becoming a grazing country, that is, a land of green meadows on which cattle fed in large numbers. Before this the soil had been used for growing wheat, but farmers found that keeping sheep and cattle paid them better, so they changed crops for meat and wool. The wool was just as important as the wheat, for Englishmen sent large quantities of wool abroad to Belgium and, at a little later date, wove it into cloth themselves. In time we became a great wool-producing and wool-manufacturing country. So Wolsey's father was a wise man to combine all three branches of business.

Besides this he was a good-living man, and held the position of churchwarden in his native church. Hence Thomas was brought up in a religious home as well as a prosperous one. It is useful to note this fact in the light of his later career.

His Education

At the age of eleven Thomas was sent to Oxford University, for he showed great cleverness at an early age.

It is a useful digression here to point out that a university is the highest type of school, where advanced education is carried on to suit adults ; that Oxford and Cambridge are the oldest universities and the greatest ; that at the present time young men from the age of 18 and upwards only are eligible. At the end of the course, examinations in different subjects are held. Passing an examination in languages and mathematics would entitle a person to be known as a Bachelor of Arts, or, in short, B.A. The term " Bachelor " has two well-known and different meanings : (1) A student who has passed an examination at a university and (2) An unmarried man. It is a pity that children should hear the term Bachelor of Arts and have a confused conception of its meaning. The explanation might induce them some day to acquire the title.

Wolsey stayed at the University till the age of 29 and during that time became one of the masters. It was a long period of learning, and when Wolsey left he was a great scholar. As soon as he left the University he became the rector of a parish in Somerset.

Henry VII, who saw how clever and capable Wolsey was, sent him to the Continent to do important business. This was all to his good, for he not only satisfied Henry, but added to his education also. At that time, parents who could afford it, always sent their sons abroad to finish their education ; to see other men and women, and ways of life different from their own.

Wolsey's Rapid Rise

It was under Henry VIII that Wolsey gained his highest offices, for the King

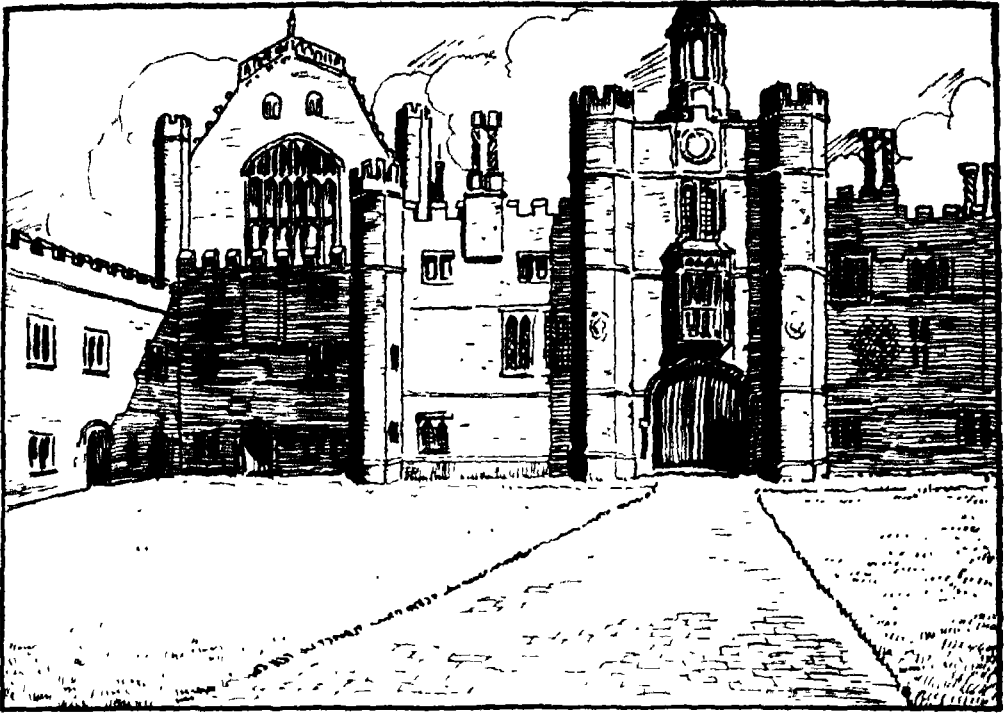
found him a pleasant companion and a wise adviser. Before long he became the wealthiest and most powerful man in England next to the King. The Pope made him a Cardinal, which is the highest dignity of the Roman Catholic Church under the Pope. There are only seventy cardinals in the world. They wear red robes, and pictures of Wolsey are not uncommon in this rich stately dress.

Wolsey's Magnificence

But Wolsey was not satisfied with this. On two separate occasions he aspired to, and nearly attained, the Papal Chair. He became a close companion of the King. Of his wealth and magnificence wonderful stories are told. He had countless cooks and servants, and his chief cook " went daily in velvet or in satin, with a chain of gold "

On one occasion he went to France with King Henry to meet the French King near Calais. The ceremony was dazzling in its splendour. The dresses worn by the two Kings and the nobles were of surprising richness. The tents in which they lived were made of gold cloth with embroidery. No wonder, then, that the meeting was called " The field of the Cloth of Gold " ! But though rich, Wolsey was generous with his money. He built the stately palace of Hampton Court, near London, and afterwards gave it to the King. He also built a Grammar School at Ipswich and a handsome college at Oxford. All three buildings are standing at the present day. Hampton Court, with its beautiful grounds, is open to the public.

Wolsey had now reached the height of his fame. He was a Cardinal and



HAMPTON COURT PALACE.

Erected by Cardinal Wolsey and presented by him to Henry VIII. Sir Christopher Wren made several additions to it in the reign of William III. The Dutch Gardens belong to the same period. Hampton Court ceased to be a royal palace in the reign of George II.

the Chancellor of England, that is, he was the King's secretary and adviser. Thus he held the highest position in the Church next to the Pope, and the highest position in the State next to the King. But Wolsey was unable to please Henry in all that he wished, and the great man's star began to set. In the end he was deprived of his Chancellorship and fell out of Royal favour altogether. Accused, rightly or wrongly, of high treason, he was ordered to be brought to London from the north for trial. Broken-hearted, he died on his way in Leicester Abbey, where he had been received by the monks.

Shakespeare, in his play "Henry VIII," gives a very touching picture of Wolsey's fall. It would be as well for

the teacher to read one or two passages from it. The following stirring lines are among the number:

"Had I but served my God with half the
zeal
I served my king, He would not in my age
Have left me naked to my enemies."

These are probably not the precise words which Wolsey used, but their substance is the same, and the form of them more vivid. Poetic licence plays its part here.

Wolsey's lament reveals the truth that he, unlike Becket, had put his duties as Chancellor to the King before his services to the Church as Cardinal. At the same time Wolsey was not unmindful of his holy duties,

but it would have been impossible for any man to fill both offices with completeness.

Character and Influence

(a) *Loyalty*.—Wolsey was a great figure in the history of the time, but he was not a popular figure. His policy during his period of office was to insist that the sovereign's will was the chief power in the State, and that Parliament existed to carry out the King's demands. It seems that to some extent he supported the theory of the "divine right of kings," which later looms so large in the life of the Stuarts. Thus of Wolsey's loyalty there could be no question. It was one of his chief traits. But the King's extravagance and Wolsey's luxury called for large sums of money, and it was because Wolsey was regarded as the instrument for raising this money by inflicting heavy taxation, that he incurred the dislike of the people. There is little doubt that he was the "buffer" between Henry and his subjects.

(b) *Learning*.—Wolsey's love for learning was another redeeming feature of his character, and his founding of schools is sufficient proof of this.

(c) *His Unpopularity*.—Though the State papers reveal that he had many admirable qualities, they did not touch the heart, or stir the imagination, of the people. Of the good work he did abroad for his country the people at home seemed ignorant. They knew him as one who was chiefly concerned in exacting money from them. They knew also that he had sprung from the middle class, and so they regarded his magnificence as vain show and inglorious pride. It is evident that he was equally disliked

by the nobility and the common people, but with Wolsey it was doubtless the same as with Julius Caesar—

"The evil that men do lives after them ;
The good is oft interréd with their bones."

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. *Early Life of Wolsey :*
 - (a) At home with his father, a business man.
 - (b) Home-life—religion.
 - (c) Education.
2. *Life after leaving the University :*
 - (a) As a rector
 - (b) As an adviser to Henry VII and Henry VIII.
3. *His Wealth and Magnificence :*
 - (a) Companion and friend of Henry VIII.
 - (b) Generous spending, famous buildings erected at his expense.
4. *His Fall from Favour :*
 - (a) Reasons.
 - (b) His punishment.
5. *His Character and Influence :*
 - (a) Loyalty to his King.
 - (b) Great learning and the schools he founded.
 - (c) Unpopularity through :
 - (1) attaining great wealth.
 - (2) supporting the King in acquiring wealth by taxation.

28 GOOD QUEEN BESS AND WHAT SHE DID FOR ENGLAND

IN LESSON FORM

QUEEN ELIZABETH succeeded her half-sister, Queen Mary Tudor, in 1558. Her father, Henry VIII, had several wives, and one, Anne Boleyn, was Elizabeth's mother.

(a) *Elizabeth the Woman*

Elizabeth was a mixture of virtues and failings, but the former far outweighed the latter, which can be overlooked.

In disposition she was much like her father, "bluff King Hal." She was very courageous, hearty, outspoken when necessary, secretive when the occasion demanded, a great reader of character, cautious in decisions and of sound judgment. She had had an excellent education and was a scholar and linguist. She was also a good horse-woman, a splendid shot, a musician, a dancer, a wit; in fact, she was a thorough, all-round, clever woman.

In religion she was a Protestant, because she had been brought up in that faith. In politics she was for any party, and disliked being a partisan. Her great desire was to do the best for her country and to be popular, and she set about becoming so in the right way.

(b) *Elizabeth the Queen*

1. *Her advisers.*—When Elizabeth came to the throne, she found the country in a very distressed condition. There had just been a futile war with France, and Calais, our last French possession, had been torn from us. The Navy and Army were both much depleted, and the country was ready to revolt because bloodshed and strife were everywhere rampant.

Elizabeth, in her wisdom, immediately set herself the task of remedying some of these terrible conditions. She surrounded herself with wise counsellors, at the head of whom she placed William Cecil, afterwards Lord Burleigh. And here it is interesting to note that Robert Cecil, Marquess of Salisbury, the respected minister of Queen Victoria, was a direct descendant of the famous Lord Burleigh. Queen Elizabeth trusted Lord Burleigh implicitly. She gave him wealth and title and he, in his

turn, served Queen and country faithfully and well.

2. *The Church.*—As soon as Elizabeth was crowned Queen, she declared herself not only head of the realm but of the Church; that is to say she refused to acknowledge the power of the Pope. Elizabeth had been brought up in the faith of Protestantism, but Queen Mary Tudor was a Roman Catholic, and during her short reign hundreds of Protestants had been burnt alive because they were faithful to their religion. Now Elizabeth at the outset had no intention of forcing her religion on her people individually. She declared herself head of the Church in England simply because she would brook no interference from the Pope and not because she intended to persecute the Roman Catholics. She ordered a new edition of the Prayer Book to be issued, and therein were set forth the teachings of the Church, and so Elizabeth is said to have *established the Church of England*.

3. *Mary Queen of Scots.*—Unfortunately, a difficulty arose which altered all Elizabeth's good intentions about religious tolerance. King Henry of France was unfriendly towards Elizabeth because she was a Protestant. So he persuaded Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots—a Roman Catholic—to lay claim to the English throne. She was Elizabeth's cousin, for both were descended from Henry VIII. But Henry VIII, by his will and his Parliament, had named Elizabeth as the lawful sovereign, so Henry of France was doing an unlawful act when he took up the claim of Mary Queen of Scots. Again, Mary Queen of Scots had married the Dauphin of France. He became King of France later, so he was especially interested

in getting Elizabeth off the throne of England and putting Mary Queen of Scots there in her stead. He would then be powerful in both Scotland and England, and he saw himself becoming a very mighty monarch. But he did not know the strength of character of Elizabeth and the great impression she had already made on her people. Nor did he realise the terribly bitter feeling left by the persecutions and the misgovernment of Queen Mary Tudor—the Roman Catholic.

If the feeling in England was strong against the Roman Catholics it was stronger still in Scotland, where a great religious leader, John Knox, stirred up the people by his zeal. The Scottish people were quite ready to follow him. They did not like the Roman Catholic religion, and they feared that Mary Queen of Scots would persecute them as Mary Tudor had persecuted the English Protestants. Moreover, Mary's husband, the King of France, had died, so had her next husband, and she was now determined to marry a man whom the Scottish people detested. So angry were they that they took up arms against her. She fled to England for protection, and there she lived for nineteen years, first in one prison and then in another, till she was removed to the last—Fotheringay Castle, near Peterborough.

The presence of Mary Queen of Scots in England was a great menace to Elizabeth's peace. Various plots were made against Elizabeth's life by Mary's friends, and as each plot was discovered Mary was moved to another prison out of the reach of the plotters. This proved of no avail, however. At various times, French, Spanish, Scottish and even English Roman Catho-

lics were concerned in trying to get rid of Elizabeth in order to put Mary in her place.

It now became clear to Elizabeth's ministers that their Queen would never be free from danger while Mary lived. So Mary was tried as a traitor and condemned to death. Elizabeth had to sign the death warrant and for some time she refused to do so. Then, urged by her counsellors, and feeling that it was the wish of her people, she reluctantly put her signature to the warrant, and Mary was executed in 1587 in the hall of Fotheringay Castle.

4. *Home Affairs.*—Although Elizabeth had many troubles with her foreign neighbours, she was bent on peace at home if possible. The ministers she chose had proved wise and astute, and the people learned to trust them and their Queen. Indeed, Elizabeth daily endeared herself to her subjects more and more, for they were quick to see that all her actions were guided by a desire to do the best for them. They came in time to idolise her, and she was hailed as "Gloriana." She restored the Army, which had been much depleted by wars with France. She improved the Navy and she encouraged colonisation by helping her merchant sailors to "go adventuring."

All these schemes required money, and Elizabeth, although a lover of display, was really stingy when money had to be voted. In this she was in sharp contrast to her father, who was very prodigal with the country's money. But Elizabeth ensured that the revenue was wisely and economically spent and that taxation was kept low. So she received the loyal support and admira-

tion of her people for her thrift. Under this wise policy England became prosperous and happy.

5. *Literature*.—With great peace and happiness at home there arose many men of letters; indeed Elizabeth's reign is called the "Golden Age of Literature." A scholar herself, she encouraged scholars in every way, and her reign is rich in the works of some of the greatest writers the world has ever produced—Shakespeare, Ben Jonson and Spenser being three of the most famous.

The Queen was also a musician; so men like Morley and Byrd took courage and poured forth their sweet music.

Elizabeth died in 1603 in her seventieth year, beloved and mourned by the whole nation, for whose well-being and uplifting she had devoted the whole of her long and busy life.

TEACHING NOTES

1. Several lessons will be required for this section. The chief thing is to make them as alive and bright as possible in order to bring home clearly to the children the fact that Elizabeth, by her love of country and wise ruling, raised England from a position of despair to one of greatness and glory.

2. Simple literature of the period can be introduced at all suitable stages, and the lessons should be linked with the English lessons. Elizabeth's reign particularly lends itself to this treatment.

3. Simple and very beautiful songs by Byrd and other Elizabethan composers can be obtained very cheaply from Messrs. Novello, and Messrs. Curwen & Sons, Music-sellers, London. The history lessons could be advantageously linked with the music lessons. No children are too young to be taught to listen to good music, even if it is too difficult to be performed by them.

29. THE GREAT ARMADA, 1588

"The Spanish train launch'd forth amain,
With many a fine bravado,
Their (as they thought, but it proved not),
Invincible Armado
Invincible Armado.

"They coasted round about our land,
And so came in by Dover;
But we had men set on 'um then,
And threw the rascals over
And threw the rascals over.

"The Queen was then at Tilbury;
What could we more desire—a?
And Sir Francis Drake, for her sweet sake,
Did set them all on fire—a
Did set them all on fire—a."

From "The Defeat of the Spanish Armada,
1588"—ANON.

KING PHILIP of Spain was very indignant with Queen Elizabeth of England. He had several reasons for being so.

After the death of Mary Tudor, her husband, King Philip, had sought the hand of Elizabeth, who was his sister-in-law. She refused, partly because she did not wish to marry anyone and partly because she and her people hated Philip. Incensed at her refusal, the King became her enemy.

Again, the age of Elizabeth was one of discovery, and this the Queen encouraged with money even from her private purse. But the Portuguese and Spaniards were ahead of England and had already discovered great riches in Mexico and other parts of the coast of North and South America. Drake and Frobisher and other English sailors, fired by the tales they heard of the enormous riches of the Spanish Main, went thither with the intention of seizing the wealth of Spain. These ravages angered Philip intensely. He declared war on England, and began

to make great preparations for her defeat. He collected ships, sailors and soldiers not only from Spain, but from Genoa and Venice and other countries which came under his government. He called his mighty fleet the "Invincible Armada." Then he sought the Pope's blessing and the Pope, in giving it, declared Elizabeth to be deposed. The Pope, however, could not depose Elizabeth, as he had no power over the Protestant Queen and her country.

So enraged were the English generally, because Philip of Spain thought he could so easily conquer England, that Protestants and Roman Catholics alike flocked in their thousands to serve their Queen. Money, men and ships were offered on all sides, and a large navy and a larger army was hastily got together. Drake had just returned from burning the Spanish ships at Cadiz. He begged the Queen to send enough ships and men to destroy the Armada before it came into the English Channel. But the Queen, ever too careful of money, refused the grants necessary to do this.

In the spring of 1588 the Armada set sail, and our men awaited it at Plymouth. Lord Howard of Effingham was Lord High Admiral of the Fleet, and Drake was Vice-Admiral.

The Queen rode down to Tilbury to review her troops, and seated on her horse she delivered this stirring speech to them :

"My loving people ! We have been persuaded by some that are careful of our safety to take heed how we commit ourselves to armed multitudes for fear of treachery, but I assure you I do not desire to live to distrust my faithful and loving people. Let tyrants fear ! I have always so behaved myself that, under God, I have

placed my chiefest strength and safeguard in the loyal hearts and good-will of my subjects ; and therefore I am come amongst you at this time, not as for my recreation and sport, but being resolved in the midst of heat and battle to live or die amongst you all ; to lay down for my God, for my kingdom and for my people, my honour and my blood even in dust. I know that I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a King and the King of England too, and think foul scorn that Parma or Spain or any Prince in Europe should dare to invade the borders of my realm ; to which rather than any dishonour should grow by me, I will myself take up arms, I myself will be your general, the judge and rewarder of every one of your virtues in the field."

Intense enthusiasm followed the Queen's speech, and every English man, woman and child was thrilled with loyalty towards the sovereign. All over England the people waited anxiously for news of the Armada, the signal of whose arrival was to be the lighting of beacons round the coast.

It was not till July 1588 that the Armada was sighted off the Lizard. Lord Effingham, Drake and the other captains of the fleet were playing bowls upon Plymouth Hoe when the news came. "Let's finish the game," cried Drake with his usual coolness, "there's plenty of time to win the game and thrash the Spaniards too."

Charles Kingsley in "Westward Ho" describes some of our great sailors thus :

"But who is that short, sturdy, plainly dressed man, who stands with legs a little apart and hands behind his back, looking up, with keen grey eyes into the face of each speaker ? His cap is in his hands, so you can see the bullet head of crisp brown hair and the wrinkled forehead as well as the high cheek-bones, the short square face, the broad temples, the thick lips which are yet as firm as granite. A coarse plebeian stamp

of man ; yet the whole figure and attitude are those of boundless determination, self-possession and energy, and when at last he speaks a few blunt words, all eyes turned respectfully upon him, for his name is *Francis Drake*."

"A burly grizzled elder, in greasy sea-stained garments contrasting oddly with the huge gold chain about his neck, waddles up, as if he had been born and had lived ever since in a gale of wind. The upper half of his sharp, dogged visage seems of brick-red leather, the lower of badger's fur and as he claps Drake on the back and with a broad Devon twang, shouts, 'Be you a coming to drink your wine, Francis Drake, or be you not?—saving your presence, my Lord ;' the Lord High Admiral only laughs and bids Drake go and drink his wine, for John Hawkins, Admiral of the port, is the Patriarch of Plymouth seamen, if Drake be their hero, and says and does pretty much what he likes."

The Invincible Armada came up the Channel in the form of a mighty crescent. Then the small English fleet went boldly out to meet the foe. Small fire-ships filled with pitch and powder were carried by the wind between the mighty ships of the Spaniards. The flames spread confusion among the Spaniards, who cut their cables and fled. Some were wrecked and drifted ashore and some encountered the English Fleet coming towards them. The English ships carried heavy cannon, and these swept the decks of the Spanish ships, killing hundreds of men. At last the Spaniards gave up the fight and tried to escape by way of the North Sea, Ireland and the Atlantic. But storms arose and few ever reached home again.

By this defeat the sea-power of Spain was broken, and the Protestant religion of England was safe from the attacks of the Roman Catholics.

Afterwards, a thanksgiving service

was held in St. Paul's Cathedral, and the Queen attended, accompanied by her ministers, her officers, and her grateful people.

30. SIR FRANCIS DRAKE

FRANCIS DRAKE was born in Tavistock in Devonshire. His parents were poor, and at an early age he was apprenticed to the sea. His master owned one small trading vessel, which plied along the English Channel. For some years he served his master, and served him so well that, when the latter died, he left Drake his small vessel.

When he was twenty-five he joined John Hawkins, also a Devon man, in slave trading with the Spanish colonies in America. Philip II of Spain was indignant, for he wished to reserve this trade for Spaniards alone. Drake and Hawkins, in consequence, had many conflicts with the Spanish officials ; they robbed many of Spain's treasure ships and plundered her settlements ; so they were really carrying on an unofficial war with Spain.

When Drake was thirty-seven, he fitted out an expedition of five small ships and sailed round the world, plundering the King of Spain's ships wherever he went, in revenge for the treatment meted out to him by the Spaniards over the slave trade. The ship in which he sailed was called *The Golden Hind*. He returned to England with this ship laden with gold and silver, diamonds, pearls, emeralds, and other precious stones.

Queen Elizabeth went to Deptford to visit the ship—the first to complete a journey round the world—and there, on the deck, she knighted him, much to the annoyance of Spain.

With part of his riches he fitted out a war-fleet and set sail for Cadiz. Here, in 1585, he encountered the Spanish fleet preparing for an invasion of England. He damaged or destroyed the whole fleet and stores, and prevented Philip, for the time being, from making his attack on England, and so he is said to have "singd the beard of Philip." Drake's very name struck terror into the hearts of the Spaniards, but his own men loved and respected him.

"Each one is especially careful to keep his arms clean. Drake treats them with affection and they him with respect. His service is of silver, richly gilt, and engraved with his arms; he has, too, all possible luxuries even to perfumes, many of which, he told me, were given him by the Queen. He dines and sups to the music of violins. His ship carries thirty large guns and a great quantity of all sorts of ammunition as well as workmen who can do necessary repairs."

A chronicler says:

He was "a terror to the French, Spaniard, Portuguese and Indian."

His share in the defeat of the Armada is already known, but Henry Newbolt's lines are worth quoting:

"Drake nor devil nor Spaniard feared,
 Their cities he put to sack;
 He singd His Catholic Majesty's beard
 And harried his ships to wrack.
 He was playing at Plymouth a rubber of
 bowls
 When the great Armada came;
 But he said, 'They must wait their turns,
 good souls,'
 And he stopped and finished the game."

Drake set out on his last expedition in 1595. Sir John Hawkins, his life-long friend, accompanied him. Both died within a few weeks of each other, however, and were buried at sea.

Drake's famous drum is immortalised in Henry Newbolt's poem, called "Drake's Drum."

TEACHING NOTES

1. Emphasise:

(a) The slave trade was carried on by Englishmen.

(b) Drake was the first Englishman to make a voyage round the world.

2. Some other biographies of great men, such as Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Martin Frobisher, Sir Richard Grenville, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, might be taken. Pictures of these famous men will prove very useful and interesting.

31. ELIZABETHAN FASHIONS

THE period between the last half of the sixteenth century and the beginning of the seventeenth is marked by the introduction of many new fashions.

London was a growing city, and as there were no railways, all kinds of merchandise were conveyed to London—indeed to any great town—on pack-horses or else in huge wagons drawn by teams of six or eight horses. These latter cut up the roads, and made travelling very difficult.

Most people rode on horseback, but now they began to use wagons for themselves. Then coaches came into fashion. Elizabeth had a magnificent coach, much the shape of the King's State coach of to-day. It had open sides and a carved roof, which was decorated externally—at each corner and in the centre—with beautiful ostrich feather plumes. "Immediately," says Stow the Chronicler, "divers great ladies had coaches made and drove them up and down the country to the great admiration of all beholders."



ELIZABETHAN FASHIONS.

Dress in the Elizabethan period was very elaborate, the Queen herself setting the example. The men wore hose and doublet. The latter was often puffed and quilted, and over the doublet a cloak was worn. The ladies wore quilted skirts, and bodices with puffed sleeves and high starched collars.

The dress of the ladies and gentlemen became very extravagant, so much so, that from time to time orders were issued by the Monarch, forbidding people to spend more than a certain amount of money on personal adornment.

Queen Elizabeth set the fashion of wearing silk stockings. The first pair she put on were black, and were presented to her as a rare treasure. Instantly the fashion spread, not only among the women, but also among men, who favoured them in colours.

Then muffs began to be used by both sexes. Cloaks, too, were gorgeous affairs—"blue velvet and crimson satin, and his yeoman damask of the same pattern and his mariners of his ship in satin of

Bruges, both coats and slops (breeches) of the same colour."

The ladies' dresses were very fine. Queen Elizabeth set the fashion of wide quilted satin skirts and enormous starched neck-ruffs of muslin and lace. The neck-ruff and even the wrist-ruffs were copied by men. The Queen introduced starch from Holland in order that the neck-ruff might be made stiff.

Elizabeth's hair was auburn, so this became the fashionable colour. In order to be in the fashion, women wore wigs—known even to the Egyptians. The men did not copy this fashion, but many wore ear-rings and neck-chains. Pictures of Sir Walter Raleigh and Sir Francis Drake show both men wearing

gold ornaments in their ears and lace on their coats.

The men of the middle and poorer classes wore a dress very much like that which the boys of the Blue-coat School (founded in 1553) wear to-day—a long dark-blue coat, knee breeches and yellow stockings. It is interesting to remember that Shakespeare's Malvolio wore yellow stockings—evidently a colour much favoured then by men.

Women painted and powdered their faces, but there is no record that they smoked. The men smoked, however, for tobacco had been introduced by Sir Walter Raleigh, and quickly came into fashion among them.

Elizabeth introduced the use of fans. She is said to have possessed twenty-seven of these. Drake gave her one—a gorgeous creation of crimson and white feathers, mounted on ivory and mother-of-pearl, with a handle of gold.

Note.—This lesson can be changed for, or followed by, others on some of the interesting customs of the times, e.g., May-day festivals, night-watchmen and their cries, etc.

32. THE TRANSLATION OF THE BIBLE

JAMES I of England was the son of Mary Queen of Scots. When she was made a prisoner in England her son James, then an infant, became King James VI of Scotland. He was next of kin to Elizabeth, so, when she died, he became also King James I of England (1603). Immediately he hastened from the comparative poverty of Holyrood Palace at Edinburgh to the splendours of St. James's Palace in London.

As soon as James had settled in London, he made it clear to Parliament that he, like Henry VIII and Elizabeth, meant to be Head of the Church in England. He was a strong Churchman, and supported the bishops and the teachings of the Established Church, but he demanded that the bishops should recognise him as their head and refer to him in all religious disputes. He even preached sermons and wrote books about the teachings of the Church. The Roman Catholics were very much disappointed. They had hoped that the son of Mary Queen of Scots, who was herself a staunch Roman Catholic, would show some friendly leanings towards their doctrines.

There were also the Puritans, a sect who believed in a very much simpler form of Protestantism than did the members of the Established Church. So there were three parties: the Protestants, the Puritans and the Roman Catholics, and these were constantly having disputes. James I sometimes took part in the discussions between these parties. On one occasion he called a great meeting of Protestants and Puritans at Hampton Court (1604). He met the Bishops and the leaders of the Puritans in conference but, failing to get his way, he interrupted the meeting and declared that those who did not agree with him must keep silent, as he was the only one who had the right to say what were the laws regarding religion. Thus his policy of "the Divine Right of Kings" made him many enemies, and this arrogant declaration did not augur well for the future.

But there was one good result from the Hampton Court Conference. After

the meeting, the King ordered a translation of the Bible to be made, and authorised that it should be the only one used in future in all churches. Hence this version is known as the *Authorised Version of the Bible* (1611).

In the Preface is found :

" To the Most High and Mighty Prince
JAMES.

King of Great Britain, France and Ireland
Defender of the Faith, etc.

The translators of the Bible wish Grace, Mercy, Peace through Jesus Christ our Lord. Great and manifold were the blessings most dread Sovereign which Almighty God, the Father of all mercies, bestowed upon us the people of England, when first he sent Your Majesty's Royal person to rule and reign over us. For whereas it was the expectation of many who wished not well unto our Sion, that upon the setting of that bright *Occidental Star Queen Elizabeth*, of most happy memory, some thick and palpable clouds of darkness would so have overshadowed this land, that men should have been in doubt which way they were to walk and that it should hardly be known who was to direct the unsettled State, the appearance of Your Majesty, as of the Sun in his strength, instantly dispelled those supposed and surmised mists and gave unto all that were well-affected exceeding cause of comfort etc."

The title, *King of France*, was still retained by the Kings of England at that time, and so appears in the Authorised Version. King Henry VIII was first styled "Defender of the Faith," and the initials F.D. or the abbreviations *fid. def.* appear after "Rex" on our coinage to the present day.

The translation of the Bible was made by very learned men. In 1881 the Oxford and Cambridge Universities completed a revision of the Bible, that is to say, they corrected a few words and

phrases to bring them in keeping with modern language, and issued the new version. This issue is known as the *Revised Version* of the Bible.

It is remarkable that, although nearly three centuries elapsed between the making of the Authorised and the Revised Versions, very few alterations were found necessary, and those were not serious ones.

For instance :

Authorised Version.—And when He *was set* his disciples came unto Him.

Revised Version.—And when He *had sat down*, etc.—St. Matthew v.

The Bible is the most important and the most beautiful work of literature we possess. "It is the noblest example of the English tongue. Its perpetual use made it from the instant of its appearance the standard of our language." (J. R. Green, "History of the English People.")

TEACHING NOTES

It is highly essential that each child should be supplied with :

- (1) A Bible (Authorised Version).
- (2) Coins of the Realm

The teacher should have a copy of both versions of the Bible.

33. THE PILGRIM FATHERS

IMEDIATELY after the Hampton Court Conference, between the King, the Protestants and the Puritans, James I began to force the Puritans and the Roman Catholics to obey the laws of the established Church of England. He tried to compel them to acknowledge him as the Head of the Church and to fix the kind of service they should use. Both parties refused to do this, and they were persecuted for their refusal. A great spirit of

bitterness sprang up against James I, and many people left the country rather than be false to their faith.

Some of the Puritans went to Holland, but as they could not speak the Dutch language they were regarded as, and indeed felt themselves to be, foreigners. So they began to look for a country where they would be free to speak their own language, and they turned their attention to America.

In 1620 *The Mayflower* sailed from Boston (Lincolnshire) with some hundred Puritans—"strong hearts and true"—and stopped at Plymouth on its way. "Not one looked back who had set his hand to this ploughing." The great gales and the gigantic waves of the Atlantic were as nothing to their faith.

During nine weeks they battled with the ocean—for the passage was a very rough one—and at last they sighted land. It was the American coast—the shores of the State of Massachusetts. They arrived in cold weather. The leaders waded through the shallow, icy waters to reach the land, which proved to be both bleak and barren. After six weeks spent in harbour, the pilgrims landed and formed a settlement, which in memory of the Homeland they named "Plymouth"—after the last English town they saw. The great granite boulder on which those "Pilgrim Fathers" first set foot in America is still proudly preserved at Plymouth in America, and is called "The Pilgrims' Stone." So this brave band of English Puritans laid the foundation of the great "New England States," called by that name to this day.

The hardships the new colonists endured are beyond description. Food was scarce, and even three years later

each family had to subsist on as little as a pint of corn a day.

So great were their sufferings during the first winter, that half their number died from cold and hunger.

For three years they struggled bravely on, then they began to prosper. More pilgrims joined them, driven from home by the obstinacy and cruelty of the Stuarts. It is estimated that between 1629-40 as many as 20,000 Puritans left England for America, giving up the loved land of their birth for freedom of religion. Thus America was the gainer, for the Pilgrims were pious, hardworking, serious-minded people, the very people whom England could ill-afford to lose.

This white nation gradually spread and settled along the coasts of North America and built up the prosperous new States of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Hampshire and Connecticut.

TEACHING NOTES

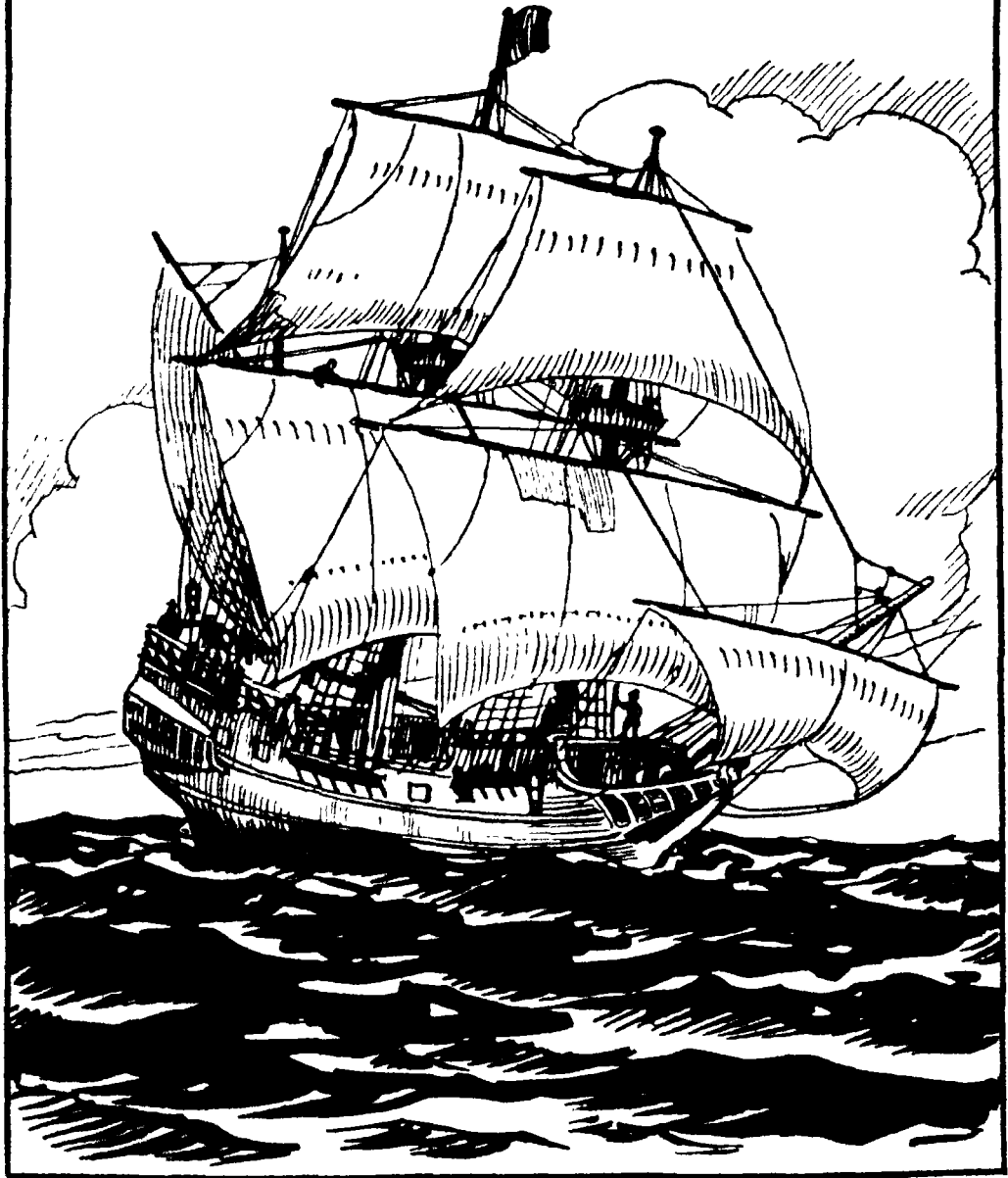
1 This lesson affords a good opportunity to deal with the religious tolerance of the present day and with the large number of religious sects in England, and to show the effect on the people, of liberty of conscience and freedom of speech and action.

2 Reference could profitably be made to the essentially English aspect of the United States to-day, though the country has had such large infusions of foreigners. The Pilgrim Fathers were "the corner stone of a nation" (Longfellow).

3. Longfellow's poem "The Sailing of *The Mayflower*" might be read.

34. CAVALIERS AND ROUND-HEADS

CHARLES I, the son of James I, succeeded his father in 1625 and immediately showed that he meant to carry on the doctrine of "the Divine Right of Kings." Now the



THE MAYFLOWER.

In 1620 the Pilgrim Fathers, "lifting their eyes to heaven, their dearest home," left England in *The Mayflower* to found a new home across the Atlantic. The journey of some 3,000 miles took nearly six months to accomplish from the time the original Pilgrims left Holland.

English people loved kingship, and whether the king was a strong or weak monarch, the majority felt it was their bounden duty to be loyal to him. But James's misrule, and now that of Charles, goaded some of the most loyal to desert their Sovereign. They felt that the time had come when the laws passed by Parliament should be observed by the king as well as by the people.

Charles I, however, was constantly breaking the established laws of the country. Then, too, he married a French princess, who was a Roman Catholic. She was only fifteen when she left France, yet she proved a good wife to the King and a kind mother to her children. But she introduced gay dress and manners to her Court, and the King encouraged her and joined in the extravagance, which grew increasingly. Thus Charles I became as unpopular as his father, James, especially with the Puritans, who saw only the devil's work in this gaiety.

The King's utter disregard for the people's charters, together with the Court's extravagance, roused a large section of the country against him. But he took no heed of the rising storm, and although the English people are forgiving and slow to act, the storm was bound to burst sooner or later.

Then Charles tried to rule without a Parliament at all, but was forced in 1628 to call his Third Parliament. The King at once asked for more money, but was told that "grievances and supplies should go hand in hand."

The Commons were now getting exasperated, so they drew up a petition begging the King to act according to the laws of the land and the rights of the people.

In order to get the money he wanted, the King promised to do as the Commons asked. So money was voted to him, and immediately he got it he began to impose taxes, as before, and to act generally as though no Parliament existed. Indeed, when the Commons remonstrated, he again dissolved Parliament.

For years the King ruled in this reckless way, and all this time his enemies were increasing. At last, in 1642, there was civil war—that is to say, war between people of the same nation. Those who were for the King were known as *Cavaliers*, and those who were against him were called *Roundheads*. The latter were of the Puritan party, and wore their hair straight and closely cropped, while the Cavaliers wore theirs long and curled. The great leader of the Roundheads was *Oliver Cromwell*. He taught his men to be disciplined in the use of arms and to fight for "Religion and Honour."

During several battles he had commanded troopers, and from this "handful" he built up his famous regiment of "Ironsides." These men were sturdy soldiers with very strict Puritanical views. They firmly believed that in fighting their King they were carrying out a mission against the enemies of God.

When the Roundheads and Cavaliers engaged in battle on *Marston Moor* in Yorkshire in 1644, Cromwell led the Roundheads with his "Ironsides," and carried the day. The next year, Cromwell was again victorious at *Naseby*. A little more than three years later King Charles was condemned to death by a Parliament which sat in Westminster Hall, and for a time



ROUNDHEAD AND CAVALIER.

The Roundheads wore their hair straight and closely cropped. Their clothes were plain and severe with a deep white puritan collar. The Cavaliers donned extravagant dress, with buckled shoes, befeathered hat, and beribboned knees. They wore long, flowing hair, and their white collars and cuffs were often beautifully embroidered.

England was ruled by Parliament with Cromwell at the head.

TEACHING NOTES

1. Touch briefly on previous charters.
2. Link up with previous monarchs who believed in the doctrine of "the Divine Right of Kings," and show how its persistence was bound to end in disaster.
3. The Life of Cromwell could be substituted for this lesson.

35. SOME GREAT WRITERS OF THE STUART PERIOD

(1) *John Milton.* (2) *John Bunyan*

(1) **JOHN MILTON** (1608-74) was the most famous writer of the seventeenth century. He was a Londoner and the son of a scrivener (scribe or writer of legal documents).

He was a scholar of St. Paul's Grammar School, and even at the early age of ten produced quite good poetry. He proceeded to Christ's College, Cambridge, which was founded by Margaret Beaufort, the mother of Henry VII. Here he studied, among other things, Latin and Greek, and his writings both in prose and verse are full of words and thoughts, taken from the Greeks and Romans.

He was a deeply religious man and took the side of the Puritans during their great religious struggles with James I. This brought him into touch with politics, and he was made Secretary to the Council of the Commonwealth in 1649. His sight was failing him, but he continued to

write pamphlets in defence of Parliament and the Press.

Charles II had him put into prison because of his writings and his views. It was during this time that he became quite blind. Towards the end of his life he was released and lived in poverty till he died in 1674. He was a great worker and believed in early rising. He often rose at 4 a.m. and dictated the poems, which he had composed during sleepless nights, to one or other of his daughters.

It was in his blind, old age that Milton wrote his most famous poem—"Paradise Lost." In this he describes the Creation, the Garden of Eden, man's fall and his punishment. It is a grand poem and describes all that is told in the book of Genesis, proving that Milton was a close student of the history and the beautiful language of the Bible. The poem also deals with the religious quarrels of the times.

His language is always somewhat difficult, but the following excerpts, among others, are quite within the grasp of Juniors :

(1) "Doth God exact day-labour, light denied ?

I fondly ask :—But Patience, to prevent

That murmur, soon replies ; God doth not need

Either man's work, or His own gifts .
who best

Bear His mild yoke, they serve Him
best : His state

"Is kingly : thousands at His bidding
speed,

And post o'er land and ocean without
rest :

*They also serve who only stand and
wait."*

"On His Blindness,"

(2) "They looking back, all the eastern
side beheld

Of Paradise, so late their happy seat,
Waved over by that flaming brand,
the gate

With dreadful faces throng'd, and fiery
arms ;

Some natural tears they dropt, but
wiped them soon ;

The world was all before, where to
choose

Their place of rest, and Providence
their Guide

They, hand in hand, with wandering
steps and slow

Through Eden took their solitary
way."

"Paradise Lost."

(2) *John Bunyan* (1628-88) was the son of a Bedfordshire tinker and, as was the custom of those days, followed his father's calling. He had very little education and as a youth served in the Parliamentary army, for he was a Puritan. He had been brought up in very religious surroundings, and after leaving the Army, he followed his trade and gave his spare time to studying the Bible and to preaching. He offended the members of the Established Church by his teachings, and more than once was sent to Bedford jail.

It was while he was in prison for the second time that he wrote "The Pilgrim's Progress." No book except the Bible has created such an impression. It has been translated into more languages and has passed through more editions than any other known book. The work describes how "Christian" with "Hopeful" and "Faithful" journeyed to the "Celestial City" from the "City of Destruction"; how Christian fell into the "Slough of Despond"; how he bore the burden of his sins; how at last he got rid of the

heavy burden; how he was tempted in "Vanity Fair"; how finally he passed through "the Valley of the Shadow" and came triumphantly to the "Celestial City."

The book is written in beautiful English and describes the life of a Christian fighting against Evil, and how by faith he is brought through the valley of the shadow of death to eternal life.

But this is by no means his only book. As many as sixty are attributed to his pen.

TEACHING NOTES

1. Link with the Literature and Scripture lessons.

2. Many excerpts, especially from "The Pilgrim's Progress," can be read by or to the children.

3. Note also that Shakespeare lived for thirteen years of James I's reign and produced during that period some of his most famous plays—"Macbeth," "King Lear," "The Tempest." But he is usually called an *Elizabethan writer* because his thoughts and language are those which he had learnt during that Sovereign's reign.

36. THE PLAGUE AND THE FIRE OF LONDON

ANOTHER great writer of the seventeenth century was Samuel Pepys. In Magdalen College, Cambridge, are to be seen many valuable books which Pepys left to his old college. Among these books are six volumes each containing three thousand pages written in *shorthand*. For a century no one troubled to find out the contents; then a clergyman named Smith translated them into longhand, and it was discovered that Pepys had

kept a daily diary of the happenings between January 1660 and 1669.

Now Samuel Pepys was a Government official and a man who was known to the King and moved in fashionable society. Hence he was acquainted with all that was taking place, and consequently his diaries are of the utmost importance. It is from this diary that the following true accounts of the Plague (1665) and the Fire of London (1666) are obtained.

At this period the streets of London were very narrow; so narrow that the people living on one side of the road could shake hands with those on the other, from the open windows of their houses. Little light or air could penetrate these narrow streets, nor could the roads be easily cleansed. Added to this, there were no drains and no street-cleaners, and refuse was thrown anywhere without hindrance. The people had not been taught the value of cleanliness, and on warm days the stench from houses, roads and river was often unbearable.

On several occasions the plague had shown itself, and now, after fifteen years, it broke out in violent form in May 1665. It was the disease which was often prevalent in India and is called the bubonic plague. It is a painful attack of boils, and so quickly does it progress that the sufferers die within a few hours. Only strict cleanliness can keep it at bay; and as microbes thrive in dirt and warmth, and as the summer of 1665 was a particularly warm one, it was difficult to stem its ravages. One-fifth of the population died during that year of plague; indeed, 8,000 people died in one week, and it was not till the cold

winds of autumn came that the plague showed any sign of abating.

The dead were left unburied for days, and then the "dead carts" called and conveyed the bodies to pits. On the doors of the plague-stricken houses was painted a red cross, to warn people not to approach.

Two of the chief burial grounds were at St. Martin's-in-the-Fields and Mile-End.

Everybody who could, fled from London; and King Charles II and his Court left Whitehall for Oxford.

Scarcely had the plague run its course than the *Great Fire of London* started. The people were terribly alarmed and looked upon the Plague and the Fire as punishments sent by God because of the extravagances of the Court. In reality the Fire was a blessing in disguise, for nothing can so effectively destroy microbes as very great heat. The Great Fire started at one o'clock on a Sunday morning in September, at the house of a baker in Pudding Lane, not far from Fish Street Hill in the City of London.

The fire spread rapidly, for the houses were made of wood and a high wind was blowing. Moreover, there were no organised fire-brigades as we have to-day. The alarmed citizens tried to stem the spread of the fire, but they could do nothing. Many hastily seized a few belongings and fled to the river, where they deposited themselves and their goods in barges. Soon these were full and the fugitives had to camp out in fields around the city.

By Monday night many streets were ablaze. For five days and nights the fire raged, burning houses, shops, halls and churches in its fury. Altogether thirteen thousand houses and eighty-

nine churches, including St. Paul's Cathedral, were destroyed, but wonderful to relate only fourteen people perished. At last, when there was little else to burn, the fire spent itself at Pie Corner.

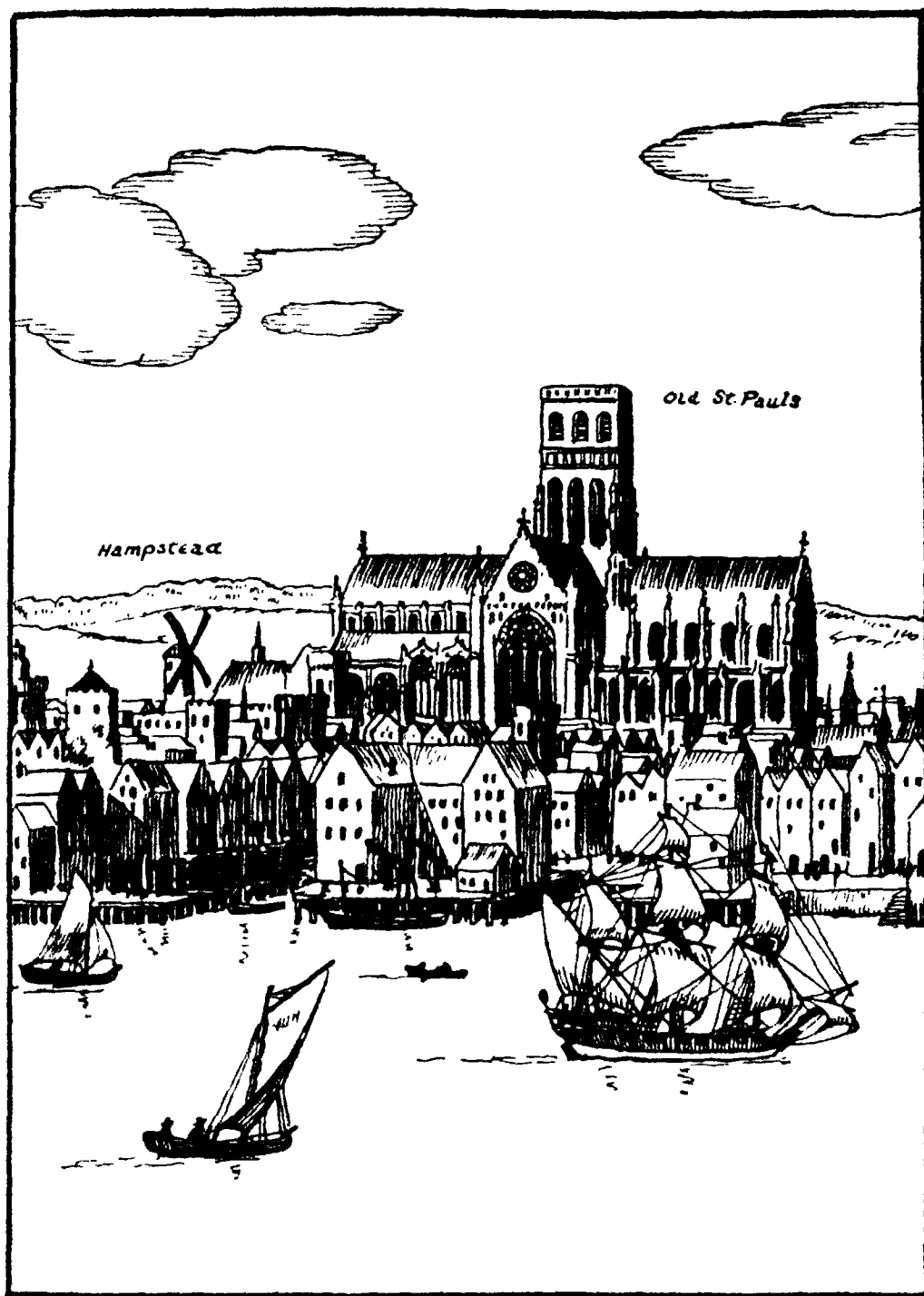
The homeless people had to be rehoused, and instead of foul courts and alleys, wider streets were made, and beautiful churches were gradually erected.

Sir Christopher Wren rebuilt fifty-four churches, amongst them St. Paul's Cathedral. Its magnificent dome, surmounted by a golden cross, overlooks the river Thames from the north side of Blackfriars. As one enters the cathedral from the north, there are written over the door these words: "Si monumentum requiris, circumspice," which means, "If you seek his monument, look around you."

The monument at Fish Street Hill, not far from London Bridge on its north side, is a graceful column over 200 feet high. It was planned by Wren and erected as a reminder of the Great Fire, which started near by. There are 345 steps to the top, from which a glorious view over London is obtained.

SPECIAL POINTS

1. Diaries and their uses.
2. Shorthand used by Pepys.
3. London fields.
4. Dirt and warmth assist growth of germs. Cleanliness, great heat and great cold kill them. (Compare with conditions to-day; mention work of Public Health Department. Draw moral lesson.)
5. Noted buildings in the Empire's City—St. Paul's, the Monument.
6. Dryden—a writer of the period—wrote a long and descriptive poem called "The Fire of London." Some of its verses might be read with advantage to the pupils, in their History or their Literature Lesson.



OLD LONDON.

Old St. Paul's, shown in this picture, is the building which was destroyed by "the Fire of London" in 1666. Originally it had a wooden steeple, but this was struck by lightning in 1561 and destroyed. It was never rebuilt, in spite of Queen Elizabeth's angry remonstrances.

37. CLIVE AND INDIA

ROBERT CLIVE, 1725-74, was born near Market Drayton, in Shropshire. He went to the grammar school and there worried his teachers by being the dunce of his class and the leader of all mischief. He knew no fear, and climbed to the top of the tower of the fine old Gothic church of Market Drayton before he was eleven years old. He had twelve brothers and sisters younger than himself, so when he was eighteen, his parents were very glad of an offer from a friend to enter him as a clerk in the East India Company.

This Company had been established in the days of Elizabeth for the purposes of trade. It owned a few square miles in India, and for this land the Company had to pay rent to the native princes. The chief settlements were at Madras, Bombay and Calcutta, and here forts were erected. Here, too, dwelt a few native soldiers, who protected the warehouses of the Company, as the white men had to spend their time in trading.

Robert Clive found himself shipped to Madras. The journey was by way of the Cape, and took some months. Indeed, owing to breaks of journey and rough weather, it was nearly two years before Clive finally reached his destination. Here at Fort George, Madras, he was miserably housed and poorly paid. He was already in debt, and he disliked the work assigned to him, for his was a nature suited to leadership and daring, and not to office work.

At this time the French had established their East India Company, but it was not nearly so flourishing as the

English. Their chief settlement was at Pondicherry, and the French Governor's aim was to drive the English from India and capture their trade.

Now India was ruled by a number of princes, who were often quarrelling among themselves. The French Governor (Dupleix), a very able soldier and a clever man, made friends with some of these princes. Then he began to train native soldiers to act with the French soldiers when necessary. His plan was to side first with one native ruler and then with another, and with their help and that of the native soldiers (sepoys), gradually to bring all India under French sway.

For some time it looked as though he would succeed. He prepared an expedition to Madras, and the English settlement fell into the hands of the French in 1746. Now came Clive's opportunity for exercising the daring that was pent up in him. He begged to be allowed to leave his desk and take up a military career, and so at the age of 21 he became a soldier. For a few years the French seemed to gain ground in India. The British were forced to accept terms of peace, but they regained Madras, however, from the French.

Then Clive stormed Arcot (1751), taking the French who were entrenched there unawares. The French fled, but were reinforced by a large army. For seven weeks Clive was besieged and food supplies began to give out, till only rice was left. Now Clive, too, was assisted by some native soldiers (sepoys), over whom he exercised a wonderful influence, so much did they admire his daring. They proposed to give the British the rice and to live on the water in which the grain had

been boiled. Thus they were able to hold out a little longer. Once more the enemy stormed the forts, and drove elephants against the gates in order to force an entrance. These elephants had iron plates fixed on their heads, and the French hoped that the plates would act as battering rams when used by the goaded elephants. But Clive ordered his men to fire, and the cumbersome animals turned and fled, scattering and crushing the French as they went. At last the French gave in, and Clive obtained his first great success.

Clive now returned home for a short rest (1753). Ten years before, his family had been glad to get rid of a wayward, troublesome son; now, not only they, but King and country also, gave him a great welcome. With his prize-money he paid off his father's debts, and so proved that he was not a bad boy, but a "square peg in a round hole."

In 1756 the native ruler of Bengal (Surajah Dowlah) attacked the British Settlement of Calcutta. The small band of Europeans were powerless to defend themselves against the large native forces, so they had to surrender. Some escaped to the coast, but 145 merchants and one woman were taken prisoners and crowded into a small cell in the fort. The cell was but the size of a room—20 feet by 20—and had one small barred window. It was a hot Indian night, and the prisoners begged to be allowed to come before the Nabob for sentence that evening, but this request was refused. For eleven hours they fought for breath, and in the morning only twenty-three struggled out from that foul atmosphere of "The Black Hole of Calcutta"; the rest were dead.

Clive, who had returned from England, at once advanced to avenge this dastardly act, and at the battle of *Plassey*, about 100 miles north of Calcutta, some of the enemy fled and some turned traitors. So the British were the victors and thus became masters of the whole of Bengal, with Clive as the acknowledged founder of our Indian Empire.

He returned home (1760) and was made Lord Clive. But India lured him once more, and he went back in 1765. He took control of the affairs of the East India Company and tried to stop bribery in trade. In consequence, he made many enemies for himself among dishonest traders, but he went forward with his project. Then he returned home to rest and, to his amazement, was attacked by his enemies, who accused him of too stern government. These attacks saddened him intensely and caused him to lose his reason. A great career ended in a tragic way, for in 1774 he died by his own hand.

It is due to him that French power and influence in India gradually faded away, while British power increased till Kings of Great Britain became also Emperors of India.

SPECIAL NOTE

This section is to teach:

1. The growth of our Indian Empire.
2. "Making good."

38. WOLFE AND CANADA

SIR WALTER RALEIGH, courtier and soldier of Elizabeth's time, went to North America in 1592, and brought back the potato and tobacco, hitherto unknown in England. He also named the district he

visited "Virginia," in honour of the virgin Queen, Elizabeth.

In 1620, it will be remembered, the Pilgrim Fathers sailed from England to Massachusetts. After enduring hardships for some years they began to prosper. Many more Puritans joined them from home, and thus their numbers increased, and gradually "The New England States" were formed.

But the British were not the first Europeans to form settlements in the New World. Both the Portuguese and the French were before us. A Frenchman named Jacques Cartier explored the mouth of the St. Lawrence River (1535) and made friends with the Red Indians. The chief asked him to his village—a collection of huts—called "Kanata." Cartier, thinking "Kanata" to be the name of the district, called it "Canada," and later that name attached itself to the whole Dominion.

By 1756 there were thirteen organised British Colonies in North America, situated chiefly along the east coast from Newfoundland to Georgia, and round Hudson Bay in the north. But our possessions were small compared with those of the French, who owned the country in the large basins of the Rivers St. Lawrence and St. Louis, besides other territory.

War broke out between the English and French Colonists (1754), but France was busy with wars in Prussia, and so could not send sufficient help to her army in America. It was now that *Charles Wolfe* became famous. He was a born soldier and the son of a soldier. Even as a tall, weakly, blue-eyed boy of fifteen, he had carried the colours of one of King George II's regiments.

In 1759 he was chosen to lead the

English against the French entrenched firmly in their own settlement at Quebec.

Montcalm, the brave French general, prepared for his coming, and Wolfe found the position of the enemy well-nigh impregnable. But, sick as he was, for he had always been delicate, he determined to hold on. The port of Quebec was situated on a precipice overlooking the St. Lawrence. Wolfe discovered a cove about three miles from Quebec (now called Wolfe's cove). Here there was a goat track leading by a tortuous, woody path to the top of the precipice, which was about eighty yards high. A strong French guard was on duty at the summit, but the intrepid Wolfe determined to storm the heights (called the "Heights of Abraham"). So he packed four thousand men in boats, and under cover of darkness they sailed silently from Quebec to the little cove. Wolfe was in the first boat, and he commenced whispering some beautiful lines from Gray's "Elegy in a Country Churchyard" ending with :

"The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

Turning to his companions he said : "I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec."

They reached the cove and, quietly landing, climbed the Heights of Abraham, with Wolfe leading. They took the French guard by surprise and alarmed the French garrison, who hastily got ready for battle. Wolfe was mortally wounded, but just before he died he was told that the French were in flight. "God be praised, I die happy!" he exclaimed.

The brilliant French General (Montcalm) was also killed. As he was

dying he sent this message to the British Commander: "The humanity of the British sets my mind at rest concerning the fate of the French and Canadian prisoners. Do not let them feel they have changed masters. Be their protector as I have been their father."

By this battle Wolfe won for Britain what has since become the Dominion of Canada, the people of which are to-day some of the most loyal and hard-working in the British Empire.

Montcalm's message was not ignored. The French-Canadian of Quebec retains to this day his language and his religion, and it can be truly said that under British rule he has become prosperous.

In Westminster Abbey there is a beautiful monument erected to the memory of Wolfe, and in Quebec is one erected to the memory of both Wolfe and Montcalm. On it is inscribed these words:

"Their valour gave them a united death,
History has given them a united fame,
Posterity a united monument."

When the Canadians responded so loyally to the call of the Mother Country in her distress in 1914, the battalions deposited their Colours on Wolfe's monument in the Abbey as they passed through London for France, and there the Colours rested during the terrible European War. Those who were spared to return received them back, on their way home.

TEACHING NOTES

1. *Specially note:*

(a) The growth of our Colonies in America.

(b) The success of the British as colonisers (*vide* Montcalm's message).

2. Each pupil must use an atlas.

3. A wall map should be in constant use by the teacher.

39. JOHN WESLEY

JOHN WESLEY was born in Lincolnshire and was educated at Charterhouse, proceeding to Christchurch, Oxford. At Oxford he joined a society of young men who, because they lived strict religious lives, were known as "Methodists." He became a clergyman of the Church of England, but soon found that he was not in agreement with his fellow-clergy. He thought them lax in work and behaviour, and said that they did not give enough time and attention to preaching the Gospel to the masses, whose ignorance of the Bible was appalling at this time.

So he and his brother Charles, together with his friend George Whitefield, determined to travel on horseback all over the country and teach the people the Word of God. They even went to our Colonies in America to carry on a mission. Charles Wesley is said to have preached forty thousand sermons and Whitefield is known to have crossed the Atlantic twelve times. Wherever they preached—and it was usually in the open air—high and low congregated to hear them, and many converts were made. Then John Wesley drew up rules for the guidance of his followers, and these rules have ever since been the laws which guide the religious sect known as "Wesleyan Methodists."

All his life John Wesley remained a clergyman of the Church of England. His own life was a beautiful example of what a good life should be. He

attracted many clergy and churchmen to his meetings, and much impressed them by his piety and learning. When he died, the Wesleyans separated from the Church and became a distinct religious body.

His brother Charles was the writer of many well-known hymns still sung in our churches and chapels. Three of the best known are :

- (a) " Jesu, Lover of my soul,"
- (b) " Oh for a heart to praise my God,"
- (c) " Soldiers of Christ, arise."

TEACHING NOTE

Interest lies in the tolerance of spirit which sanctions various creeds.

40. THE FIRST PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

DURING the reign of George II the greater part of North America had fallen into the hands of the British. On the north of the river St. Lawrence was Canada ; its population was partly British and partly French, and the chief towns were Quebec and Montreal.

On the south of the river were thirteen British states, the principal towns of which were New York and Boston, both situated near the shores of the Atlantic Ocean.

The laws of the American Colonies were administered by their own Parliaments or Assemblies which, however, came under the laws of the Home Government ; so that really the Colonies were governed by the British Parliament.

In King George III's reign one of the Prime Ministers (George Grenville)

considered that the American Colonies should pay more taxes to the British Government. He proposed that as the Home Government had to keep an army in America to protect the people there, they should help to pay for it. He also proposed that, for the future, they should buy and affix certain kinds of stamps to legal documents and in this way pay some part of the expense of keeping the army. His proposal became law and was known as the " Stamp Act." The American people did not like the Act. They said that if the Home Government wanted to tax them in this way, then they ought to be able to send their own representatives to the British Parliament in order to see justice done.

Again, the Prime Minister insisted that the Colonists should buy their manufactured goods and their tea from England. In return, England bought timber, tobacco and cotton from them, but only in small quantities. Consequently the Americans seemed always to owe England money, and this made them very uneasy.

Not content with forcing them to trade almost solely with us, the Prime Minister put a tax on the price of tea. The American Colonies had been gained after seven years of war with France, and now England was feeling the burden of the heavy expenses incurred. The Prime Minister thought that a tax on tea would help the Home Government to pay off some of this expense. Our American Colonists were now very much roused. They continued to emphasise their desire to be represented in the Home Parliament, before such taxes were thrust on them. But the Government turned a deaf ear to their entreaties, so a band of daring

men determined to act for themselves.

In 1773, when a convoy of ships laden with Indian tea arrived from England in Boston harbour, this daring band, disguised as Red Indians, boarded the various ships and threw all the tea into the ocean. Three hundred and seventy-three chests were pitched overboard so that a tax on tea should not be paid. This episode is called "The Boston Tea-Party."

As a punishment, the port of Boston was closed by the British Government. This meant a great loss of trade to Massachusetts, of which the ancient town of Boston is the capital. It is a beautiful old town named after Boston in Lincolnshire, the county from which the Puritans sailed for Massachusetts in *The Mayflower* in 1620. Behind it stands Bunker Hill, and it was on this hill that the first battle was fought against the British; for the American Colonists, incensed by the punishment meted out to the citizens of Boston, armed and banded together under George Washington. After keeping the British at bay for many months he forced them to retreat from Boston (March 1776).

The bitterness between the British and the Americans increased daily. King George III was too obstinate to give way, and so on July 4th, 1776, the Colonists threw off the British yoke and declared their independence. Thus we lost our thirteen American States. They formed themselves into a Republic called the United States of America, under George Washington as their first President. He had been their great and trusted leader in the wars which ended so disastrously for England. He now proved himself as great

a leader in peace, and under him the new Republic became very prosperous.

In 1777 a flag on which were thirteen stars and thirteen stripes became the national flag of the United States instead of the Union Jack. As other states came into the Union, a stripe and a star were added for each. So the "Stars and Stripes" is the national flag of the United States to-day.

"On—on to where the tea-ships ride !
And now their ranks are forming,—
A rush, and up *The Dartmouth's* side
The Mohawk band is swarming !
See the fierce natives ! What a glimpse
Of paint and fun and feather,
As all at once the full-grown imps
Light on the deck together !
A scarf the pigtail's secret keeps,
A blanket hides the breeches,—
And out the cursed cargo leaps,
And overboard it pitches !"
("A Ballad of the Boston Tea-party.")
O. W. HOLMES.

TEACHING NOTES

1. An atlas for each pupil is necessary, and a good wall map or blackboard sketch for the teacher.
2. Emphasise :

- (a) The loss of our American Colonies.
- (b) That taxes in England are made by the representatives of the people in the House of Commons. Had England extended "representation" to her American Colonies she might not have lost them.

41. NAPOLEON AND NELSON

AT the end of the eighteenth century France was at war with Austria, and during these struggles for victory a young Corsican soldier became very famous. His name was Napoleon Bonaparte. Already he had been in conflict with the British, so

when the latter showed friendliness towards Austria, he was angry.

Napoleon was successful in his wars against the Austrians, Italians, Spanish and Dutch, and now his great ambition was to crush Great Britain. His plan was to conquer Egypt and then India, and to make a French Empire in the East. So in 1798 Napoleon sailed with the French army to Egypt and made a successful landing. But Lord Nelson, admiral of the British fleet, followed him and discovered the French fleet anchored near the mouth of the River Nile. Then Nelson boldly led the British ships among the anchored French ships and succeeded in putting nearly all of them out of action. Thus by the victory of *The Nile* he prevented Napoleon's progress to India.

Soon after, Napoleon returned to France and set up a very strong government, with himself at the head, and for many years he was the absolute ruler of France. He still fostered the idea of crushing Great Britain, and he formed a large camp of soldiers at Boulogne, opposite Folkestone, and prepared for an invasion of our country. But his men could not cross the Channel without boats, and everywhere in the Channel the British fleet was on guard. The Martello towers, too, were erected along the Sussex and Kent coasts to protect England from invasion.

Now Napoleon had one French fleet at Brest harbour, on the north-west coast of France, and another in Toulon harbour, on the south-east coast. He ordered the Toulon fleet to set sail and so lure Nelson out of the Channel in pursuit of it. His idea was that the Toulon fleet should then

dodge Nelson and join the Brest fleet so that both could go to Boulogne and ship the French soldiers to England.

But matters did not work out quite so easily for Napoleon. Lord Nelson was lured by the Toulon fleet, but missed it, for a British Admiral intercepted and defeated it. Then Nelson fell in with the French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafalgar in the south-west of Spain. Nelson commanded the ship *Victory*, and on this ship he hoisted the famous signal, "England expects that every man will do his duty."

These words inspired every British sailor to do his best, and before night closed in the victory was ours; but Lord Nelson lost his life just as he learned the good news.

By this victory the sea-power of France was broken and all fear of invasion by Napoleon was removed from our minds.

Admiral Lord Nelson was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral, and Trafalgar Square in London was built to commemorate the victory which struck the final blow at Napoleon's ambition concerning Britain. In the centre of the square is a tall, graceful column surmounted by the figure of Nelson in full admiral's dress. From its great height he is surveying the capital of the country he saved. At the foot of the column are immense figures of the lion, symbolic of Britain's strength. In the square, beautiful fountains play at intervals, and here too may often be heard orators, discoursing on various subjects, including "Liberty," to interested crowds—choosing, as they no doubt think, a fitting place for publicly formulating plans for obtaining still



NELSON'S SHIP—THE VICTORY

It was on this vessel that Nelson hoisted his famous signal, "England expects that every man will do his duty," and on which he, in his hour of triumph, received a mortal wound. It now lies in Portsmouth Harbour, and has been recently restored.

greater freedom than they already enjoy.

" 'Twas in Trafalgar Bay,
We saw the Frenchmen lay ;
Each heart was bounding then ;
We scorned the foreign yoke ;
Our ships were British oak,
And hearts of oak our men.

" Brave Nelson led them on the wave,
Three cheers our gallant seamen gave
For England, Home and Beauty.
Along the line the signal rang :
' England expects that every man
This day will do his duty.' "

" The Death of Nelson."—BRAHAM

TEACHING NOTES

1. A map of Europe for every child and for the blackboard is essential. A map of the world is also necessary for the teacher.

2. Compare :

(a) Means of communication with the Continent then and now ;

(b) Kind of ships then and now.

3. Emphasise the moral side of the lesson from Nelson's famous signal.

4. Mention the Cinque Ports. Many of the pupils may have visited one or more

5. Teach the above song to boys in the singing lesson.

42. NAPOLEON AND WELLINGTON

" So great a soldier taught us there
What long enduring hearts could do
In that world earthquake Waterloo."

TENNYSON.

ONE of our greatest British generals was Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington. He takes rank in our annals with Wolfe, Clive, Roberts, Kitchener and Haig. He was born of Irish parents in Dublin in the same year (1769) that Napoleon was born. He first became famous in India when he was victorious in battle with one of the native princes.

Now when Napoleon found that he was unable to invade England, he turned his attention to Spain and Portugal. Here there was continual fighting between him and Wellesley (now Commander-in-Chief), but little progress was made one way or the other. So Napoleon turned to crush Russia. Here his army suffered intensely from cold and hunger, and thousands of Frenchmen died. This was a great blow to Napoleon's prestige and power, and he returned to Paris. Then he collected another army and went to Spain, but Wellington proved too strong for him in the several battles which took place there.

So Napoleon, driven to despair, gave up his throne. He was sent to the Island of Elba by the French and given a good income. But soon after (in 1815) he escaped and landed in the south of France. Here thousands of men joined him, and in a few days he triumphantly entered Paris. Immediately a large army was ready to do his bidding, and with these men he marched against the British Army, which was scattered in various places round Waterloo, a little town twelve miles north of Brussels. Napoleon's idea was to keep the British Army scattered and to prevent Wellington linking up with his ally, General Blücher, head of the Prussian Army. The Prussians were defeated by the French and retired, and Napoleon sent a large body of soldiers to follow them. Then he turned his attention to Wellington and the field of Waterloo.

On the eve of the battle, the Duchess of Richmond gave a ball in Brussels to the officers and friends of the British and their Allies.

Lord Byron has described the scene in "Childe Harold's Pilgrimage":

"There was a sound of revelry by night,
And Belgium's capital had gather'd then
Her Beauty and her Chivalry, and bright
The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave
men;

A thousand hearts beat happily; and when
Music arose with its voluptuous swell,
Soft eyes look'd love to eyes which spake
again,

And all went merry as a marriage bell;
But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes
like a rising knell!

* * *

"And there was mounting in hot haste: the
steed,

The mustering squadron, and the clatter-
ing car,

Went pouring forward with impetuous
speed,

And swiftly forming in the ranks of war;

And the deep thunder peel on peel afar;

And near, the beat of the alarming drum
Roused up the soldier ere the morning
star;

While throng'd the citizens with terror
dumb,

Or whispering, with white lips—"The foe!
they come! they come!"

Wellington's army was much smaller than that of the French, but although Napoleon tried again and again to crush the British, the latter stood solidly square and held their own against the enemy for many hours. Then Napoleon heard Blücher coming to the rescue of Wellington; he grew desperate and charged again. Still Wellington's men stood firm, till at last Blücher arrived and assailed Napoleon on his flank. Victory for the British was decisive, and Napoleon, putting spurs to his horse, fled to the coast and surrendered to the captain of a British man-of-war (*The Bellerophon*), rather than all into the hands of the Prussians.

He was banished to the lonely island of St. Helena and died there in 1821. Nineteen years afterwards, his body was brought back to his beloved France and buried in a magnificent tomb under the dome of "Les Invalides"—a hospital for French soldiers in Paris.

In 1822 the Achilles statue was erected in Hyde Park by the ladies of England, to the memory of the men of Wellington's army who fell at Waterloo. In Dublin, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Liverpool and other great cities are similar monuments. The "Iron Duke," as he was called, received the thanks of the nation, together with Apsley House, at Hyde Park Corner, and Strathfieldsaye, a beautiful estate in Hampshire.

The Duke of Wellington now turned his attention to politics, and proved as great a Minister of the Crown as he had been a soldier. He even reached the position of Prime Minister (1828).

The Iron Duke, "the great world-victor's victor," died in 1852 after a long and useful life. The whole nation mourned him as a man who both in war and peace strove to serve his country faithfully and well. He was buried with much ceremony beside Nelson in St. Paul's Cathedral, and a magnificent memorial has been erected there in his honour.

"All is over and done
Render thanks to the Giver,
England for thy son.
Let the bell be toll'd
Render thanks to the Giver,
And render him to the mould
Under the cross of gold
That shines over city and river,
There he shall rest for ever
Among the wise and the bold."

"Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington,"—TENNYSON.

"Who is he that cometh, like an honour'd guest
 With banner and with music, with soldier
 and with priest
 With a nation weeping, and breaking on
 my rest?
 Mighty Seaman, this is he,
 Was great by land as thou by sea.
 Thine island loves thee well, thou famous
 man,
 The greatest sailor since our world began.
 Now to the roll of muffled drums,
 To thee the greatest soldier comes:
 For this is he,
 Was great by land as thou by sea."
 "Ode on the Death of the Duke of
 Wellington."—TENNYSON.

TEACHING NOTES

1. The great point to emphasise is that by our victory at Waterloo (1815) Napoleon's power was crushed and all fear of an invasion of England swept away.
2. Teach some interesting facts of the city of London and St. Paul's Cathedral.
3. Read the whole extract on "Waterloo," by Lord Byron, and comment where necessary.
4. Read the "Ode" by Tennyson, some lines of which might be committed to memory.
5. Teach the moral of "Do the work that's nearest."
 The Iron Duke's life is a great example of this.
6. A blackboard map is essential.

43. BURNS AND SCOTT

ROBERT BURNS (1759-96) was a Scottish poet whose poems have such an influence on his "ain folk" that no Scotsman dare confess he does not read them.

Burns was the son of an Ayrshire farmer of great intelligence and with a belief in education. Although the father was poor, Robert was sent to school, and later studied with a private tutor who taught him on literary lines. He

had a natural liking for verse and was a keen lover of Nature. He was particularly fond of reading the life and adventures of the Scottish hero, William Wallace, and the ballads and songs of Betty Davidson, an old lady who lived with the Burns family. These ballads he knew by heart, and was fond of reciting them. It is interesting to note that Sir Walter Scott also knew them well.

Burns spoke the language of the Lowlands of Scotland, and most of his songs are written in the same tongue, which though sweet to Scottish ears is somewhat difficult for English people to follow.

His poems early made for him many friends above his own station in life, and this no doubt caused him to become fond of gaiety. He was very popular and everywhere was "lionised," chiefly because he was the poet of the people. He saw life and wrote about it as it was, while Scott saw it in the setting of romance.

"Scott wrote for the better class, but Robbie Burns was a' for the people, and like the lark, when once he felt his feet fra' the groun', he couldna' but soar to the skies."

He visited Edinburgh at different times, and on one occasion met there Sir Walter Scott, who was much drawn to this passionate, brown-eyed, handsome man.

In 1796 Burns died, worn out by his reckless life. On Calton Hill, Edinburgh, a fine monument has been erected to his memory. But no monument is really needed to keep his memory fresh in the minds of the Scottish people who, to this day, adore him. In almost every Scottish home is found, if no other books, a Bible and

a copy of Burns' poems. Many a man or woman is known to carry on his person a pocket edition of Burns' poems, some of which he knows by heart and can quote at length. In England, too, Burns' sparkling wit, his light-heartedness and the fire and beauty of his lines have drawn to him thousands of admirers.

Hundreds of school-children sing and enjoy the well-known song :

" Ye banks and braes of bonnie Doon,
How can ye bloom sae fair !
How can ye chant ye little birds,
And I sat fu' o' care ! "

Other well-known and beautiful poems are :

1. " To a Field Mouse," commencing :

" Wee, sleekit, cow'rin' tim'rous beastie,
O what a panic's in thy breastie !
Thou need na start awa sae hasty,
Wi' bickering brattle !
I wad be laith to rin an' chase thee
Wi' murd'ring prattle ! "

2. " John Anderson"—a song sung by many, and commencing :

" John Anderson my jo, John,
When we were first acquaint
Your locks were like the raven,
Your bonnie brow was brent,
But now your brow is bald, John,
Your locks are like the snow. "

3. " Jean"—a love poem commencing :

" O' a' the airts the wind can blaw,
I fearly like the West,
For there the bonnie lassie lives,
The lass I lo'e the best.
There wild woods grow and rivers row,
And mony a hill between ;
But day and night my fancy's flight
Is ever with my Jean. "

4. " Scots wha hae"—a song of William Wallace.

5. " The Cottar's Saturday Night."

There are dozens of others known to his admirers, who love not only the lilt of the metre and the homely thoughts which pervade his poetry, but enjoy the deep philosophy running through his lines :

" What though on hamely fare we dine
Wear hoddin grey and a' that ;
Gie fools their silks and knaves their wine
A man's a man for a' that,
For a' that for a' that,
Their tinsel show and a' that ;
The honest man that's e'er sae poor
Is king o' men for a' that ! "

and again :

" Oh, wad some power the giftie gi'e us
To see ourselves as others see us ! "

WALTER SCOTT (1771-1832) was not only a great Scottish poet but the most famous historical novelist the world has ever known.

He was born in Edinburgh of good parentage and received an excellent education, finally entering Edinburgh University and then his father's office as a solicitor's clerk. Through an illness while yet an infant he became lame, and this infirmity no doubt made him more prone to study. He had red hair surmounting a huge brow and rugged features, and he certainly was not considered handsome like Burns.

He was a tremendous worker, for not only did his pen pour forth novels and poems, but he was also Sheriff of Selkirkshire and as such, was a very busy man.

So wonderful was his output of writing that he was called " The Wizard of the North."

Sir Walter Scott, for he was created a baronet in 1820, was a writer for all men, whatever their taste and whatever their age. He wrote for English and Scottish alike, for he loved England and her glorious history as dearly as his own native land. One of his most famous poems is "The Lay of the Last Minstrel," and herein are to be found the world-known words :

"Breathes there a man with soul so dead
Who never to himself hath said,
'This is my own, my native land !'
Whose heart hath ne'er within him burn'd
As home his footsteps he hath turn'd,
From wandering on a foreign strand ?"

In the principal street of Edinburgh—Princes Street—is erected a magnificent monument to Sir Walter Scott's memory, just a short distance from that of Burns.

Sir Walter Scott's influence through his works is felt all over Scotland, and everywhere the traveller goes he finds some instance of it.

Scott was much beloved for his generosity and his broadmindedness. In private life he was a great contrast to Robert Burns, for he was a God-fearing and an upright man, and not at all in love with the gay and lighter side of life.

Scott's works, especially his novels, have been translated into almost every civilised language, and there are few British schoolchildren who are not familiar with some of his stirring poems and his historical novels. Two of his best-known poems are "The Lady of the Lake," and "Marmion."

His more popular novels are :

"Waverley," "Kenilworth," "Ivanhoe," "The Talisman," "Old Mortality," "Guy Mannering," "Rob

Roy," and "The Bride of Lammermoor."

Among his beautiful songs are :

"Jock o' Hazeldean," and "Waken, lords and ladies gay."

Sir Walter Scott is considered by some to be second to Shakespeare and Homer among the world's great writers.

TEACHING NOTES

1. Link with the literature lessons, and freely read suitable excerpts from the works of both men. Some extracts could be memorised.

2. Contrasts should be drawn between the works, language and influence of Burns and Scott.

3. Pupils should be encouraged to bring to school, works of either, and to use Scott's novels to supplement the history lessons.

44. THE CHILDREN OF FORMER DAYS

THE children of to-day are very lucky little people compared with those who lived before the early part of the nineteenth century. Then there were few primary schools ; and those there were, were not free. More than half the population could neither read nor write, for education was not compulsory ; it was regarded more as a luxury. Now it is considered a disgrace if a person cannot read and write, indeed one wonders how he managed to escape the school authorities.

Children of former days went to work in the fields, factories, shops and mines when very young. George Stephenson was at work minding cows and hoeing turnips at the age of eight. Less than a century ago children of five years of age were known to have worked in mines. Nowadays they are just entering the infants' schools. It

is scarcely credible that any work could possibly be given to children of five ; yet it is a fact that they worked for long hours underground, acting as "trappers," i.e. they were employed to open the doors in the long, dark, stuffy tunnels of the coal-mines, so that the coal wagons could pass through. Then the tiny trapper shut the door and waited till required to open it for the next load. If a child trapper fell asleep he (or she, for girls were also employed) was awakened and beaten.

Sometimes children were used to draw trucks ; then they were strapped to the truck and often walked on hands as well as feet in their endeavour to do the work of a pony.

The hours of labour were ten to twelve hours per day, on six days each week, and there were no holidays. In the factories the same conditions prevailed : long hours, small pay, badly ventilated workrooms and unguarded machinery, which caused many accidents.

Orphan and workhouse children were apprenticed to masters who compelled them to work for sixteen hours each day. The food was coarse and insufficient, and their beds were more often than not placed on the floor in a corner of a stuffy kitchen or under a shop counter. Small wonder that consumption and other dire diseases were rampant among the little workers.

The workhouse boys and girls were sometimes taken in gangs by the labour master to factory towns. Here they slept under sheds, like so many cattle, and were sent in shifts to the factory to work. Their wages were taken by the workhouse authorities to help to pay for their miserable keep.

Many serious-minded men began to realise that this state of slavery in our very midst could not go on. England abolished slavery in 1833 in her colonies, yet in Britain itself, men, women and children were undergoing even greater hardships. But because they were not bought and sold, and because they received wages, their condition was not considered one of slavery ; yet such it really was. A Mr. Ashley-Cooper (afterwards Lord Ashley and subsequently Earl of Shaftesbury) was bold enough to take matters in hand. Others had tried before him, for in 1802 the hours of apprentices were shortened to *twelve hours a day*. In 1819 children *under nine years of age* were not allowed to work in cotton mills and *night work* was forbidden to children under sixteen.

There were, therefore, many now willing to help Lord Ashley. He collected much information about the conditions under which children worked, and he visited mines and factories to ascertain for himself. Then in 1833, he brought into Parliament a Factory Act, and it became law the next year. By this Act no young persons between the ages of 13 and 18 could work more than twelve hours a day, and nine on Saturdays.

Children were also made to go to school on the half-days they were not employed ; they became known as "half-timers," and this system of half-time attendance at school and factory was not finally abolished till 1921. Nor were the "climbing boys," i.e., the little chimney-sweepers, forgotten by the Earl of Shaftesbury. Tiny boys used to be forced up narrow chimneys to sweep them. Sometimes they became

stuck and were suffocated; in any case the work was cruel and frightening, and the Earl laboured continuously till he succeeded in stopping the practice.

To-day children are not allowed to leave school for work till they are 14 years of age, but many prefer to remain a year or two longer. All children, too, must go to school; there is no choice in the matter, and such a happy place is it, that it is a punishment to them to have to be absent.

The workhouse is now termed "a home"; the child inhabitants are sent to neighbouring schools and have all the privileges of the children in them.

Under such changed conditions it is no wonder that our children are healthier, bigger (age for age), and happier than those of former days. They have every opportunity to grow into fine men and women, and as the years roll by, they should, under continually improving conditions, become a splendid and a contented race.

45. THE LIFE AND TIMES OF QUEEN VICTORIA

"O great of Heart! In whom the world
has known

Wisdom with woman's sweetness reconciled;

Who held her Kingdom's honour, as her own,

Still fair and undefiled!"

"Queen Victoria," SEAMAN.

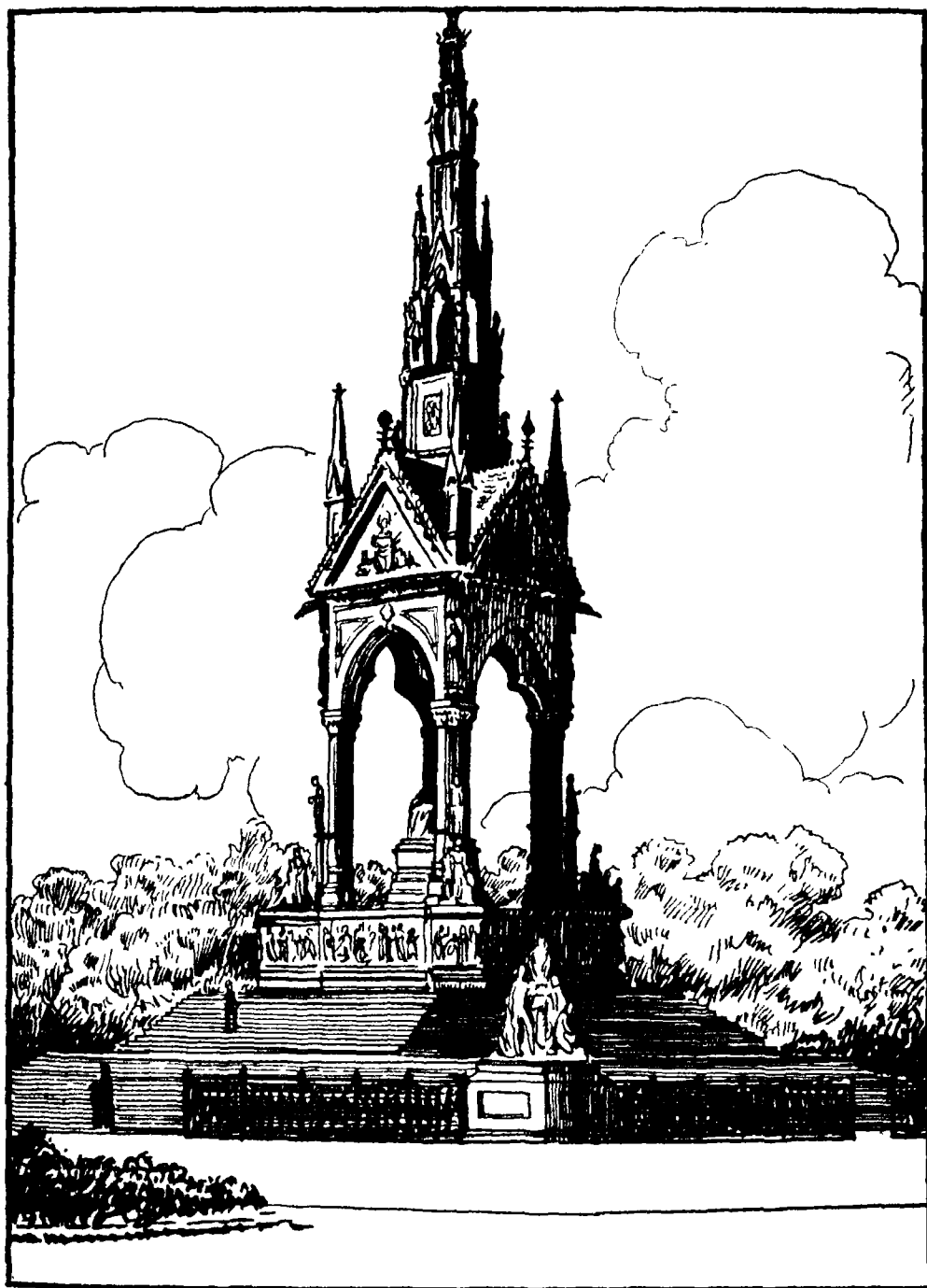
IN the early hours of a May morning (1819), the month in which spring is at its loveliest, a little princess "as plump as a partridge" was born in Kensington Palace. The birth of this "May-flower" was hailed with joy, not only

by her proud parents the Duke and Duchess of Kent, but also by her uncles (whose heir she was) and by all the British nation. Among many of the names chosen for her was "Victoria," and that was the one she preferred in after years.

It is interesting to know that when she was three months old the Princess was vaccinated. She was the first royal baby to be inoculated according to Jenner's method. She spent most of the winter months of her babyhood at Sidmouth, in Devonshire, but in less than a year her father died, and from that time till she ascended the throne, her mother and she lived in Kensington Palace, where she "never passed a night outside her mother's bed-chamber."

The future Queen was brought up in very simple style; indeed one may almost say frugal. As a young child she rose early and breakfasted at eight with her mother, which meal consisted of bread and milk and fruit. At half-past eight, the little Victoria rode on her beautiful donkey in Kensington Gardens, and from ten to twelve her mother instructed her in various subjects. At two o'clock she dined simply with her mother and then had a drive or a romp in the Gardens. A simple supper of bread and milk and dessert followed, and by nine o'clock she was snug in her chintz-hung bed. Occasionally she went on a short visit to "Uncle King" (George IV), or to "Claremont" at Esher, the home of her beloved uncle, Prince Leopold (afterwards King of the Belgians).

She was a bright, cheerful child, and several stories are told of her quick repartee. On her fourth birthday, King George summoned her to a State



THE ALBERT MEMORIAL.

Situated in Kensington Gardens, and opposite the Albert Hall, the memorial was erected by Queen Victoria in memory of her beloved consort. It was designed by Sir Gilbert Scott, and is highly decorative. The height is nearly 200 feet.

dinner at Carlton House, London. After dinner he asked her what piece she liked best, as he would tell the band to play it. "God save the King," she replied quickly, which answer greatly pleased His Majesty.

When she was eleven, Latin, Greek and mathematics were added to her studies. She also studied music and art, and was considered very clever at both. She was passionately fond of botany and natural history, and her first visit to the British Museum gave her great delight.

There are several accounts of how the young Princess first discovered that she might one day be Queen, for the matter was not referred to in the Royal Household. Her history tutor had set her to make a chart of the monarchs. When she got as far as King William she hesitated; "I hardly like to put down myself," she remarked. Her mother was very much relieved that she should discover the truth in this way.

She was only twelve years old when, dressed in a simple white satin frock, a row of lovely pearls around her neck and her soft fair hair arranged Madonna fashion, she stood on Queen Adelaide's left hand at the first Drawing-room held after the accession of William IV.

In order that the young Princess should know more of the country over which she was to reign, the Duchess of Kent took her on many visits to Brighton, Ramsgate, Tunbridge Wells, the Isle of Wight and Wales. They and their modest retinue travelled by road from Kensington via Shrewsbury and Coventry into Wales. On the return journey they passed through the Midlands, and Princess Victoria was greatly

interested in seeing Arkwright's spinning-jenny at work.

In May 1836, when Princess Victoria was 17, her two cousins Ernest and Albert (sons of the Duke of Coburg) came to Kensington Palace and stayed for a month. It had always been the dearest wish of many of her relations that she and Prince Albert should eventually marry, but her mother and her devoted Uncle Leopold felt that there should be no coercion. The young people passed their time in sketching, walking, riding, playing the piano and other innocent amusements. In August the Princess came of age (i.e., 18), and henceforth took precedence of her mother on all State occasions, but at present she gave no signs of wishing to be married.

On June 17th, 1837, King William died shortly after two o'clock a.m. Immediately the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Lord Chamberlain started to drive from Windsor to Kensington to tell the young Queen the news. They drove through the silent roads, saw the dawn gradually break and reached the Palace at five o'clock. "All was silent, save the singing of the birds, who, fittingly, were the first living creatures to serenade the maiden monarch, as eighteen years ago they had welcomed her birth in the same old Palace with similar song."

It was some time before the household could be roused. Finally the young Queen came into the apartment where the two gentlemen awaited her. She had hastily thrown a dressing-gown over her night clothes and slipped her naked feet into slippers. Turning to the Primate who broke the news she said, with tears in her eyes, "I ask your Grace to pray for me."

At 2 p.m. on the same day she held her first Council. "Had she been my own daughter," said the Duke of Wellington, "I could not have wished to see her play her part better."

The next day she drove to St. James's Palace to be publicly proclaimed, and while the cannon thundered and trumpets resounded and the shouts of "God save the Queen" roared from thousands of loyal throats, the "little Queen" stood silent, a pathetic figure in black with white cuffs and tippet. Shortly after, she and her mother left the beloved home of her childhood and went to live at Buckingham Palace.

Everybody fell in love with the young Queen; maidens copied her fashions, matrons hoped that their daughters would be as dutiful as she, and men, old and young, waited for hours to catch a glimpse of her beauty. Charles Dickens as a youth had what was known as the "Queen Fever." Some years after, when he was at the height of his fame, he was summoned to Windsor to lunch, and Her Majesty gave him a copy of her "Tour in the Highlands," inscribed "From the humblest to the most distinguished author in England."

The Queen quickly showed her Ministers that she meant to be a working queen and not a figure-head, and it became the duty of the Prime Minister to instruct her in State-craft. It is said that she never signed a document without reading it and inquiring into the "whys" and "wherefores" of its contents.

In June 1838 the Queen's coronation took place, and the procession to and from the Abbey was one long triumph. The Duchess of Kent, too, came in for much cheering, so did

Marshal Soult, Napoleon's French General in Spain, and Corunna and Waterloo were forgotten as the Marshal and the "Iron Duke" shook hands.

In February 1840 Victoria married her cousin Albert in the Royal Chapel of St. James. Her dress was of white satin, which was manufactured at Spitalfields, and the Honiton lace which draped it was made by two hundred poor lace-workers in the village of Beer, near Honiton, at the Queen's express command. Her crown was, by her wish, removed for her marriage, and she refused to allow the words "to obey" to be omitted from the service. "I wish to be married as a woman, not as a Queen," she said. The honeymoon of three days only was spent at Windsor Castle, for she felt that the business of State could not wait even for a Queen's wedding. Then she returned to Buckingham Palace to hold a levée. The Prince accompanied her and stood on her left, a position he always afterwards took.

The following November, the Princess Royal was born, and at Christmas, which the Queen kept at Windsor, a gaily-decorated Christmas-tree appeared—a custom introduced by Prince Albert and still kept up. Twelve months later the Prince of Wales—afterwards King Edward VII—was born.

In June 1842 Queen Victoria made her first trip by railway. She travelled on the Great Western Railway from Windsor to Paddington, in a royal saloon with crimson carpets on the floor. Brunel, the famous engineer, drove the engine, and the journey occupied twenty-five minutes. Crowds of enthusiasts awaited her arrival; many, however, felt grave anxiety, for

they "wondered that the Royal lady had not more sense than to trust herself to such an infernal machine."

The same year the Queen paid her first visit to Scotland. She travelled by water to Edinburgh. The Duke of Buccleuch received her and the Prince, and together they drove through the famous city to Dalkeith. "Nothing escaped her quick eyes; the many-storied houses of the Old Town, the aged crones standing at the doors in their white mutches, the bare-footed lads and lasses, the fish-wives in their short petticoats with the 'caller herrin' fresh drawn frae the Forth in kreels upon their backs were all of interest to her. She ate oatmeal porridge for breakfast and enjoyed the 'Finnan haddies.' She roamed about the lochs and the glens, made friends with the old women in the cottages and enjoyed a freedom which was absolutely new to her." The Scottish folk took her to their loyal hearts. There were torch-light festivities, with reels and strathspeys and bagpipes, the music of which the Queen greatly enjoyed. Everywhere she was received with admiration, for as one of the crowd said: "She's a raal fine leddie, wi'oot a bit o' pride about her at a'." While she was in Forfar she heard that Grace Darling was dying, and was very much distressed.

The next year sweet Princess Alice was born—the Princess who was afterwards her mother's confidante, and whose own daughter became the ill-fated Czarina of Russia.

In 1844 Prince Alfred (the Duke of Edinburgh and father of the present Queen of Roumania) was born. Although the Queen had now four children, she still attended to her public

duties with the same zeal as before. She rose at 6.30 a.m. in the summer and 7.30 in the winter. Then she attended divine service with the household, breakfasted simply on coffee, bread and butter, and eggs or meat, and next visited her farm. After this she inspected the royal nurseries, glanced through the newspapers, and discussed the domestic arrangements with the Master of the Household. At eleven o'clock the dispatch boxes were opened and the business of State transacted. At 2 p.m. came luncheon, and the afternoon was given up to simple pleasures—sketching, etching or visiting.

Dinner was at 8 p.m.—a very stately affair. The servants were in scarlet uniform, and all conversation among the guests was carried on in whispers; politics were never discussed at this meal. Then music followed in the drawing-room. Sometimes the Queen sang duets with her ladies, and she has been known to accompany the singing of that famous songster, Jenny Lind, for whom the Queen had much affection. One thing the Queen always exacted, and that was punctuality. In 1846 Osborne, in the Isle of Wight, was bought as a royal residence. Here a Swiss cottage was erected in the grounds, and the Queen's sons learned carpentering under their father, Prince Albert, while the girls studied domestic economy in a model kitchen and scullery erected therein. Each child, too, tended his or her own little garden under a gardener and grew fruit as well as flowers. "Few children have indeed been taught more thoroughly how to use their hands than the Queen's family."

In 1845 the Queen gave a wonderful masked ball, and among others present

were the famous Duke of Wellington, and that world-known charitable lady, Miss (afterwards Baroness) Burdett-Coutts.

A few years afterwards the Queen purchased Balmoral, and shocked Lord John Russell, who accompanied the Royal Family there on one occasion, by the fact that her only guard was a single policeman and that the royal children played with the cottage children on the hillside and in the pools.

In 1850 the Queen visited Ireland much against her Ministers' wishes, for they expected trouble from the Irish. She landed at the Cove of Cork, which henceforth became Queens-town, and her visit was one long triumph. "O Queen, dear, make one of them dear children Prince Patrick, and all Ireland will die for you," cried one enthusiastic lady among the crowds in Dublin, and so the next son born to the Queen she named "Arthur Patrick," now the much respected Duke of Connaught, whose daughter is Princess Pat.

The Queen now assisted Prince Albert in planning the Great Industrial Exhibition to be held at the Crystal Palace, and she opened it in 1851 amidst the great enthusiasm of immense crowds. In the same year the Queen gave the famous Stuart Ball at Buckingham Palace to illustrate the times of the Merry Monarch—Charles II. Mr. Gladstone was there as the Judge in the High Court of Admiralty. He wore "a black velvet coat, turned up with blue satin, ruffles and collar of old point lace, black breeches and stockings, and shoes with spreading bows."

In 1852 the Duke of Wellington died. When the tidings were con-

veyed to the Queen, she said with emotion, "One cannot think of the country without the Duke, our Immortal hero."

Her Majesty's children were now growing up and proving very clever. She and the Prince took the greatest interest in all their doings, allowed the boys to choose their professions when quite young and had them trained accordingly. The Prince of Wales, as heir to the throne, had no profession, but was sent to Cambridge University.

In 1854 the Queen, much to her grief, signed the declaration of war with Russia, and the next two years of her life and that of the Prince Albert were full of anxious care about her soldiers and their widows and orphans.

She started a patriotic fund for them, and all the Royal Family joined in collecting money and doing work for the fund. The Crown Princess ("Vicky") and Princess Alice longed to go to Scutari to help Miss Florence Nightingale. It was owing to Her Majesty's efforts that the beautiful Netley Hospital was built for the wounded soldiers. As England and France were Allies in this war it was only natural that the French Emperor Napoleon III and his young wife Eugénie should visit Windsor as the Queen's guests (1855). After the war the Queen reviewed her troops at Aldershot and publicly thanked them for their loyalty and bravery. She also received Florence Nightingale at Balmoral, and to commemorate our victories she conferred upon her husband the title of "Prince Consort."

In 1861 the Queen lost her beloved mother, the Duchess of Kent, and a few months afterwards the Prince Consort died of typhoid fever, to the great grief

of the Queen and the whole nation. He was buried at Frogmore, and the Queen afterwards went with her children for a rest to Osborne and then to Balmoral, the home Prince Albert had bought for her. At the latter home, nothing comforted her more than to hear the Scottish Minister read to her the poems of Burns and Scott while she was spinning. In Kensington Gardens, opposite the Albert Hall, is the magnificent Albert Memorial, erected by Her Majesty to the memory of her beloved Consort.

In 1877, at the Imperial Camp outside the walls of Delhi—the spot where the Indian Mutiny had so fiercely raged—her Majesty was proclaimed by the Viceroy “Empress of India,” a title hitherto not borne by the British Sovereign. Each native prince was presented with a beautiful standard made in London after a design chosen by the Queen. It showed the sacred lily of India, the rose of England and the spreading palms of the East, together with the motto, “Heaven’s light our Guide.”

The Queen now took a great interest in Hindu women and how they fared during illness, and she established a permanent fund for providing qualified doctors to go to India. In order to show how interested she was in the Indian Empire, she became a student of Hindustani and had Indian servants in native dress as her personal attendants.

In 1886 the Queen opened the Colonial and Indian Exhibition at South Kensington, and the Prince of Wales asked that the school children should have tickets of admission at a reduced rate. June 21st, 1887, was celebrated as Jubilee Day, when the

mighty British Empire joined in one great family jubilation, that their beloved Queen had been spared to reign over them for fifty years. The sun blazed upon her as she drove from Buckingham Palace to Westminster Abbey to return thanks for God’s great mercies, “but the bright young girl was now a grey-haired woman who had seen much sorrow and battled with many difficulties.” The next day thirty thousand school children were given a monster treat in Hyde Park. After a few days’ rest at Windsor, the Queen, now nearly seventy years of age, opened the Royal Holloway College for Women and then went to Florence for another short rest. But wherever she went “her hand is at the helm, and telegraph and telephone messengers and despatch boxes keep her hourly informed of everything which transpires, even in the remotest part of her vast dominions.”

In 1893 she opened the Imperial Institute at Kensington, saying, “I recognise in the Institute a symbol of the unity of the Empire.”

In 1897 she celebrated her Diamond Jubilee, having reigned now for sixty years. The burden of State was weighing heavily upon her, and the Prince and Princess of Wales (afterwards Queen Alexandra) had to relieve her of many State and Court functions.

Her last years were clouded by the Boer War, but, aged as she was, she insisted on visiting the wounded at Netley. She lived just long enough to know that the quarrels between Boer and Briton were at last ending. She died in January 1901 and was buried at Frogmore beside her beloved husband.

Her outstanding qualities were love of truth and utter detestation of sham,

and she was always grateful to those who served her faithfully, whether they were great Ministers or humble servants.

Her love of animals is well known, and a little incident in this direction is worthy of notice. One day, when she was in the Isle of Wight, she saw a costermonger beating his pony. She stopped her carriage, bought the pony and sent it to live a life of ease in Bushey Park. She showed much practical sympathy with the objects of the R.S.P.C.A.

The Queen also took a great interest in the introduction of the tricycle. One day she saw a lady riding one along the Newport Road in the Isle of Wight and immediately ordered two to be sent to her ladies, but she looked a little askance when bicycles began to be used by them. Afterwards, however, she quite enjoyed watching the cycling parties at Balmoral.

"The Queen will live in history as the most enlightened and consistent of constitutional monarchs as well as being revered as a great and noble woman. As a ruler she was wise, judicious and sagacious, and above everything distinguished by a high sense of duty."

"Her Court was pure ; her life serene ;
God gave her peace ; her land reposed ;
A thousand claims to reverence closed
In her as mother, wife and Queen."

"To the Queen."—TENNYSON.

TEACHING NOTES

1. It is not expected that all which is written here can or should be taught to the pupils. A judicious selection must be made by the teacher, according to age and sex of pupils.

2. There are included many historical, geographical, literary, social and political happenings, some of which have come into

previous lessons but will form interesting revision.

3. It is most important to teach the life of Her Majesty, not only as a great Queen and Empress, but also as an exemplary woman, wife and mother.

46. THE FREEING OF THE SLAVES (1833)

DURING the seventeenth century—the Stuart period—the British Colonies in America were founded. The most important in the southern group was Virginia. Here the soil was admirably suited for growing tobacco, and as the climate was hot, slave-labour was introduced to carry on the industry. The planter or squire had his house on his estate, and it was surrounded by huts in which dwelt his slaves, who received board, lodging and clothing—which was of course scanty—in return for their labour. Some of the planters were good and kind masters. Of others, there are countless tales of their cruelty, and flogging was the usual punishment for an offence. The slaves were bought and sold in the open markets just like merchandise. They were shipped from Africa, and the price paid for a human being varied according to age, strength, ability and sex. They were brought over the Atlantic in cargo loads, and so overcrowded were these slave ships, and so terrible the conditions and the treatment of these poor things, that many died on the way. The slaves were used for work, not only on the tobacco, but also on the cotton and sugar plantations.

For many years the horrors of the slave trade had occupied the minds of the Quakers, a religious sect living

chiefly in Yorkshire. Then a young man named Clarkson succeeded in interesting Pitt, Fox and Wilberforce, three of King George III's Ministers, in the cause of the slaves. These three men tried to stir up the Government to help the slaves to get their freedom, and at last (in 1807) a Bill was passed making it punishable to trade in slaves. Slavery was not abolished, however, but buying and selling human beings were. After some years the number of hours during which a slave should work was limited, and later still (in 1833), slavery was abolished in England and her Colonies. All workers were in future to be paid a wage for their services. William Wilberforce, who had worked so hard and so long, lived just long enough to see the success of his efforts, for he died only a few days after the passing of his Bill. Slavery was not abolished by America, however, till some thirty years later.

During all these years, while Wilberforce was urging the freeing of the black slaves, Mr. Ashley-Cooper, afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury, was working for the freeing of the "white slaves," as he called them, in England. In the same year as Wilberforce, Mr. Ashley-Cooper brought in a Bill to shorten the hours of labour in our factories. As early as 1802 the hours of apprentices had been limited to *twelve hours work per day*, and women's hours of labour were lessened also. But in 1833, in the reign of William IV, children became "half-timers," that is to say, they went to school for half a day and spent the other half in the factories. The half-time system was not finally abolished till the present century.

"Work—work—work !
While the crow is crowing aloof ;
And work—work—work
Till the stars shine through the roof !
It's oh to be a slave
Along with the barbarous Turk,
Where woman has never a soul to save,
If this is Christian work ! "

"Song of the Shirt."—HOOD.

TEACHING NOTES

1. Read portions of Mrs. Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin."
2. Read "The Song of the Shirt," Hood.
3. Contrast conditions of child-labour then and now.
4. Revise "The Children of Former Days."

47. FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE

"A Lady with a Lamp shall stand
In the history of the land,
A noble type of good,
Heroic womanhood."

"Santa Filomena"—LONGFELLOW.

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE was thirty-four when England joined France and helped the Turks in a war against Russia. Up to this time she had lived with her parents, who were well-to-do, and so could give her and her sister a beautiful home and a good education.

At a very early age she was fond of nursing, and took an interest in visiting the sick villagers on her father's estate.

Before she was nineteen she had travelled for pleasure in France and Italy, making many friends and gaining a good deal of general knowledge. She was a skilled musician and a deep reader. At twenty-four she wanted to become a nurse at Salisbury Hospital, but her mother did not wish her to do so. The ideas of what a gentlewoman should or should not do were very different in those days from



SLAVES PICKING COTTON.

The negro slaves, shipped from West Africa to the American plantations, were able to endure the intense heat of these regions much better than the white man could do. But at the end of a terrible voyage they were not free men. Their freedom came in 1833.

what they are now, when most young women hope to have some work to do. Meanwhile Florence began to hate the gaieties of Society. "Oh, for some strong thing to sweep this loathsome life into the past," she wrote to a friend.

It was no wonder that her gentle mother did not wish Florence to become a hospital nurse, for the infirmaries had no proper nursing system in those days. Often three or four patients had to sleep in one bed, under not very clean conditions. What few nurses there were, were not always trained and were terribly hard-worked. Florence was aware of all accounts of these failings, but in her heart she wished to be a pioneer and to

be the instrument for altering a system which was so repugnant to her.

She determined to get training in spite of rebuffs from her family, and at last she was allowed to go to Paris and join some sisters of charity in their work among orphans, and sick and old women. Then she returned to England and became the superintendent of a home for sick governesses and poor ladies. Soon afterwards we find her voluntarily working among the cholera-stricken poor in Middlesex Hospital, and this was work after her own heart.

When the Crimean War broke out, the sufferings of the wounded reached the ears of Florence Nightingale. With a faithful band of nurses she

set out at once, although help from the Government was not forthcoming. Nothing daunted, she and her friends provided the means for finding hospital equipment, and she set out for Scutari. Here things were at their worst. "Ship after ship arrived with sick, in so exhausted a condition that the foul air of these hospitals was almost certain death to them."

Ten days after her arrival in Scutari she wrote: "We had but half an hour's notice before they began landing the wounded. Between one and nine o'clock we had mattresses stuffed, sewn up, laid down—alas! only upon matting on the floor—the men washed and put to bed and all their wounds dressed." Amputations took place in the ward, but this gentle lady saw that a screen was made and the sufferers hidden from their companions.

In a few days she and her little band had worked wonders. The men looked upon her as a "ministering angel," and longed for her gentle touch on their fevered brows. When the medical officers had retired for the night, although exhausted with her daily toil, her slender form glided softly along the corridors, holding a little shaded lamp in her hand. She was looking to see if among those four miles of beds, with but eighteen inches between each, some sad inhabitant would be soothed by her kindly smile or her gentle touch.

"We lay there by hundreds, but we could kiss her shadow as it fell and lay our heads on the pillow again content," wrote one, and "before she came, there was cussing and swearing, but after that, it was as holy as a church," wrote another.

Not only did she reform the condi-

tions for the wounded, but she saw that the women who had been allowed to follow their husbands were decently housed, and their children cared for.

Then she was stricken down with fever, but after a slow recovery she resumed her arduous duties. Often she had to journey long distances in the bitter wintry weather in a rough cart or on a mule's back, but she never faltered, although her health was being fast undermined.

After the war, a public fund was launched, and large sums of money collected for her. A concert given by Jenny Lind in London raised £2,000, and the British troops in the Crimea voluntarily collected £9,000. Queen Victoria sent her a beautiful brooch, and the Sultan of Turkey gave her a diamond bracelet.

Florence Nightingale, however, wanted nothing for herself. All the money she used for her pet purpose—to found a training school for nurses. Queen Victoria gave her every sympathy, and a grateful nation was behind her, so the training school attached to St. Thomas's Hospital at the foot of Westminster Bridge came into being and is a fitting memorial of her mighty work.

When she returned home finally, she set herself to write on reforms needed in both military and civil hospitals at home and abroad, and so terrible were the horrors she described that the Government, after many and long discussions, set about improving their conditions. In 1910 Miss Nightingale died, worn out with her efforts on behalf of others, but having the satisfaction of seeing some of her life's desires accomplished and others about to be undertaken.

In Waterloo Place, London, is erected a beautiful statue of the Lady with the Lamp, inspiring others by her intent and earnest gaze to "go and do likewise."

TEACHING NOTES

1. Compare the conditions under which our wounded were treated then and now.
2. Teach or read "Santa Filomena."
3. Drive home the work of a good and determined woman.

48. THE RELIEF OF LUCKNOW

IN the year 1857 the East India Company was still an important trading company in India. In their service were a number of native soldiers called sepoy. Their officers were British, and generally the sepoy were loyal to them. But for some time there had been discontent over trifles, and the sepoy began plotting against the very masters whom they served.

The sepoy were Hindus and observed certain religious rites. Now to the Hindu the cow is a sacred animal, and no Hindu will kill a cow or eat of its flesh. The story goes that cartridges greased with cow's fat were served out to the sepoy, and this offended these Indian troops. Moreover, the tops of the cartridges would have to be removed with the soldiers' teeth, and thus their lips would come in contact with the cow's fat. The sepoy at Meerut refused, therefore, to touch the ammunition and broke into mutiny. It is felt, however, that the cartridges were the excuse rather than the cause of the mutiny. All the other native soldiers did the same ;

they murdered their officers and marched to Delhi.

The English men and women at Delhi were absolutely at the mercy of the sepoy, for the Government, taken by surprise, could not immediately render assistance. The native Sikhs remained faithful and helped the British to try to keep the flag flying. At *Cawnpore*, the British garrison held out for twenty-one days against the cruel *Nana Sahib*. Then they surrendered under promise that their lives would be spared. But *Nana Sahib* broke his promise, murdered the defenceless men and women, and threw their bodies into a pit. There were only four survivors of this brutal outrage.

Just north-east of *Cawnpore* lies *Lucknow*. It was a British garrison in which were shut up some men, women and children, together with a few faithful native servants. *Sir Henry Lawrence* was in command, and he bravely held out against the enemy, but lost his life in so doing. For eighty-eight days the siege went on, then *Sir Henry Havelock* managed by dint of hard fighting to relieve the garrison for a time. Still the sepoy pressed them, and that noble little band endured the hardships of a siege for one hundred and forty-one days altogether. At last their hearts were cheered and their hopes raised, for they could hear the sound of the British firing outside the garrison. It was *Sir Colin Campbell*, fighting his way through the streets of *Lucknow*, and, together, he and *Havelock* quelled the mutineers.

"The Campbells are coming" was played by the bagpipes as the soldiers triumphantly entered *Lucknow* and relieved the starving garrison.

The mutineers soon fell back from Delhi, and not long afterwards British rule was firmly established once more in India. Then the British Parliament felt that the Government of India should no longer remain in the hands of a trading company, but should come under the rule of the Queen and her Ministers. In 1877 Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India, to the delight of her people, and from that time India became more prosperous and happy.

In the busy city of Cawnpore there has been set up a memorial to the British men, women and children who were massacred by Nana Sahib and his sepoys. The memorial takes the form of a garden in which is a disused well. Over this well is erected a beautiful figure of an angel, in whose hand is the palm of Victory, and round the base of the statue run these words :

"Sacred to the perpetual memory of a great company of Christian People, chiefly women and children, who, near this spot, were cruelly massacred by the followers of the rebel Nana Dhoom-dopunt and cast, the dying and the dead, into the well below on July 15, 1857."

TEACHING NOTES

1. Teach incidentally something of the religion of the Hindu.
2. Emphasise the end of the power of the East India Company.
3. Link up the proclamation of Queen Victoria as Queen-Empress with previous lessons.
4. Read "The Pipes of Lucknow," by Whittier.
5. A blackboard, map and atlases are necessary.

49. GEORGE STEPHENSON

TOWARDS the end of the eighteenth century, clumsy steam-engines were used in the coal-mines for the purpose of pumping out water. In one of these mines, situated a few miles out of Newcastle, an engine-man named Robert Stephenson tended the boiler and fed the fire of a steam-engine. His wages were 12s. per week, and on this he and his wife, and six children managed to live. Certainly food and clothes were cheaper in those days than now, but even so, the Stephensons were wretchedly poor. They all lived in one room, in a little cottage with bare walls and bare floors. It is easily understood, therefore, that much of their time was passed out-of-doors.

One of these children was named George. As a boy he went to the mine daily with his father's dinner, and there he learned, boy-like, to love engines. The rest of the time he minded cows for 2d. per day, and those daily pence were eagerly looked for by the anxious mother. None of the children went to school, for education was not free, neither was it compulsory. At fourteen, George gave up minding the cows and went to work in the mine. Here he assisted his father and tried to learn everything about the engines he loved.

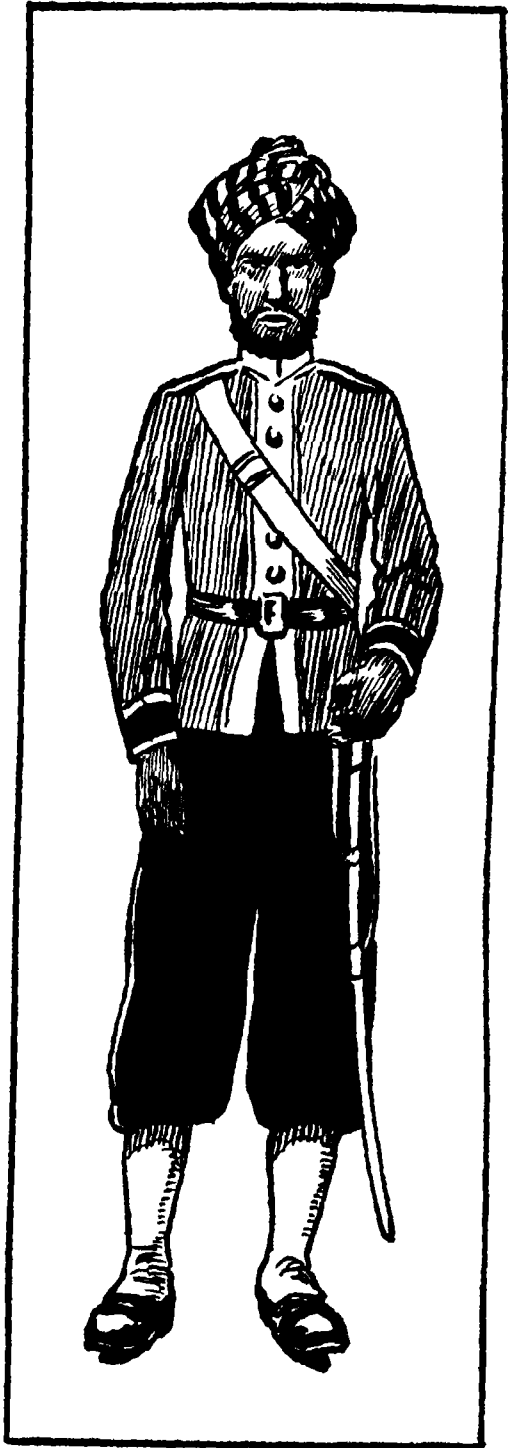
Running past the cottage in which he lived was a tram-track. The rails were made of wood, and on them large horse-drawn carts filled with coal passed along, going from the mine to the boats on the River Tyne. George Stephenson thought that one engine ought to draw many such loads linked together, but years elapsed before

he could turn his thoughts into action.

When he was fifteen he was given charge of a boiler, and at seventeen he was an engineman earning 12s. per week. "Now I am made for life!" he exclaimed on his promotion. However, he determined to work out his own ideas. He went to a night-school, and for the sum of 3d. per week he was taught reading, writing and arithmetic. In any leisure time at his disposal he studied mechanical things. Many people declare that he spent every Saturday in taking an engine to pieces and putting it together again just to see how it worked.

In 1814 George Stephenson, now well-known as an excellent workman, built the engine of which he had always thought and dreamed. It was used by a colliery owner, and it could draw a whole line of wagons along the tram-lines, from the colliery to the River Tyne, at the rate of fourteen miles per hour. A few years before, a steam-engine had been in use in Wales, but it could travel at only five miles an hour. Then it broke down and everybody thought it a huge joke. When Stephenson's engine was first used people marvelled, for they thought that the greatest wonder of the world had at last arrived, and surely nothing could ever beat it. But Stephenson felt it to be only a beginning of the mighty inventions to come.

Eight years afterwards he heard that a horse tram-line was to be built to run from Stockton to Darlington. So he proposed that the coal trucks should be drawn by a steam-engine. After several long delays the line was built, and it was opened on September 25th, 1825. The engine drew thirty-four



A SEPOY

trucks at fifteen miles an hour, and a month afterwards a passenger coach was added to it.

The coach carried twenty-six passengers, six inside and twenty outside, and this was the first railway-line in the world to carry passengers. Everyone thought the people were great heroes to risk their lives on such a terrible and dirty machine.

At that time the canal between Liverpool and Manchester was used to carry goods and coal between those towns. Some merchants offered a prize for the best engine which could draw heavy goods to and fro upon a railroad. George Stephenson competed among three others; two of the engines broke down and the other side-tracked. But his engine, "The Rocket," ran at the rate of over thirty miles per hour, and was suitable for drawing both goods and passengers, so he won the prize. There was tremendous excitement when the new railway-line was opened in 1830. Large crowds went to see it and were much impressed by the speed of the engine. The Duke of Wellington, then Prime Minister, journeyed to Lancashire to witness the ceremony, taking with him a party, among whom was his Colonial Secretary, Mr. Huskisson. The latter was accidentally knocked down and killed, so the success of the day was sadly marred.

The next twenty years saw great strides in railway development. At first, the first-class passengers put their luggage on the top of the coach and could sit there with it if they chose; usually, however, they sat inside. The second-class passengers had only an awning over their heads. Before 1844 there was no third-class passenger

accommodation, but such passengers could travel with the cattle and coal if they wished. When third-class accommodation was made, there were no seats, but the passengers stood crowded together in trucks, swaying as the train swayed, and getting wet and cold if the weather was inclement. They were often covered with smuts from the engine, and many carried veils in their pockets, to wear as they passed through the tunnels.

The travelling conditions of to-day are *luxurious* as compared with those times, yet the railways are not considered by any means perfect, and improvements are continually being suggested and introduced. Steam is fast giving place to electricity, even on long routes. Seats are cushioned; carriages are ventilated, lighted and heated; the second-class carriages are no longer in use, and on long-distance trains there are restaurants and lavatories.

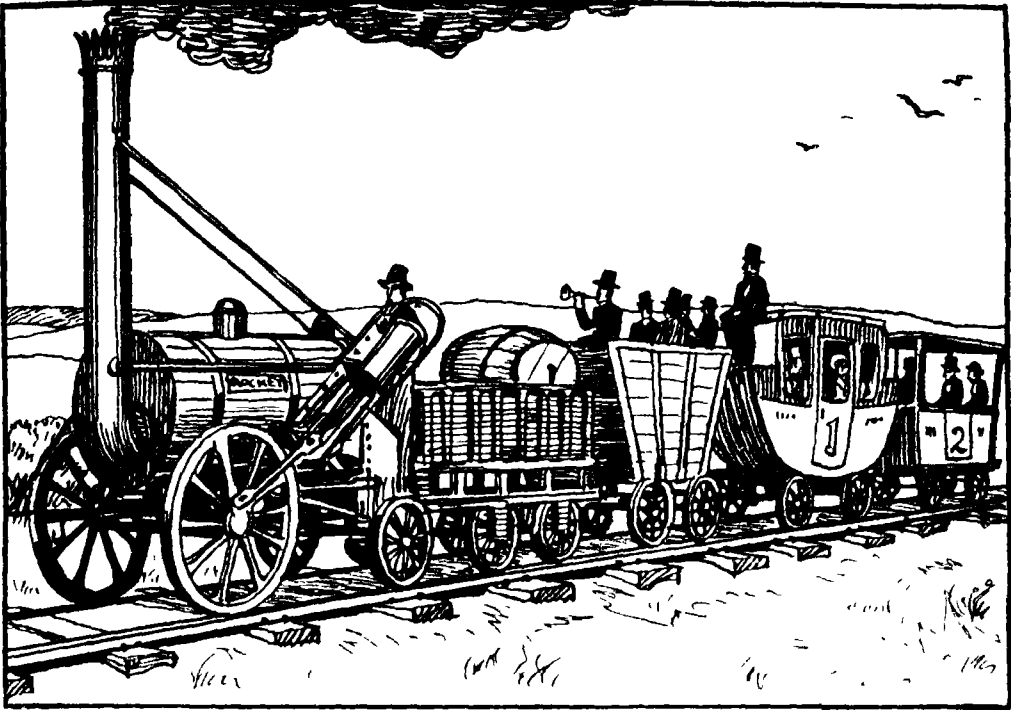
George Stephenson died in 1848, a rich and famous man.

In the midst of his fame and riches, he loved to snatch a day for gardening or nutting, and he still took a great interest in watching the birds at work or play in the garden of his country house.

His life is "a record of determined purpose, industry and sagacity."

50. THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA

AT the beginning of the nineteenth century there were both British and Dutch (Boers) in South Africa. The British had succeeded in turning out the Dutch governor from the Cape,



A TRAIN IN STEPHENSON'S DAY.

Before 1844 there was no third-class passenger accommodation, but such passengers could travel with the cattle and coal if they wished. When third-class accommodation was introduced, there were no seats provided, and the passengers got cold and wet in inclement weather, besides being covered with smuts.

but the Dutch settlers remained under British law. The country was wild, uncultivated and uncivilised, but the sturdy Dutch farmers and plucky British tried their utmost to make some sort of a living. They worked with slave labour at this time, and often a Boer estate would be next to that of a British. The Boers, however, never liked the ascendancy of the British, and many of them began to "trek" to other parts and open up new country.

In 1833 the Act was passed freeing all the slaves in Britain and British Colonies. In South Africa alone 30,000 slaves were set free. The Boers did not like this, so they began a huge "trek" across the Orange River

in order to get away from British authority. Some settled in the Orange Free State and some in Natal. Here they met the Zulus, and desperate fights took place between Boers and Zulus. After some years the British took Natal and made it a British Colony, and the Zulus became faithful and peaceful workers. Wherever the Boers went there was trouble with the natives because the Boers tried to treat them as slaves. At last they "trekked" over the Vaal River and formed the Transvaal Colony. Again they came into conflict with the Zulus and their chief, Cetewayo. Then the British came to the rescue, and in 1877 the Transvaal became a Republic under British protection.

For some time things went on peaceably; then misunderstandings arose, chiefly because the language and customs of the British and Boer were entirely different, and constant quarrelling ensued, till in 1880 the Transvaal declared its independence and set up a Republic under Paul Kruger as President.

Then gold was discovered; crowds of new settlers came to the Transvaal, and the Colony developed rapidly. The old Boer settlers resented their coming and called them "Uitlanders" (foreigners). The new-comers were forced to pay big taxes, but were not allowed any political power. This foolish policy of the Boers was bound to bring trouble, and in 1895 some of the chief "Uitlanders" determined to throw over the existing form of Government in the Transvaal and set up one of their own, in which they could take a part.

It was then that Dr. Jameson came to Johannesburg with a force of 500 men. There was a skirmish, in which the Boers were successful. Now this raid caused much bitterness of feeling; moreover, Dr. Jameson was wrong, because he had acted without permission from the British Government.

One of our great Empire-builders during this period was Cecil Rhodes. He determined that Kruger should not take the rich gold-country north of the Zambesi, so he made friends with the native King, Lobengula, whom Dr. Jameson had cured of gout. The dusky monarch allowed the British to dig for gold in his territory. Numbers of settlers flocked there and, under the directorship of Mr. Rhodes, turned the country into a busy hive of miners. Some years afterwards Lobengula died

and his lands were added to the British Empire under the name of Rhodesia.

In 1899 the Uitlanders petitioned Her Majesty Queen Victoria to redress their grievances, and Lord Milner met Mr. Kruger, the Boer President of the Transvaal, to talk over matters. Mr. Kruger would not grant equality of citizenship between Briton and Boer, and prepared for war. He determined to free the Transvaal from British suzerainty, and the Orange Free State joined with him. In 1899 war broke out, and the Boers invaded Natal.

For over two years the war dragged wearily on, with victory sometimes for the Boers, sometimes for the British. Our great difficulty was getting sufficient troops from England to South Africa in time to help the loyal British in Natal. Moreover, when the troops arrived, the country was so rugged, transport so difficult, and distances between places so enormous, that our men encountered great hardships. On the other hand, the ruggedness of the country helped somewhat, from the fact that a small number of men, entrenched behind mountainous parts, could hold a position with comparative safety for a long period. The names of great generals such as White, Methuen, Gatacre and Buller were famous during the early encounters with the Boers. Then Lord Roberts was sent to take command, and Lord Kitchener went with him as chief of his staff.

The whole of the British Empire now began to realise that a desperate struggle was taking place in South Africa, not only to keep the Flag flying, but also to stop the tyranny of the Boers. From Australia, Canada, New Zealand and India came England's sons, eager to answer the call of the

Mother Country. With the coming to Africa of Roberts, Kitchener and French, new hope was given to the British. At last General Buller was able to open a way to *Ladysmith*, where General White and his starving men had gallantly withstood a siege which had lasted for 119 days. It was with a prayer of thankfulness that the gallant general received Lord Dundonald, who galloped into the starving town, with the news that Ladysmith was at last "relieved." The rejoicings all over the Empire were tremendous.

A few months afterwards *Mafeking* also was relieved, having withstood a siege of eight months under General Baden-Powell (now the great Scout-master), and there were more Empire rejoicings. Then Lord Roberts pushed on to Pretoria, the capital of the Transvaal, and President Kruger fled. Fighting still went on, but with continued success for the British. In the autumn of the same year the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony (formerly "Free State") became a part of the British Empire.

Lord Roberts returned home, and Lord Kitchener remained to quell the guerilla warfare which was now carried on under the Boer leader De Wet. It was not till early in 1902 that offers of peace came from the Boers, and in May, peace was signed at Pretoria.

Then the British Government did a wise thing. It gave the Transvaal its own responsible Parliament (1906), and so it became a self-governing colony of the British Empire. Since then Briton and Boer have worked together in accord, and the colony has prospered. In 1907 General Botha—the Boer

commander-in-chief—attended a conference in London as the Transvaal's first Prime Minister, and showed himself to be a man of great tact and common sense. General Smuts accompanied him. The people of the Transvaal rapidly came to see that it was to their advantage to be under British rule, and so great had grown their loyalty by the end of that year that they presented to King Edward VII (who succeeded Queen Victoria in 1901) the famous Cullinan diamond.

"Fair is our lot—oh, goodly is our heritage!
(Humble ye, my people, and be fearful in
your mirth!)

For the Lord our God most High,
He hath made the deep as dry;
He hath smote for us a pathway to the
ends of all the Earth!

"Keep ye the law—be swift in all obedience—

Clear the land of evil, drive the road and
bridge the ford.

Make ye sure to each his own
That he reap where he hath sown;
By the peace among our peoples, let men
know we fear the Lord!"

"Britons Across the Sea."—KIPLING.

TEACHING NOTES

1. A map for every child and a blackboard map for the teacher are necessary.

2. The object of this section is to teach (a) the growth of a great and prosperous colony under humane treatment, and the turning of enemies into loyal friends; (b) some historical, geographical and economic facts about Africa.

51. KING EDWARD AND QUEEN ALEXANDRA

QUEEN VICTORIA and the Prince Consort had nine children. The eldest was the Princess Royal and the second child was Albert Edward.

Prince of Wales. The Princess Royal afterwards became the Empress of Germany. She was always the Prince of Wales's favourite sister, and this affection lasted through all their lives.

Although Prince Edward did not appear so brilliant in the schoolroom as his beloved sister "Vicky," yet he displayed other gifts most valuable to the future monarch of a great Empire.

He early took a great interest in the every-day life of the people. He entered into their amusements; he learned about their work; he became acquainted with their sorrows. For instance, he knew of the worries of the London cab drivers, whose frequent patron he was, and tried to better the conditions under which they worked. At another time he worked on a commission for the better housing of the working classes. He made only one speech in the House of Lords, and that was to tell the Peers that he had just visited "two of the poorest courts in St. Pancras and Holborn, where I can assure your lordships that the condition of the poor, or rather of their dwellings, was perfectly disgraceful." Later on he visited Lambeth Workhouse to find out first-hand the conditions of the workhouse system. The Prince's great and lasting desire was "to be of use."

In order to understand our relations with other countries, he travelled extensively in Europe and tried to bring about friendship between Great Britain and the Continent. He was most anxious that we should be friendly with Russia and Germany. Kaiser Wilhelm II was his nephew, and at times did not appear very kindly

disposed towards his uncle, but the Prince did his utmost to keep the two countries on friendly terms.

He was particularly fond of France, and visited Paris frequently. He spoke the language fluently, and lived among the Parisians as one of them. They admired and even loved him, and it was due to this affection that the "Entente Cordiale" came into being. It was a compact of friendship between England and France. It exists at the present day and we hope will exist for all time.

When the Prince was twenty-two he married Alexandra, daughter of the King of Denmark (1863). She was but a girl of nineteen when she left her native home and came to England as a bride. The British people immediately took her to their hearts. She was as beautiful in character as she was in face, and during all her long life she gave herself up wholly to the well-being of her beloved adopted country. As a young bride, as a Queen and as the Queen-mother, her graciousness and goodness spread their influence around. Thousands of kindly deeds can be ascribed to her, but one is outstanding in the hearts of the Empire. She instituted "Rose-day," which is held annually on June 26th.

On that day she used to drive in an open carriage through London in order to encourage the sale of artificial roses made in the disabled soldiers' workshops. The profits from the sale are given to further the work of the hospitals. The idea spread all over the Empire, and on "Rose-day" there is scarcely a man, woman or child, white or dusky, who is without a rose. After her death, "Rose-day" was continued in reverent and affec-

tionate memory of a good and gracious Queen.

The Prince and Princess of Wales had to carry out the Court and State functions for many years in place of Queen Victoria who, after the death of her husband, appeared less and less in public. She died in 1901 and Prince Edward became King Edward VII of England at the age of fifty-nine.

We were then just near the end of the Boer War, and 1902 saw the real finish of it. The King's love of peace immediately began to make itself felt. Not only did he seal the "Entente Cordiale," but he made similar alliances with Japan and Russia. He also became friendly with the United States of America and, with peace at home and abroad, the country began to recover from the costly Boer War, and to prosper. Men's thoughts turned from slaughter to study and invention, and although telegrams, telephones and electric light were inventions of Queen Victoria's reign, it was in the peace-loving age of Edward VII that great progress was made in the use of them.

Electricity was applied to tram-cars and trains. The Prince of Wales (now King George V) opened the first electric tram-way route in South London, standing with the driver as the tram-car was driven through the crowded streets. Telegraph messages were sent for the first time without wires. This method of communication is known as "*wireless telegraphy*," and its instruments are now part of the equipment of every ship and light-house. Mr. Marconi was the first to send a wireless message across the Atlantic; now its use over all the

world is not only a great help in trade, but has also been the means of saving numberless lives at sea.

Flying machines, too, began to appear, and the first flight from England to France was made by a Britisher, Mr. Rolls (1910), although M. Blériot had flown from France to England the year before.

In 1910, to the great grief of the British Empire and of the whole world, King Edward the Peacemaker died after a short but brilliant reign of only nine years.

Our present sovereign, George V, succeeded him. His goodness and that of his Consort, Queen Mary, together with the kindness of their children are well known and ever before us.

TEACHING NOTES

Bring out specially: (1) the world-wide spread of peace under the tactful sway of King Edward VII; (2) The prosperity which peace must bring.

52. A GREAT GENERAL: EARL HAIG

ONE of the greatest soldiers the British Empire has ever had was Field-Marshal General Haig. As a fair-haired, blue-eyed schoolboy he showed remarkable tenacity of purpose, and the keynote to all his work was thoroughness.

He was educated at Clifton College, and throughout his life he remained faithful to his old school. When the Prince of Wales opened its new science buildings in 1927, Earl Haig was there, full of quiet enthusiasm for the well-being of his college.

He left Clifton to go to Brasenose College, Oxford, and then he went to Sandhurst to prepare for the career so dear to his heart from boyhood days.

He served in the Sudan Campaign (1898) and the South African War (1900) and knew India well. Wherever he served, he gained golden opinions from everyone for his power to find the solution to a difficulty, and his quiet determination to work it out successfully.

When the great European War broke out (1914) he sailed for France in command of the First Army Corps.

From the very beginning of this terrible war, his firmness, calmness and modesty inspired those under him with confidence, and did much to keep up the courage of his men in their darkest hours.

In the spring of 1918, Haig had to defend his troops against a terrific German attack. Just before the battle he issued this famous message to the men, already fatigued with hard fighting:

"Words fail me to express the admiration which I feel for the splendid resistance offered by all ranks of our Army under the most trying circumstances.

"Many among us now are tired. To those I would say that victory will belong to the side which holds out the longest.

"The French Army is moving rapidly and in great force to our support.

"There is no other course open to us but to fight it out. Every position must be held to the last man; there must be no retirement.

"With our backs to the wall, and believing in the justice of our cause, each one of us must fight on to the end.

"The safety of our homes and the freedom of mankind depend alike upon the conduct of each one of us at this critical moment."

In 1918, when the Allies combined under one leader, General Foch, against their common foe, so great was the confidence with which Haig inspired the officers and men, both British and French, that the French Commander never failed to act in consultation with him, and the following are the latter's own words, written in January 1928, when the English General died:

"In Field-Marshal Earl Haig we have lost one of the outstanding figures of the Great War. He knew the task he had to accomplish, and he knew how to make his soldiers carry it out.

"Haig and I did not have many very personal or intimate conversations. He did not speak French and I did not speak English. Our conversations, which dealt solely with questions relating to the conduct of the war, were carried on through the medium of an interpreter.

"But I can give the greatest tribute to his magnificent soldierly qualities."

The tide of the battle turned, and victory after victory fell to the Allied Forces, till on November 11th, 1918, an armistice was signed.

From the date of the armistice, Haig devoted all his thoughts and activities to the welfare of the soldiers who had marched under his lead to such surprising glory. He strove night and day to aid them, to raise money for them, to secure them honourable employment. From his own means he gave them aid with a noble generosity.

On January 1st, 1917, he had been created Field-Marshal, and in 1919 he was created Earl Haig of Bemersyde and received a grant of £100,000 from the nation.

He refused, however, to accept any honour until he saw that the men

and officers were being properly and adequately dealt with.

Honours of every kind were showered upon him, and he deserved them. Among these was the grant of the Order of Merit, which was instituted by King Edward as a mark of special distinction, and restricted to twenty-four holders.

A remarkable story is told which reveals Earl Haig's deeply religious character and his calmness in face of possible disaster. The narrator says:

"Out in France Earl Haig attended service regularly at a little wooden hut which served as Presbyterian Church at G.H.Q. He was never absent if in the neighbourhood, but on that black Sunday following the outbreak of the great German offensive in March 1918, I realised that he could not be with us. He dared not leave his desk, I felt, or more probably he had gone forward to direct operations.

"I could not believe my eyes when he appeared outside, as calm and resolute as ever. We shook hands in silence, and, scarcely knowing what I said, I expressed the hope that things were not too bad.

"Quietly, but reassuringly, he replied, 'They will never be too bad.'

"And then he said, in language of a kind which I had never heard him use before—for though he lived his religion, he did not talk about it—'This is what you once read to us from second Chronicles: "Be not afraid nor dismayed by reason of this great multitude; for the battle is not yours, but God's" (2 Chronicles, ch. 20. v. 15).'

"With these words he passed into the church."

Lord Haig married in 1905 a maid of honour to Queen Alexandra.

The wedding breakfast took place at Buckingham Palace. King Edward sat at the head of one table and Queen Alexandra at the head of the other.

Lord Haig's health never recovered from the arduous strain of the war and the grave and terrible decisions which he had so constantly to make.

On January 28th, 1928, he attended the enrolment ceremony of the 20th (Earl Haig's Own) Troop of Boy Scouts at Richmond, Surrey, formed for the sons of disabled ex-Service men employed at the British Legion factory, which Earl Haig founded there.

His last words to the Scouts were:

"Stand up for England when people speak disrespectfully of her. Try and realise what citizenship and public spirit can really mean."

Two days afterwards (on January 30th) he died very suddenly.

It was the nation's wish that he should be buried in St. Paul's Cathedral beside the great soldier, the Duke of Wellington, and the famous sailor, Lord Nelson. But his own wishes were that he should lie in the peaceful precincts of the beautiful Scottish home, Bemersyde, which a grateful nation had purchased for him.

After a most impressive service in Westminster Abbey, at which the Prince of Wales, the Duke of York, Marshal Foch, Marshal Pétain, Lord Jellicoe, Earl Beatty and others were present and where all the world was represented, his body was taken to the

quiet country home in Scotland, and there, in the presence of his family, he was laid to rest in a poppy-lined grave. Such an end was in keeping with his work, for the poppy is the emblem of the British Legion, which he founded, and for which, as its President, he worked constantly and arduously. Millions of poppies are made in the workshops of the British Legion, and are sold on "Poppy Day" for the benefit of the men whose cause Earl Haig had so much at heart.

BEMERSYDE, FEBRUARY 1928

BY LORD DARLING

"Not Paul's high domé, nor Peter's stately
roof
His grave shall guard from winter's snow
and rain
But as he lived, in open fields aloof,
Lay the dead soldier by dear Tweed again."

TEACHING NOTES

The object of this lesson should be, not so much the progress and results of the European War, as the work and influence of a great and good man.

CONCLUSION

"IF the course is well arranged, the pupil by the age of 11 or 12 should have gained some acquaintance with the outstanding figures of history in their chronological succession." (Board of Education's "Suggestions.") The Junior Section of this book is intended to take in the whole course of English history, and present its chief events through the prominent persons of all periods. It is designed

to meet the requirements of children between the ages of 8 and 11 (or 12). And the matter is presented chiefly through biography. Disraeli once said: "Read biography; that is the only true history." It is a bold assertion, but it contains a large amount of truth. The facts of history can be best taught and remembered if they are hung on definite pegs, and the best pegs are human pegs.

SPECIMEN LESSONS

(Some of the models have sufficient material for two or more lessons according to the time allowed for each)

A STORY OF BIBLE DAYS: JOSEPH

APPARATUS

1. Large blackboard ; map of Palestine ; atlases—one for each child if possible.
2. Coloured pictures and prints of biblical times ; these should be of a size easily handled.
3. Piece of coarse home-spun, and another of finer weave interwoven with bright colours, to explain somewhat the difference in the coats of Joseph and his brethren.
4. Bibles—one for each pupil.

Subject-matter.	Method of Presentation.
<i>Refer to text.</i>	
1. <i>Joseph's native land.</i> —Genesis, chap. 37.	Teacher to use large map, and pupils their atlases, in order that the latter may understand the relative positions of their own country, Palestine and Egypt.
2. <i>His home life : father, brothers, the beautiful coat.</i> —Genesis, chap. 37.	(a) Use coloured pictures to help the vividness of description. Small coloured prints, which can be passed round the class, are obtainable separately or in cheap book form from the R.T.S., London, R.S.P.C.K., London, and other firms. (b) Picture the envy of the ten brothers when they saw Joseph's coat. Their coats were plain and homely. Note simple hand manufactures of the times. Point out moral of harbouring bad thoughts towards others. (See Board of Education's " Suggestions.")
3. <i>Reuben.</i> —Genesis, chap. 37.	(a) Eldest, more sensible, remembered he belonged to a noble race—the Jews. He persuaded brothers to forgo murder, but was too jealous to lead them entirely from the wrong path. So compromised to quieten his own conscience. (b) Notice the pit was dry ; they did not wish to drown their brother.
4. <i>The Ishmeelites.</i> —Genesis, chap. 37.	(a) Describe these merchants, and their camels laden with wares. (b) Trace their journey on the map. (c) Emphasise the slave trade and notice that money was used even in those early days—nearly four thousand years ago. (d) Picture the Ishmeelites examining the youth to see how much he was worth to them. Describe his nine brothers—for Reuben seems to have moved away for a few moments—<i>counting</i> eagerly the silver coins received, and possibly <i>dividing</i> them among themselves—they understood simple arithmetic. (e) Picture, too, Reuben's distress when he missed Joseph.

Subject-matter.	Method of Presentation.
5. <i>Jacob's grief</i> .—Genesis, chap. 37.	5. Tell of Jacob's grief when he learned that his favourite son was killed by a wild beast. Picture him handling the blood-stained coat. Show how one lie led to another, and point out how ashamed the brothers must have felt when they witnessed the aged father's grief.
6. <i>Joseph's career</i> . (1) With Potiphar.—Genesis, chap. 39.	6. (1) (a) Tell of his hard and loyal work for Potiphar and the deserved reward. (b) Tell of his imprisonment, but omit the stories of Potiphar's wife, the butler, etc. They can be told in the Scripture lesson if necessary. (c) Notice specially Joseph's great day: the King sent for him; he shaved himself—how? This is specially interesting (d) Note his gift of interpreting dreams.
(2) With Pharaoh.—Genesis, chap. 41.	(2) (a) Picture Pharaoh—the great King of Egypt—receiving and listening to Joseph. The King gave him a ring—so the Egyptians made and wore jewellery. Note the chain and robes of office. The pupils know of others who wear chains and robes of office—mayors. The King and Queen wear special robes and jewels when opening Parliament. Ministers wear Court dress when attending certain Court functions. (b) Describe vividly the store-houses—made of stone, perhaps with strong wooden doors; must be dry and air-tight or corn would mildew or sprout. (c) Point out the Nile on the map. Describe how it periodically overflows its banks. When the water subsides, rich, alluvial soil remains, in which corn will grow abundantly. (d) Point the moral of "saving for a rainy day." Jacob in Canaan had not been warned of the famine and so did not store. (e) Note, too, that: (1) The Egyptians used <i>money</i> with which to purchase the corn; (2) when all their money was used up they had to part with their belongings; (3) when they had parted with money and belongings to Pharaoh, Joseph gave them land to cultivate for which they had to pay <i>rent</i> in kind.
7. <i>Joseph's brethren</i> .—Genesis, chaps. 42–5 and 47.	7. (a) Explain clearly why his brethren came to Egypt. Benjamin's absence—why? Joseph not recognised—why? Describe how the corn was taken away—in sacks on asses. (b) Their return—note the present to Joseph—produce from their own land. Note, too, double payment—in times of scarcity, things are dear; in times of plenty, cheap. (c) Picture Joseph's delight at seeing his brethren again. Note his steward, his silver cup—proofs of the rich style in which he lived. (d) Picture the astonishment and delight of the brothers when Joseph revealed himself; their anxiety to go to tell Jacob their father.

Subject-matter.

Method of Presentation.

Joseph's brethren.—Genesis, chaps. 42-5 and 47—*continued.*

(e) Note, again, proofs of the riches and high position of Joseph; the generous presents to his family; his chariot and servants.

(f) Emphasise: (1) That in spite of his riches, he was not ashamed of his family, who were not well off; (2) that he returned good for evil; (3) that he forgave and forgot all past unkindness.

8. *Jacob.*—Genesis, chaps. 45 and 47.

8. (a) Picture the meeting of father and son.

(b) Point out that people migrate to those parts which afford them a living, hence Jacob gladly settled in Goshen.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. Joseph at home with his brothers; their occupation; description of the land of Canaan.
2. The coat—different from brothers' garments; who made it?
3. Reuben; character, influence.
4. Ishmeelite merchants; their occupations; any other facts about them.
5. Joseph in Egypt (a) with Potiphar; (b) with Pharaoh.
6. Joseph's wisdom and what he did for Pharaoh and the Egyptians.
7. The famine in all the land.
8. Joseph's brethren in Egypt (a) to buy corn; (b) to settle.
9. Special lessons learned from Joseph's life.

KING ALFRED

APPARATUS

1. Atlases, and large map of England in Alfred's time. If not procurable, sketch one on blackboard.
2. Pictures of Alfred, a Saxon, a Dane ("Northman"), a Danish ship, an Anglo-Saxon ship, a harp of the ninth century, standards, shields, spears, writing implements of the times, Uffington's "white horse," etc.
3. A candle evenly divided by coloured circles.
4. A large blackboard for noting salient points and short summaries. (See notes for pupils at end.)

Subject-matter.

Method of Presentation.

See text.

1. *Alfred's home.*

Use map and atlases, point out Wantage—why "royal"? Picture happy home life; Ethelwulf, the wise King and good father; Osburh, the devoted, clever mother. Father often worried with State affairs—raids of Danes. Use maps and pictures freely; show difference in Danish and Anglo-Saxon ships; describe Danes; picture the terror of the English when they saw this new enemy coming; trace the inroads of the Danes and how repulsed by the roused English.

Subject-matter.	Method of Presentation.
2. <i>His youth.</i> Travels. Education. Activities.	2. Alfred's visit to Rome—the long journey for a child so young ; his endurance and pluck. The second visit ; knowledge imbibed, even unconsciously, by travel ; cf. such journeys, then and now. His love of study. The Queen's prize will appeal to class. Home education, tutor—no schools ; cf. the education of the royal children to-day. St. Swithin's Day—an interesting point. Alfred's activities—riding, shooting (with what ?), music (harp).
<i>As King.</i> The Danish raids. The King, a wanderer in his own country. Temporary peace. Fresh Danish raids.	3. Maps needed ; point out part governed by the young King, and by his brother. (a) Trace incursions of Danes. Alfred's brother defeated ; his death ; Alfred, King of all Wessex. Trace Alfred's wanderings in Somerset ; tell vividly his adventure in the Danish camp, and the famous cake story. Both will help to fix some points of Alfred's fine personality in the minds of the pupils. (b) Emphasise the patience and courage of the Devon men ; Alfred takes heart from them. Show a picture of the White Horse of Uffington, and point out the route of the G.W.R. (c) Use maps to point out the English and Danish settlements north and south of the Ouse. (d) <i>English Navy founded.</i> Show pictures of our galleys and the Danish ships ; educe points of difference. (e) Alfred's wisdom—studied and made laws. Describe the <i>Witan</i> very simply—advisers, why necessary. Describe the "Old English Chronicle," how written ; cf. printing and writing of to-day, books, etc. Show picture of an old manuscript if possible. Describe the <i>Candle-clock</i> ; deduce : King—clever and methodical.
4. <i>Alfred's character.</i>	4. Elicit his character from what has already been taught : (a) <i>as a boy</i>—studious, observant, persevering ; (b) <i>as a man</i>—religious ; unselfish—everything done for the good of his people ; patient, courageous, peace-loving, wise, resourceful, diligent. Pupils to give points and examples, both of (a) and (b). Draw moral lessons.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

Alfred as a boy.—His home, travels, education, character

Alfred as a King.—His lands ; the Danes, how and why they came ; Alfred's defeat and wanderings ; his successes. Peace.

What Alfred did for England and why called "The Great."—The Navy ; laws ; the "Old English Chronicle" ; Time-keeping.

Alfred's character.—Lessons to be learned.

KING JOHN AND THE GREAT CHARTER

APPARATUS

1. Map of England and Wales.
2. Picture of King John signing the Charter.
3. Photogravures of the Great Charter.
4. Parchment and seals or drawings of latter.

Subject-matter.

Method of Presentation.

See text.

1. *The unsettled state of the country.* Refer to Richard at the Crusades ; inference : master away, work often gets behind, but depends on who is in charge ; draw moral lesson.
2. *John and the barons.*
 - (a) Sketch character of John from boyhood to accession. Show why the English hoped for more settled times under John and why they were disappointed.
 - (b) Tell simply the story of the quarrel between the barons and the King. Introduce Stephen Langton, who he was, and his share in the meeting which the bishops, barons and merchants called.
3. *The Great Charter.*
 - (a) Show position of Runnymede on the map ; explain : the King was staying at the royal residence, Windsor ; the barons were at Staines. No Parliament in those days ; refer to our King. (See text : Simon de Montfort)
 - (b) Show picture of tent erected for reception of King ; point out the royal banner above it, together with the banner of the nobles and barons. Why ? In front, the throne on a dais. Point out the golden lions of England ; where else have pupils seen these ? Refer to Royal Standard ; when does it fly over Buckingham Palace ? When over other buildings ?
 - (c) Point out the angry King, sitting sullenly on the throne ; near by the calm but firm bishops, barons, nobles, merchants. Note, by means of picture, the distinctive garments of each. Point out the representatives of the Church specially. (" Church and State.")
4. *Its clauses.*
 - (a) Picture the monk slowly and clearly reading the Charter to the King ; refer to the learning of the monks—they were teachers, and the monasteries were schools.
 - (b) Read the clauses *as given in text* to the class. Point out the justice of them and emphasise that they hold to this day.

Note the King had to have the consent of his Council if he wished to raise taxes. This, too, holds good to-day.
5. *The signing.*
 - (a) Picture the King refusing—obstinate ; those round him—firm.

King's fear—gives way ; his seal put, midst breathless silence.

 - (b) Show photograph of copy of Charter, point out seals ; mention King's seals necessary on all charters. Mention seals on other documents, why necessary—to make them binding.
 - (c) Other kings have signed " The Great Charter "—why ?
 - (d) Mention British Museum. Suggest a visit.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. The reasons why England was in an unsettled state.
2. The nobles' and the barons' grievances against King John.
3. Stephen Langton and his work.
4. The two chief clauses of the Great Charter.

THE PLAGUE AND THE FIRE OF LONDON

APPARATUS

1. Pictures of Old London and of the Fire.
2. Map of England.
3. Map of London.
4. Pictures of St. Paul's before and after the Fire.

Subject-matter.

Method of Presentation.

*See text.*1. *Streets of London in 1665.*

- (a) Show pictures. Contrast with modern streets and houses.
- (b) Cf. drainage then and now. Even in early Stuart period, gutters were open sewers. Where are the sewers now? Where do they discharge?
- (c) Contrast *interiors* of houses then and now. Note our bathrooms, offices, receptacles for rubbish, etc. Recall the weekly (or more frequent) visit of the dustman; refuse thrown into streets previously. Draw attention to our ceilings, walls, artistic papers, large windows, fire-places, lighting, etc.

2. *The Plague.*

- (a) Summer of 1665 very hot and dry. Bonfires lighted in the streets at night to burn the germs. A hot summer would not alarm us now—why? The plague came from East; often prevalent there—why? Sometimes breaks out in the East now—why?
- (b) Describe a few details—not too harrowing; but merely to portray what can happen in surroundings of dirt and warmth combined. Point moral.
- (c) Note Charles II and his court went from Whitehall to Oxford. Trace the journey on the map—how did he travel?

3. *The Fire.*

- (a) Use map of London and trace progress of fire. Educe the reason of its fury.
- (b) Show pictures of the citizens helping to put out the fire; elicit no fire brigades. Show pictures of others fleeing with their goods or taking refuge in the barges on the Thames. Cf. Thames then and now at London.
- (c) Notice: people camped *in the fields*; cf. contrast with the London of to-day.

4. *Results.*

- (a) Elicit fire burnt up the germs of disease together with the germ-laden houses—a good thing really.
- (b) Educe: a new London; show pictures, e.g. St. Paul's, before and after the fire. Mention Wren, and suggest a visit to the Cathedral at some future time; also to the "Monument," and to the London Museum.
- (c) Mention Pepys' shorthand diaries as the chief source of our knowledge of the Plague and Fire. Refer to other diaries or chronicles, e.g. King Alfred's "Chronicles," of which children already know; our own diaries. Notice that Pepys wrote a system of shorthand.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. Description of London in early Stuart period.
2. The Plague and why it broke out.
3. The Fire, where it raged and the good purpose it served.
4. Diaries and notes; their uses.

WOLFE

APPARATUS

1. Portrait of Charles Wolfe.
2. Picture of his memorial in Westminster Abbey.
3. Portrait of Montcalm.
4. Map of North America.
5. Atlases for pupils.
6. Pictures of Red Indians and their homes.
7. Copy of Longfellow's "Hiawatha."
8. Copy of Gray's "Elegy."

Subject-matter.

Method of Presentation.

*Refer to text.*1. *Early life.*

(a) A picture of Wolfe as a standard-bearer would awaken much interest at this point.

(b) Arouse interest by telling something of Wolfe's early life and inclinations.

2. *Events leading up to the conquest of Canada.*

(a) Touch on previous lesson on the "Pilgrim Fathers."

(b) Explain simply how Canada was named by a Frenchman, show pictures of wigwams; read a few stanzas from Longfellow's "Hiawatha."

(c) Quebec, too, named by a Frenchman; explain.

(d) Explain why the English and French quarrelled—outline very simply (the text is for the teacher's information).

3. *The storming of Quebec.*

(a) Reasons for Wolfe being chosen to lead the British Army—note only thirty-two years old.

(b) Teach name of Montcalm, the brave French General.

(c) Draw rapidly on blackboard a simple sketch to explain impregnable position of Quebec. Use atlases and large map freely. Be particularly graphic here.

(d) Picture Wolfe packing his men in the boats and sailing in the first one to the little cove. Use sketch to show how accomplished. Tell how he whispered the beautiful words from Gray's "Elegy." Read the verse. Ask why Wolfe said, "I would rather," etc. The pupils' answers should be interesting. Draw moral lesson: "the pen is mightier than the sword," i.e. beautiful writings—prose or poetry—can reach further and have a more lasting influence for good than war.

(e) Tell vividly how Wolfe and his men climbed the heights of Abraham; how he died.

(f) Read the beautiful message of the dying Montcalm to his defeated soldiers; draw the inference: that England was gaining the respect of other countries by her treatment of defeated foes.

(g) Show how England has carried out the hopes of Montcalm; dwell on the present prosperity of the Dominion of Canada. The yearly emigration of boys and girls from England, by the help of various societies, should be of interest and use.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. Early life of Wolfe; why he became a soldier.
2. How Canada got its name; and Quebec.
3. The quarrel between the English and French; how it was settled.
4. The scaling of the "Heights of Abraham"; Wolfe's last words; Montcalm's last words.
5. The results of the battle (a) for Quebec; (b) for Canada.

GEORGE STEPHENSON

APPARATUS

1. Portraits of George Stephenson ; as a boy, as a man.
2. Pictures of " The Rocket " ; a train of Stephenson's day ; a train of to-day.
3. Pictures of railway stations then and now. (Liverpool and Manchester Railway Co. might possibly send posters.)
4. Map of England and Wales. Atlases for pupils.
5. Pictures of coal mines, then and now (above and below surface).

Subject-matter.

Method of Presentation.

See text.

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|---|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>Early life.</i> 2. <i>At work in the mine.</i> 3. <i>His first engine.</i> 4. <i>The first railway.</i> 5. <i>The first goods and passenger train.</i> 6. <i>Results of his invention.</i> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. (a) Interest class in Stephenson's early life ; picture the father and mother with the large family and tiny income ; the mean cottage ; the surroundings, and so on. In latter connection, let pupils find Newcastle on map and use pictures to help with description of environs.
(b) Word-paint the daily round of the boy George ; also the tram-line running past the cottage ; the journey of the coal wagon to the river Tyne ; use map and pictures if possible. 2. Describe George's day in the mine ; his promotions ; his thoughtfulness ; the night school ; cf. these institutions with those of to-day. 3. Describe how and why he built it ; the amazement of the miners and of the village folk ; George, the great hero. Where the engine was used. 4. (a) Use map to trace the Darlington and Stockton railway track.
(b) Describe Stephenson's perseverance and final success, and draw moral. 5. (a) Use map to trace Manchester and Liverpool railway. Describe excitement of competitors ; " The Rocket," best ; show pictures ; cf. with engines of to-day.
(b) Show pictures of some early passenger trains. Describe their first-, second- and third-class accommodation. Elicit differences now ; also compare time taken for journeys, fares, railway stations, etc.
(c) Show picture of Stephenson as a famous man ; educe moral lesson. 6. Elicit uses of railways ; difference they have made to industry, trade, intercourse and so on. Graphically picture going off for summer holiday nowadays ; cf. with former days. |
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NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. George Stephenson's home and early life.
2. His work and progress in the coal mine. His study and perseverance.
3. The first railway engine ; where and how used.
4. The first railway ; how Stephenson got the work ; where the track was laid ; its use.
5. The first goods and passenger train. How it grew.
6. Comparison between railways and trains, then and now.
7. The uses of railways.
8. Lessons learned from life of Stephenson.

HISTORY

FOR THE SENIOR SCHOOL

" By the time the pupil leaves the Elementary School he should have gained a connected and definite knowledge of the story of Britain and of the British Commonwealth of Nations, and have begun to realise the bearing of this on everyday life, observing as he proceeds how the political, social and industrial life of to-day, and even the physical aspect of Britain, are the result of very gradual change which can be traced through the centuries. Better still, if he has also gained, as his study progresses, some knowledge of the growth of free institutions at home and overseas, and some idea of the place of the British story in the story of the world.

" This is the ideal, but it is recognised that to attain it fully may be beyond the reach of many schools."—*Suggestions of the Board of Education.*

This is the ideal, too, which the authors have set before them in compiling this book.

I. THE EGYPTIANS

THE visitor to Egypt at the present day beholds a landscape dotted with little villages of dark mud-brick huts, relieved here and there by groves of graceful date palms.

A wonderful network of canals ensures the country's fertility. The natives, brown-skinned and of slender build, may be seen in many cases engaged in a crude process of irrigation, dipping their buckets into the canal and emptying the contents into a series of pools. This process may go on without ceasing, day and night, for a hundred days at a time, for Egypt has little rain. The overflow of the Nile every summer spreads far over the banks, and gives to the black soil a marvellous degree of fertility. This has been going on through the centuries, and the Nile may therefore be said to be one of the wonders of Egypt.

There are other wonders, wrought not by nature, but by the hand of man. The tombs of the Egyptians reveal much of their ancient history. Some contain relics of the late Stone Age,

whilst barley and wheat are often found in the jars buried in the tombs, six thousand years ago maybe. These, and the fragments found, indicate that Egypt at this early period grew grain and flax.

Taxes might seem to us, in the twentieth century, to be a modern abomination, but in each district in Egypt in those far-off days an officer was appointed to control the irrigation trenches. To him the peasants were obliged to convey, every season, a share of the grain and flax which they gathered from their fields. Otherwise, the supply of water for their crops would be cut off. At the present day also, failure to pay one's water rate results in the cutting off of the supply. The account was kept on the wall of the hut in the form of picture figures, and though such records were not as definite as modern mathematicians would desire, they answered the purpose of the time.

Later came a further stage in the art of writing, when from a picture conveying the idea of a whole sentence, it represented a word, next a syllable,

and finally a letter. Thus a pictorial alphabet was formed. All this reminds one of the Chinese system of writing, and to some extent our own heraldic devices.

The next step in the extension of writing would be that of finding materials for use. Ink could be produced from the soot in the blackened pots over the fire, which, when mixed with gum and water, furnished a clear writing medium. A pointed reed made an excellent pen, and from this we have learned that a stick of wood sharpened chisel-fashion with a slit made in the middle, constitutes an excellent reed pen for lettering at the present time.

But more wonderful still, the ancient Egyptian soon learnt the value of fibre. He discovered that papyrus, a sort of river weed, could be split into thin layers, supplying a surface for writing better than that of pottery, bone, or wood. By pasting strips together he possessed a large sheet of paper. As a single sheet was rather thin, he overcame this difficulty by pasting two sheets together, back to back, with the grain crossing at right angles. By this means he produced a smooth but tough paper. It almost seems as if this were the forerunner of our "three-ply" wood.

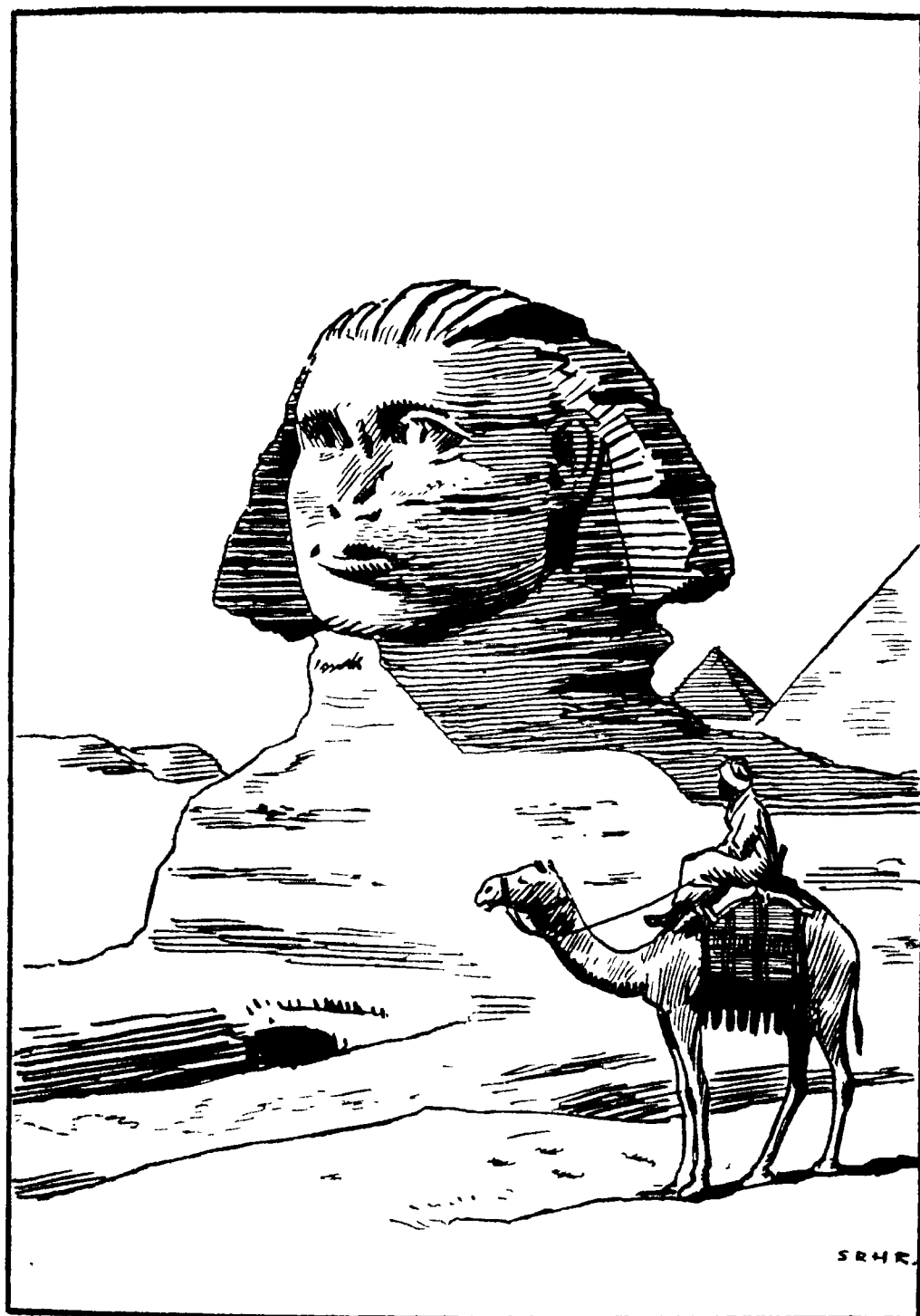
Thus to the early Egyptians belongs the credit of an invention—the art of writing and the materials for writing—which has done more for the advancement of civilisation than any other achievement.

The production of copper from ore followed close upon the heels of the invention of writing materials, and it was the use of the copper chisel which made possible the first architectural

monuments which are so wonderful a feature of Egypt. The pyramids, the tombs of the great, were built with a knowledge and skill which still puzzles modern architects. The Great Pyramid is a solid mass of masonry consisting of more than two million blocks of limestone, each weighing on an average $2\frac{1}{2}$ tons. The sides of the pyramid at the base are nearly 800 feet long and the building is 500 feet high. Some say that a hundred thousand men were working on the building for twenty years.

The great Sphinx is a huge piece of sculpture which one of the kings of Egypt caused to be carved as a portrait of himself, with the body of a lion. There seems no other explanation of its existence except a touch of vanity. In agriculture, a wooden plough was used to prepare the fields. It was worked by two men, one driving the oxen, while the other held the plough. But it is from the tombs that so much of the history of Egypt has been ascertained. Copper tools of many kinds were in use, the most useful of which was the long flat saw, hammered out of a strip of copper five to six feet long. The cabinet maker was a highly skilled craftsman. Some of the Egyptian arm-chairs would do credit to modern workers in wood. The great museums of the present day reveal these wonderful achievements, in picture or model.

The richly-wrought jewellery of the ancient Egyptians is hardly excelled in beauty by the work of the best goldsmiths and jewellers of to-day. Their pottery, also, was conspicuous for its artistic finish. And this, it must be remembered, was at a time when the lake villages and the towns



THE SPHINX.

A sphinx is a fabulous monster figuring in Egyptian and Greek mythology. The Egyptian sphinx has a human head. The features are like those of the ancient Egyptians. The largest sphinx is that near the group of pyramids at Gizeh, and is 150 feet long and 63 feet high.

of Europe were still in the toils of the Stone Age.

The age that followed shows progressive development. Lands were granted by the kings to the lords in lieu of service, and thus we have the early beginnings of the Feudal System. The word "feud" signifies "the holding of land for services."

Strange as it may seem in those early days of 2000 B.C. the Pharaohs had constructed a canal from the northernmost point of the Red Sea to the nearest branch of the Nile, thus anticipating, by nearly four thousand years, the Suez Canal constructed by De Lesseps and opened in 1869. By means of a continuous waterway the Egyptians were able to sail to Greece, and it is probable that they controlled the island of Crete at that time.

In addition to their temples and pyramids a singular feature of Egypt is the obelisks. These were often cut out of solid granite and sometimes reached a height of a hundred feet. They were generally covered with hieroglyphics, a term which originally meant sacred picture-writing. A very fine specimen of one of Egypt's obelisks is to be found on the Thames Embankment. It is known as Cleopatra's Needle, and was brought from Alexandria as a present to the British nation.

The purpose which these obelisks served seems obscure, like the Sphinx itself, but they certainly indicate the Egyptians' skill in architecture, and also their reverence for sacred buildings and tombs, for so many of their erections had a sacred significance.

But kingdoms rise and wane, and by the middle of the twelfth century B.C. the great Egyptian Empire began

to crumble. For some two thousand years it had flourished, and reached a stage of civilisation that has been the wonder of succeeding ages.

For four hundred years of this period the great Pharaohs had held their powerful sway, and the Valley of Thebes holds their mortal remains. It was a wild and desolate valley, formed by a deep depression in the western desert, and the tombs consisted of several rock-hewn galleries reaching hundreds of feet into the mountains. Modern research has unearthed the treasures which these tombs contained. Many were removed in 1881 to the National Museum at Cairo, where they are still to be seen. More recently still, as lately as 1922, the tomb of Tutankhamen was discovered, and its priceless treasures brought to light, and thus at the beginning of the twentieth century clear positive proof was furnished of Egypt's wonderful stage of human advancement.

2. THE GLORIOUS DAYS OF GREECE

THE Greeks were originally an uncivilised race of people who dwelt to the north of the Balkan Mountains. Rude tribesmen that they were, they were not unresponsive to the fair pastures of Thessaly, and the blue waters of the Ægean Sea, which lay on the other side of the mountains. Driving their herds before them, with their families in rough carts drawn by horses, they entered the Greek peninsula.

During the thousand years between 2000 B.C. and 1000 B.C. they swarmed

south, taking possession of the whole of Greece, Crete, and the sea-coasts of Asia Minor.

In their old home the Greeks had been wanderers, each tribe having its leader. They found, however, that in the peninsula which they had invaded a large number of petty kings held sway, and this system of rule was preserved by them, their shepherd kings taking the place of the former nomad leaders. The tribes settled down in small village communities at first, but later, groups of villages combined, and the city was evolved. It is important to observe the evolution of the city in Greece, because the whole country subsequently became a collection of city-states, and this was the feature of Greek administration.

The king's castle, or "acropolis," was perched on the heights overlooking each city, and the king was the ruler. Assisted by a council of elders, and an assembly of warriors, he sat in the market-place and carried on the work of government.

It was from these small city-kingsdoms that Greek civilisation developed to the heights which it subsequently attained. But like all true and lasting growth the process was a slow one.

It is said that for a long time even the dwellings of the Greeks were merely simple farmhouses of sun-dried brick, where the swine wandered into the court, or slept in the sunshine beside the royal doorway.

But the civilising influence of trade was the first step in the change. Traders came from the East bearing purple woollen cloth, perfumes, rich blue porcelain, carved ivory ornaments, and engraved bronze and silver dishes. These traders, the Phenicians of old,

hailed from the Bible cities of Tyre and Sidon. They had learnt their craft from the Egyptians. But more important still than the goods they brought and the trade they carried on, was the knowledge of writing which they brought, and the use of an alphabet. Here again, the Phenician alphabet was drawn from the Egyptian hieroglyphics; and it is possible, and highly interesting, to trace some of these letters through Greek and Latin forms to the present English alphabet.

The Phenician alphabet consisted of twenty-two consonants; the Greeks added the necessary vowels, thus showing early traces of the mental superiority which afterwards characterised them.

Pens, ink, and paper were a natural corollary to the adoption of an alphabet. It has been noticed in a previous chapter that the Egyptians made paper from "papyrus," and now it might be observed that the Greeks called their paper "biblos," after the name of the Phenician city, Biblos, from which they received it. The words "bible" and "bibliography" are derived from the name of the city.

The Greeks were not slow to make use of the alphabet and the art of writing. The deeds of their great heroes, the incidents in their wars, and the feats of their gods were soon told in song and story. Thus there grew up a race of bards and historians, the greatest of which was the immortal Homer. The exact period of his existence is in doubt, but it is generally ascribed to between 900 B.C. and 800 B.C. His two epic poems, the "Iliad" and the "Odyssey," describe respectively the story of the Greek

war against Troy, and the wanderings of Odysseus on his return from Troy. Doubt has been cast on the poems, as to whether they were the work of one man or not, but that question need not agitate us in this place. Doubt has also been cast on the authenticity of Shakespeare's plays. But educated opinion holds the belief that Homer and Shakespeare share the glory of pre-eminence in literature. From the Homeric songs and myths we gather the tales of the Greek gods who dwelt on Mount Olympus. But to return to the cities of the Greeks. Cut up by mountain ranges and deep bays, a united nation was impossible, as the different cities were so isolated. Again there were the numerous islands, and the mainland of Asia Minor.

There were three or four city-states which acquired control of larger territories than the rest, and of these the most important was Athens. In time it controlled the whole of the peninsula of Attica in the south-west of Greece.

By the arrival of the fifth century B.C. the city-states had acquired to some extent "government of the people, for the people, by the people," that is to say, a stage in democracy (Greek *demos*—people—and *krateo*—to rule), and the fact that the word "democracy" is of Greek origin indicates one of the sources of this form of government.

But it must not be supposed that the path to democracy was a smooth and untroubled one. For some two hundred years previously, continual struggles were going on between people and leaders, but by 500 B.C. the power of the people was making itself felt. Thus social progress was being accompanied all the time by the development

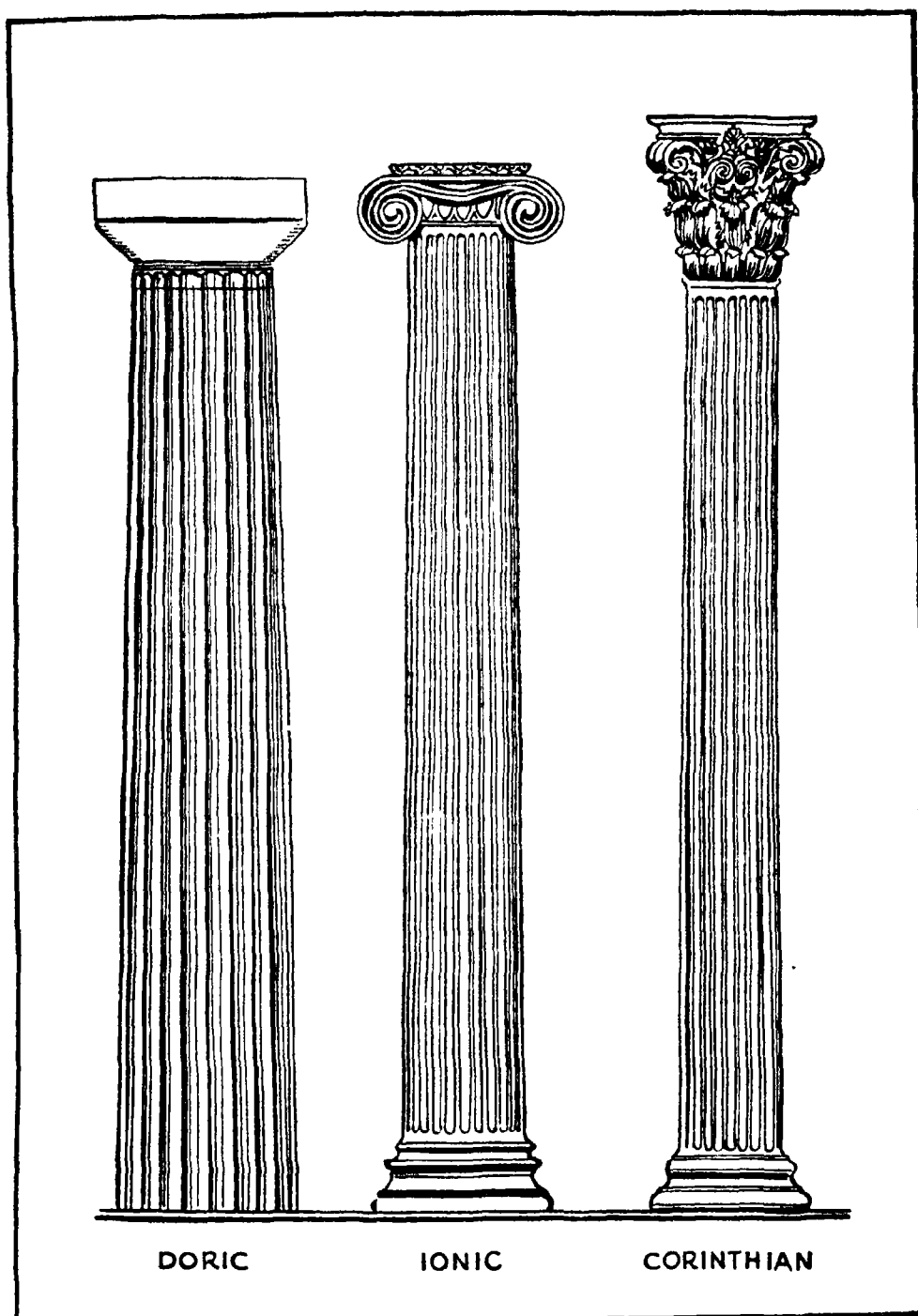
of industry, commerce, colonisation, art, literature, and science.

Hand in hand with this progress in trade and the arts went the development of games. Cities rivalled each other in athletic pursuits, and games came to be practised in honour of the gods. These Olympic games were held every four years, and in our own times have been revived. A crown of olive was the prize the victor gained, though on his return home a greater reward awaited him in his reception as a conquering hero. Statues were also set up in his honour.

But of all the arts which the Greeks have bequeathed to us, that of building is one of the greatest. A walk through any large city of the British Empire, or for that matter through many a foreign capital, will reveal traces of Grecian architecture. The column and the colonnade were the two most striking features of the buildings of Ancient Greece, and here it may again be stated, if the reiteration be not wearisome, that the idea and the form of these columns were borrowed from the Egyptians. But at least it can be said that the Greek improved considerably upon the original.

It has been said by one of our greatest authorities on building that "Greek Architecture is the Ancestor from which most of the building styles in Europe are descended. Greek architecture is the parent of the Roman style, grandparent of our Saxon and Norman styles, and the great grandparent of our own glorious Gothic."

The Grecian column took three different forms according as it was early, middle, or late. The names Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian have been given to them respectively. The dis-



GRECIAN COLUMNS.

The distinction between the three types of column lies in the head or capital. They represent three succeeding stages of Grecian architecture. The Doric Column is crowned with a slab of stone; in the Ionic the capital is curled in volutes, whilst in the Corinthian the head is ornamented with carvings of the acanthus leaf.

inction between the three really resides in the head of the column, or capital, and for the purposes of history-teaching these distinctions might suffice. In the first-named the column is crowned by a flat slab of stone, in the second the capital is curled at the end in what is known as "volutes," and the head of the Corinthian column is more ornate still and consists of the carving of the acanthus leaf. Specimens of all three orders are to be seen in many places, sometimes in the same structure.

The Doric order was employed for the Parthenon in Greece; the exterior of the British Museum in London has a fine colonnade with Ionic columns; whilst St. Paul's Cathedral has some fine specimens of the Corinthian style.

In addition to the art of building, Greece was the home of many of the early scientists. Their discoveries included a knowledge of the eclipses of the sun, and the times of their happenings. That the earth was a sphere and had its own motion was also one of their discoveries. But of all Greek scientists Pythagoras is doubtless best known to the English schoolboy and schoolgirl. It was he who gave us the fascinating theorem propounded in "Euclid," Book I, Proposition 47, and so incurred our lasting gratitude. In Sculpture and in the Drama the Greeks were also well advanced, and much of their work in this direction still serves as a model to our present generations.

But a change was soon to come over the disunited city-states. North of the Greek cities lay Macedonia, and Alexander the Great, who became its King at the early age of twenty, was to be the means of spreading Greek civilisation throughout the eastern world. A

skilled statesman and an able soldier, he first made himself master of Greece, and afterwards conquered Asia Minor, Persia, and the valleys of the Nile and the Euphrates. Cut off in the midst of his conquests, at the early age of thirty-three, after a few days' illness, he had yet lived long enough to see Greek civilisation extended far into Asia, and to bring about an intermingling of West with East, of which later ages were to reap the advantage.

3. THE ROMANS IN ROME

THE city of Rome, the centre and core of the Roman Empire, was established about the year 750 B.C. The district had formed part of the larger one of Latium, after which the occupiers derived their name "Latins." On the other side of the Tiber, however, was a number of strong Etruscan towns, and it was an Etruscan prince, who, crossing the Tiber in 750 B.C., took possession of the famous Palatine Hill. Rome soon became a city-kingdom under the Etruscans, who then spread their power over the whole of Latium. The Latin people and the Latin tongue, however, still retained their identity.

The Etruscans were great traders. From Greece they brought beautiful pottery, and in their journeyings acquired some knowledge of architecture.

The cruelty of the Etruscan rulers, however, caused a revolt in Rome about 500 B.C., and as a consequence kingship came to an end. But during the period of two and a half centuries of Etruscan rule the mark of progress was left on religion, government, and architecture.

It was after the expulsion of the Etruscan kings that Rome rose rapidly to power, and it was for the next five hundred years that Rome lived under a Republic. It was only the beginning of this system of government, it is true, but it was a very effective beginning. The nobles, who were called Patricians, were in control, and it was from this upper section of the people that two were chosen as *consuls* or leaders of the people. They were to have equal powers and serve for a year. They were appointed at a yearly meeting of weapon-bearing men, and corresponded to some extent to the President of our modern form of Republic.

But the Patricians found it impossible to carry on without the help of the common people, or Plebs, for at least their services were indispensable in war time. This indispensability soon made it inevitable that the Plebs should have a share in the government, and they were allowed to elect a group of new officials called *tribunes*. The tribunes had the right to cancel the action of any officer of the Government, even that of the consuls themselves. They could even revoke a sentence of death.

The consuls had many functions. They were the generals of the army in war; they controlled the revenue; and they were the judges in all cases of law. But as Rome grew, and the demand on the consuls increased, other officials were appointed to take charge of the State monies, and administer justice.

The Romans had a deep respect for the law and its officials. Twelve men, known as lictors, accompanied the consul whenever he appeared in public. Each carried a bundle

of rods with an axe in the middle, a symbol of the power of the consul to inflict punishment. The Great Council of Rome, known as the Senate (Latin *senex*, an old man), consisted of Patricians only, and was chosen by the consul. But it was not long before the people's claim for representation on the Senate had its effect, and finally the Senate became composed of Patricians and Plebs, a body of three hundred, comprising men of experience in government and public affairs.

In the space of two centuries Rome had so spread out her tentacles that, by conquest or alliance, she exercised authority over the whole of Italy south of the River Po. And of this she made good use. The Romans granted the conquered people many of the rights of Roman citizenship, and gave them equal protection in the courts of law. Thus they were able to hold what they had gained, and the dispersion of Roman farmers throughout Italy soon tinged the whole of Italy with Roman ways and Roman civilisation.

But in their conquest of Southern Italy they were doubly fortunate, for many of the cities were Greek cities in an advanced state of civilisation, and the Romans, ever ready to learn, were not slow to take advantage of this superior culture.

It was not likely, however, that the power of Rome would remain unchallenged. Opposite to Sicily, on the northern coast of Africa, there had arisen the great commercial city of Carthage. It had been founded while Rome was still a small trading village, by the descendants of the Phenicians.

The clash between the two great powers came, and a period of war followed which lasted from 264 B.C. to

146 B.C. The three Punic Wars, as the wars of this period were called, brought about the complete eclipse of Rome's great rival. The second Punic War was remarkable for the great campaigns of Hannibal, the young Carthaginian general, who, although only twenty-four years of age, conceived the idea, whilst serving in Spain, of attacking Rome by marching through Spain and southern France, and crossing the Alps. Victory followed victory for Hannibal, but his conquests stopped at besieging Rome. This he found beyond his powers, great as his ability was as a general. He stayed in Italy for fifteen years, and was then called to Carthage.

Only a short time elapsed before a new general arose in Rome, Scipio by name. He proved as great a general as the famous Hannibal, and carrying the offensive to Carthage itself, won a conclusive victory. The third Punic War was also one of aggression, fought on African soil, and at its conclusion the power of the East was entirely broken by that of the West. Had the result been reversed, and the Eastern forces dominated the Mediterranean, the whole course of Western civilisation might have changed considerably.

The military successes of the Romans were to a large extent due to the efficiency of their Army organisation. Her citizen Army became the best in the world. Consisting at first of men who owned land, and afterwards of those who had other property, it reached the dimensions of 300,000 men. When the forces of the allies were added, it was double this figure. The weapons used were the spear, hurled at close range, and the short sword. A helmet, a leather corselet, and a shield completed the warrior's outfit.

To facilitate its movements the Army was divided into legions, a legion consisting of some 5,000 men.

But it was the stern Roman Army discipline which set the seal on the success of the Roman forces. They were bidden to act according to plan, and any breach, even if successful, was looked upon with disfavour. Improvement in the Navy was a necessary corollary to the efficient Army, since it often had to be transported across the sea. But it was her military, far more than her naval powers which built up Rome.

Still, in spite of Rome's great organisations, it was only in Italy itself that they produced their full effect. They could not be, or at least were not, transplanted to lands outside their own. The countries the Romans conquered were administered by governors, but the people were never made Roman citizens. In addition to this the governors sometimes proved unbearably autocratic, and studied their own interests instead of those of the people under them. This was a drawback; Roman civilisation deserved to endure wherever it was imposed.

The period of peace which followed Rome's many wars was not so fruitful as her military exploits, and a change of Government seemed the only possible solution. So Rome became an Empire, and it sprang into being at the advent of the great Julius Cæsar.

Improvements were soon brought about. The Senate and Government were reformed, and schemes were devised for the rebuilding of Rome. Then the Emperor Augustus came into power, and though Rome still remained a Republic, it was now an Empire also.



The new Emperor gave close attention to the erection of public buildings, and it was a justifiable boast of his that he found Rome a city of brick and left it of marble.

A characteristic feature of Roman architecture was the round arch, the idea of which was borrowed from the Near East. It was the custom of the Romans to build triumphal arches in memory of great victories in war, and the round arch was used for this purpose. "Marble Arch," in the city of London, is a fine specimen of Roman architecture, being a copy of the arch of King Constantine in Rome. Paris, Berlin, and New York have built similar arches, a feature of which is the tall arch in the middle and smaller arches on each side.

Literature also under the Romans developed to a great degree. From a study of the finest works of Greek learning the Romans acquired a zest for writing. It is even said that Cæsar wrote a book on Latin grammar whilst crossing the Alps. But the greatest writer in the last days of the Republic was Cicero, a master of Latin prose, and the most cultured man Rome ever produced. His speeches and his essays have influenced the style of speakers and of prose writers in all civilised countries. But second only to Cicero came Livy with his famous history of Rome, Horace with his songs of Old Greece, and Virgil with his *Æneid*, that great epic poem which tells of the glorious legends of Ancient Rome. The Augustan Age, as this age has been called, is one of the greatest in the annals of literature.

The two aqueducts built by Claudius were marvels of engineering skill. They were nearly a hundred miles in length

and furnished Rome with a continual supply of fresh water. The name of Claudius Cæsar is familiar to the English, as he found his way to Britain in the first century A.D. and made the southern portion of it a province of the Roman Empire.

In dealing with the magnificent buildings in Rome, the ancient Colosseum must take a high place. It was a vast oval arena surrounded by rising tiers of seats accommodating nearly 50,000 people. Gladiatorial fights were a feature of the entertainment provided. The ruins of the Colosseum is one of the most interesting relics to be seen in Rome to-day.

The Roman road, strongly paved with smooth stone, was one of Rome's outstanding achievements, but a more detailed reference to these roads is made in a subsequent chapter on the Roman occupation of Britain.

Though Christianity took some time to take root in the Roman Empire, by the end of the second century it was rapidly becoming the most important religion. But it was towards the end of the second century that the power of Rome began to wane. Revolution and rebellion broke up the grand order. Whether great men were scarce, whether an age of luxury and licence had supervened, or whether both factors contributed to this end, it remains an enigma that such a mighty State could so soon lose its prestige and its power. Very rapidly the Romans fell a prey to the barbarians of the north. The Roman legions were withdrawn from the foreign provinces, including Britain, but no effort was equal to stemming an invasion by the Goths, Vandals and Huns.

Unintentionally also the Roman Em-

pire became divided into two parts through the appointment of two Emperors, one for the eastern portion and one for the western. Constantine became the Emperor of the eastern portion, and under his strong hand another capital, Constantinople, sprang into being. This portion survived, with many vicissitudes, till 1453, but the western portion of the Empire succumbed in the year A.D. 476.

So the Roman Empire declined and fell. It had begun in 750 B.C., and had gone from strength to strength for a period of a thousand years, when it rapidly sank into comparative obscurity. But though the great Roman Empire had passed away, much of the Roman civilisation remained in Europe. In the sphere of law and government it has left its mark, and its influence in this direction has affected the world more than that of any other Roman institution.

4. THE EARLY BRITONS

OF the inhabitants of our land in those far-off days of long ago when it was not an island, when the North Sea and the Channel had not been formed, one need say little. These earliest people—the River-Bed men, as they have been called—touched the lowest degree of human existence, and as primeval savages, herded together beside the banks of streams, in company with the hippopotamus, elephant, bison, and elk. The whole period (whether it comprised 5,000 years, as the physicists state, or 500,000, in the opinion of the geologist) belongs to the Old Stone (or Palæolithic) Age.

Our historic review need not begin till the end of this age, and the beginning of the New Stone (or Neolithic) Age. With regard to their origin, it is almost certain that the peoples of the Neolithic Ages were of a race with the Finns of North Europe and the Basques of Spain (ancient Iberia), a wild, mountainous race which has never been really conquered. They were a small, wiry, dark-haired, wild people. Their war implements were of sharpened flint, and their axes and hammers of stone. They lived by hunting and fishing, dwelt in wigwams, and were a nomad people. Rough, unhewn stones set archwise may still be found in some parts of Britain, as at Stonehenge. These stones were originally covered with earth and smaller stones, and served as the tombs of their warriors and chiefs.

Quite an appreciable number of the earthworks which stand on hilltops, and are popularly called "Roman" or "British" camps, really belong to this older race, such as "Coney Castle" in Dorset.

During this age only one metal, gold, seems to have been known, and some of the stone weapons and implements of these ancients were decorated with it. But later they learnt to use bronze, which shows that they had also discovered the properties of tin and copper. All three metals were doubtless obtained from the streams of the west. They had also acquired a good knowledge, as their sepulchral urns show, of the manufacture of pottery. They could weave, moreover, both linen and woollen cloth, crude in character of course, but a sure indication that they had passed beyond the savage.

The race which could erect Stonehenge, as we may safely say was done by this people, must have possessed mechanical skill of a high order, and no little accuracy of astronomical observation. For the stones were all brought from a distance, and the whole vast circles are built on a definite astronomical plan. So careful is the orientation that, at the summer solstice, the disc of the rising sun, as seen from the altar of Stonehenge, appears to be poised exactly on the summit of one of the chief megaliths. From this it would appear that the builders were sun-worshippers. These Iberians were not to be left in undisturbed possession of the country, for swarms of the Aryan race came later, and drove them to Ireland.

How and when these Aryans first reached Britain is not known with certainty. It has been put down by some authorities as 600 B.C. These invaders undoubtedly belonged to the Celtic branch of the Aryan family, and to the Gaelic section of it, which still holds the highlands of Scotland and forms the bulk of the population of Ireland.

They wove cloth, although it was of a very coarse kind. They dressed in skins, sewn together by strips of raw hide threaded through needles of bone. They engaged in trade, almost exclusively by barter, with the Phenicians, Greeks, and Gauls, exchanging tin and skins for earthenware, bronze, trinkets, and salt. Later they used bronze weapons and implements instead of stone, although the stone ones did not fall into disuse till some centuries later.

Even in those early times the ancients of the civilised world knew that our islands were the source of tin, the only

known substance capable of making, along with copper, an alloy hard enough for cutting purposes—namely, “bronze”—which has given its name to one entire age of human development. The Phenicians, with true mercantile instinct, succeeded in securing a monopoly of this trade by being the first to visit Cornwall. The boats used for the transport of tin from Land’s End to Dover were constructed on the simplest pattern, being of a very light framework covered with hides. Incredible as it may seem, these “coracles” were sea-going craft. Indeed, such boats are still in use upon the west coast of Ireland, and are able to live in seas which would be fatal to anything more rigidly built. This method of shipbuilding was common all along the northern coast of Europe for centuries.

Nor were these coracles only used for coasting. As time went on the Britons boldly struck straight across from Cornwall to the Continent. According to Pytheas, some of the inhabitants of our island at the time, the Ancient Britons, grew wheat, barley, and millet, besides cultivating “roots,” fruit-trees, and other vegetables. What struck him most was that “for lack of clean sunshine” they thrashed out their corn, not in open threshing-floors, as in the Mediterranean lands, but in barns. They had invented wheeled ploughs, and used a variety of manures, mast, loam, and chalk in particular. This treatment of the soil is said to have been a British invention.

The Celts were a fair-headed race, though as they did not scruple to intermarry with the races they subdued, they lost to some extent their own physical characteristics by uniting

themselves with the Iberians who remained in Britain after subjugation. They were able to clear the forests to a larger extent than the Iberians could do, owing to their superior instruments, and they built better huts and boats of wicker and hides. They mined tin and other metals with the help of their Iberian slaves. Some of their huts were made of wattle and daub, and others crudely built of wood, and in some cases erected on piles over a stream or pond for purposes of safety. The sites they chose for settlement were generally on the side of the hills, some distance from the foot, as affording means for an easier clearing of the forest growth and a dry location from the marshy ground below.

The Celts lived in tribal communities, whose chief business it seems was to make war on each other. This continual waging of war produced their chiefs, or "kings" as they were called, even in those early times. You will remember that Shakespeare's play "Cymbeline" depicts the life and times of one of these early British warrior kings.

Not all the tribes of Britain, however, were at this level of civilisation. Thrashing in barns was only practised by those highest in development, the true Britons of the south and east. The Gaelic tribes beyond them, so far as they were agricultural at all, stored the newly plucked ears of corn in underground dwellings day by day, taking out and dressing what was needed for each meal. When kept it was usually stored in baskets, for basket-making was a peculiarly British industry. But the corn was also probably hoarded in huge jars of coarse pottery. Recent excavations at Glastonbury prove that wheels were even in use for making

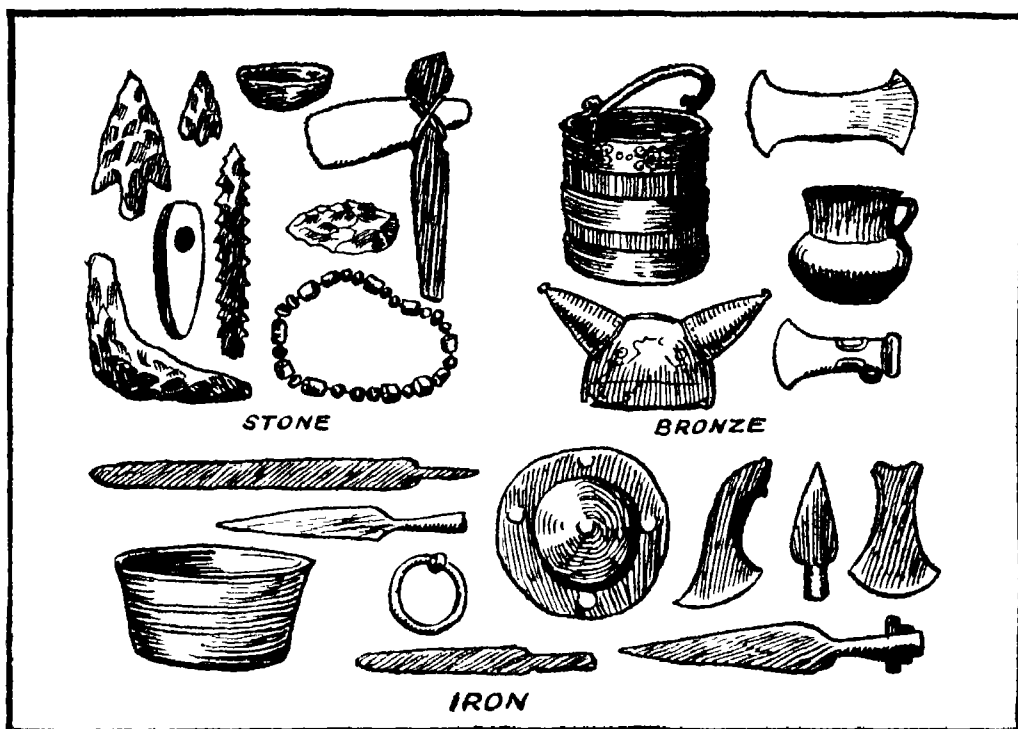
pottery. Of the British tribes, practically none were the naked savages that they are commonly imagined to have been. On the contrary, they could both weave and spin, and their common dress was in the form of tartan.

The chiefs were armed with brightly painted shields, plumed helmets, cuirasses of leather, bronze, or chain mail. The national weapons of defence were darts, pikes, and broad-swords, bows and arrows being more rarely used. It is interesting to know that the Celts made a drink by mixing wheat and honey, which is the mead still known in certain parts of Wales. There was also another drink made of barley, and the name by which it was known to them is still the Celtic word for beer.

So much for the personality of the people, and the nature of the life they led.

Lastly, what were the physical conditions of these islands at the time? Much less attractive than now. The climate was not so hospitable, though one doubts whether it could have been more changeable than it is at present. Apart from any consideration of the vagaries of the Gulf Stream through the ages, one can easily conclude that excessive forest growth and wholly undrained ground caused so humid an atmosphere, and so frigid a soil, that the physical conditions could not have been pleasant or even inviting. It may be remarked that certain of the Roman Emperors came to our shores, but their stay was never protracted. The climatic contrast alone between their own sunny clime and our cold one was sufficient justification for an early departure.

The Britain of that time has well been described as a land of "fen and forest, moor and marsh," and though



PRIMITIVE WEAPONS AND IMPLEMENTS.

There were two Stone Ages—the old and the new. With stone weapons the earliest inhabitants of Britain cut down trees and killed animals for food. The Celts advanced out of the Stone Age. The Gaels of North Britain made bronze, whilst in the South the Age of Iron had begun.

the term "cold and watery desert" has been applied to it, this was doubtless too gloomy a view.

5. THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN

THE Romans were at the height of their power about the time of the Christian era. They had conquered most of the then-known world. Julius Cæsar had conquered Gaul and become its governor, and had found Britons ranged on the side of his enemies. He knew there was a land beyond the narrow seas to the north of Gaul and resolved to visit it.

In the year 55 B.C. he reached our shores in the neighbourhood of Romney

Marsh, but the landing was of little avail. The next year he brought over a large army, and invading the south of Britain, drove the Celts beyond the Thames. He stayed here two months and then retired, whether for reasons of climate or duty is not known. Nearly a century passed before any other Roman general essayed the conquest of Britain. But it must not be imagined that Cæsar's brief operations had no lasting effect. The intervening years saw a stimulus in trade between the Britons and their Gallic neighbours. The prospect of Britain's future conquest was doubtless well discussed in Rome, and plans laid for its accomplishment at a later date.

From A.D. 43 onwards, when the first invasion for settlement was made, and a Roman camp established at Colchester by the Emperor Claudius, Roman Emperors and governors came and went. Some did much, others did little. Agricola drove the "barbarians," as the Celts were called by the invaders, to the north of Scotland, and built a chain of forts between the Firths of Forth and Clyde to keep off their inroads. Hadrian built a "wall," or what was probably a huge earth work, from the Tyne to the Solway Firth, between Newcastle and Carlisle, for the same purpose. The forts were replaced later by a wall, and Hadrian's wall strengthened by Severus. Part of this latter wall still remains, though much of the material has been used for road-repairing within recent times.

None of these barriers seems to have been very effective. Invasions into Britain were continually made, and raids on the coast during the latter part of the Roman occupation were made by the Northmen from the shores of Norway and Denmark. It was on account of the latter that forts were set up round the coast of Britain, and a special Roman officer appointed, known as the Count of the Saxon Shore (i.e. the shores raided by the Saxons and others).

In course of time most of the Celts were driven to the west and north of the country, and took refuge in the mountain fastnesses, from which it would have been folly to try to dislodge them. But many remained in Britain and served their Roman masters. Still the Romans, contrary to the people whom they had just subdued, did not mix to any extent or intermarry with the Celts. The

latter were always the "hewers of wood and drawers of water" to their conquerors. To them were allotted the heavy and menial forms of manual labour, and severe treatment was the penalty for non-compliance.

The Romans, as is well known, were highly efficient administrators. They are reputed as competent law-makers and rulers as the world has known. In their own land laws were enforced with severity, but in Britain the severity in the case of the subjugated race was intensified. Complaints of cruel corporal chastisement for not fulfilling allotted tasks are by no means unknown, and history has it, though its accuracy might be impugned, that Queen Boadicea was scourged by Romans.

But if the ruler was strict, the Government was highly efficient. It required a good deal of money to maintain it, and taxes were severe. This was especially the case with the land tax, which was paid by Roman and Briton alike. And the whole land was held by the State; none of it was free. A certain amount of freedom was allowed in purely local affairs, but the will of the governors was supreme in all matters which affected the country as a whole. So the establishment of law and order in Britain, and the maintenance of a good system of government, must be laid to the credit of the Romans, and this must have had a permanent effect, though much that the Romans did left little trace, as we shall see later.

Next in importance to efficient government was the making of roads, many parts of which, though they have been considerably built up since, remain to the present day. The

Romans were great engineers, and were thus able to lay down hard permanent roads over surfaces, which on account of their low situation and swampy nature, would have baffled any but highly skilled men. The roads were built chiefly for military purposes, that troops might move without let or hindrance through the conquered parts of the land, and that good order might be preserved. The aim of the Romans was "to drive their roads the nation's length," and they succeeded.

The main roads were four in number : Watling Street, from Dover, through London, Leicester, and York, to Caedonia ; the Fosse Way, from Totnes, through Bristol and Leicester, to Lincoln ; Ikenield Street, from Norfolk to Chester ; and Ermine Street, from Southampton to St. David's. (The word street came from *strata*, a paved way, e.g. street, Stratford.)

The Romans also built harbours where their boats could land. (L. *Portus*, a harbour—e.g. Portsmouth, Porchester.)

The industries that already existed in Britain were improved by the Romans and rendered more productive. This was especially the case with corn-growing and mining. Corn was produced in large quantities to feed the Roman legions abroad, and it is computed that as many as 800 vessels were employed by the Romans to ship corn from Britain to their other colonies. The size of the vessels in early times must of course be taken into account. Yet it must not be inferred that the Romans were great agriculturists in the highest sense of the term, like the Egyptians and Chinese ; but they must have known a good deal about tillage and crops to

have produced such a large output of corn from Britain.

The Romans were good builders, however, being second only to the Greeks and Egyptians in this respect. The Roman arch, as stated previously, was semicircular in shape, was generally built of stones of large size, and, having strong side supports, was very stable and lasting. Their walls were built of small stones and had a layer of red tiles running through them at intervals. The Roman villas were imposing structures with elaborate bathrooms and beautiful tessellated pavements. Remains of these are being dug up even at the present day, and splendid specimens are to be found at Bath, Colchester (L. *castra*, a camp), York and Lincoln (L. *colonia*, a colony).

The villas were built round the towns and were the residences of governors and generals. Each villa had its large open courtyard, with rooms opening out from it roofed with tiles, and the floors of the villa were paved with mosaics of various colours in beautiful patterns of flowers and scrolls. In some villas there was also a smaller courtyard, which led into a hall where statues and paintings were kept. Each of the larger villas would have a bathroom, perhaps paved with marble, with seats round the bath, for the Romans spent several hours every day in the water, afterwards sitting on the stone seat by the bath. Castles were also erected. It may truly be said that the Romans builded better than they knew, for their building materials were so durable that they have rarely been surpassed in this respect.

The question now arises, "What lasting effects did the Roman occupa-

tion produce?" Remember that the Romans dominated these islands for three and a half centuries, a period sufficiently long for a nation to leave many permanent traces of its occupation.

It is certain that very little impression was made on our national tongue during the period. The strong infusion of Latin came in at various times later. Few traces have been left on our laws, little in our blood. But it would be unjust to deny that the Romans started Britain on the path of material civilisation. They cleared forests to a large extent for their roads, made marshes passable, levelled hills, and bridged rivers so well that the needs of England were satisfied in this respect down to the sixteenth century. The civilising power of roads and bridges should not be overlooked.

We owe to the Romans the first introduction of Christianity. St. Alban was a Roman, and Constantine was the first Roman Emperor to be a Christian. He was born at York. Still, substantial progress in this respect was probably not made till the mission of St. Augustine in A.D. 597.

But, on the other hand, the Romans systematised and extended slavery, and it taxed all the efforts of the Church in after ages to eradicate it. They deported the virile young Britons to other of their colonies in Europe, and garrisoned their forts, walls, and castles with soldiers of other nations. The wall of Hadrian, for example, was garrisoned by Greek or Spanish troops.

But taking all things into account, and making every allowance for the difficulties with which the Romans had to contend in Britain, it cannot be said that they served the cause of

humanity to the extent they could have done.

It is true that the climate was to them inhospitable, and compared very unfavourably with their sunny south. Winter cattle-feeding was practically impossible; the excessive rainfall often rotted the young corn. The Britons, too, especially those in the interior, had been accustomed to get the chief part of their food from the chase, and were consequently ill-disposed to learn a science (agriculture) which would not only lessen the area of their hunting-grounds, but also involve such arduous and exacting work as clearing woods, planting crops, and pasturing cattle in places where the ravages of wild beasts would be sure to work constant havoc. The task of the Romans was undoubtedly an uphill one, but their stay here was certainly not short.

How was it that the Roman impress on our life was not stronger and more permanent? The answer is not far to seek. Their system of colonisation was at fault. They came to Britain to exploit it, to use it as a food-producing area. Their object was to tap the resources of the country, and not to educate and uplift its people. The Roman citizen, noble as he was, was an exclusive person. No one but a Roman could enjoy his privileges or hold his status. That is the reason the Roman Empire has diminished to its present small proportions, and why other empires have dwindled and declined. But such was the old view of colonisation. It was the Spanish view, and, until we lost our American colonies, the English view.

Fortunately we have learnt since, that the only way to keep colonies is to lead the native races along the paths of

learning and civilisation, to teach them as far as possible to be self-reliant, and to fit themselves to play their part in the government of their own country. Co-operation, not domination, is the keynote of Empire.

It was in the year A.D. 407 (not A.D. 410, as is generally stated) that the Romans were compelled to leave Britain to defend Rome against the tribes of Northern Europe (the Huns, Goths, Vandals and Franks). They sent word to the Britons in A.D. 410 that they could not return.

6. OUR ENGLISH FOREFATHERS

IN the peninsula which separates the Baltic from the northern seas lies the district of Sleswick. It was in this district that the Engle or English folk had their original home. To the north dwelt another kindred tribe—the Jutes—whose name is preserved in that of Jutland, whilst to the south the ancient Saxons had formed their home. All three tribes belonged to the Low German branch of the Teutonic race. The Low German branch occupied the northern portion of the country.

It was the co-operation of these three tribes that brought about the conquest of Britain and the establishment of the Saxon kingdoms. Why these Northmen came to Britain is not known with certainty. They may have had a desire to find new territory; they might have been crowded out; it is just as likely that they were driven to the west by other aggressive hordes. On the other hand the tradition may be authentic that they were invited to come over and help the Britons against the Picts and Scots and having

arrived and accomplished the purpose for which they were invited, found the country fairer than their own and so determined to stay and make it their home.

It is known that the inroads of the Picts and Scots on the departure of the Roman legions harassed the Britons beyond measure, weakened as they had been, in a military sense, during the Roman domination. It should be remembered that the practice of the Romans when conquering a territory was to ship the youngest and strongest men to other outlying parts of the empire.

What was the mode of life of these English forefathers? In their social institutions they followed the same customs as those of the German stock from which they sprang. The basis of society was the free man, free in two senses, in that he bent the neck to no overlord, and that he was free to carry spear and sword. Thus they were sometimes styled “free-necked” men and “weaponed” men. The ownership of land was the accompaniment of freedom, and the exercise of full rights as a freeman was inseparable from his “holding.”

The landless man was not free in the full sense of the term. Dwelling side by side on the soil, the bond of brotherhood became strongly developed. But equally strong was the family bond; the tie of kith and kin in all matters pertaining to equity and justice bound them socially and morally. So they lived, a number of independent self-supporting communities.

Tacitus, the Roman historian, from whose writings much of our information is derived, says that they followed the

occupations of pasturing cattle and ploughing their fields. Cities made no appeal to them.

But even in these free village communities there were social divisions. There were "ceorls" and "eorls," the former the common freemen, the latter those distinguished by nobleness of birth. It was from the latter that leaders were chosen in times of war, and rulers in times of peace.

It was in the year 449 that Hengest and Horsa brought over a band of Jutes and landed in the Isle of Thanet, the most north-easterly portion of Kent, and separated at that time from the mainland by an inlet of the sea. At each end were the forts of Richborough and Reculver. The former revived its ancient glories during the Great War; the latter is now a mere relic.

The battle with the Picts led to their defeat and dispersion, and with other Jutes arriving from over the sea to join their fellows, the question of their maintenance became a serious one. Conquest and settlement seemed the only solution, and the Jutes fought their way through Kent. Saxons and Angles followed, and landed at various places on the east coast, bent on conquest and settlement also.

But these frequent invasions were not to go unchecked. For the space of two centuries the ground was stubbornly contested, though the attacks of the Northmen were constant and merciless. The Britons were steadily defeated and driven west, and Britain gradually became England. Few of the vanquished remained, and those who did became slaves to their English conquerors. Proof of this dispersal of the British is to be found in the few

inconsiderable traces of their language in English.

Of the succeeding bands of these Northmen who came subsequently to our shores the names of their settlements bear testimony. The West Saxons ultimately took possession of the south-western portion of the country (Wessex), the East Saxons of Essex, the South Saxons of Sussex. The Angles occupied the eastern part, East Anglia; the Jutes, Kent. Though the actual conquest of the kingdom took more than a century, it was remarkable in its completeness. The Northmen had conquered other lands in various parts of Europe, which were previously Roman provinces, and to a large extent Roman civilisation remained, but in the case of Britain the Roman organisation, its laws, its manners, its literature, and even its faith seem to have been entirely submerged. For the English in Britain were heathens. The names for the days of the week are one of many indications. Wednesday is the day of the war god, Wodin, Thursday is the day of Thor, the god of thunder, and so on.

With the object of conquest achieved, the English settled down to the peaceful pursuit of farming, their native occupation in northern Europe, and many a "ton" and "ham" and "burgh" give philological evidence of their settlement. Their system of land holding and their cultivation of the soil is reserved for another chapter.

By the end of the sixth century the conquest of the larger part of Britain was complete. But now a great change was to come over the English occupation. The war of expulsion was at an end, but there arose a series of

internal conflicts among the conquerors themselves to determine which of the various kingdoms was to become supreme. Three emerged by the beginning of the seventh century—Northumbria, reaching from the Humber to the Forth; Mercia, which occupied mid-Britain; Wessex, which stretched from Watling Street to the Channel. But for some time Northumbria took the lead in the struggle, and its overlordship lasted till the close of the seventh century. It should be noticed that in the early part of this period, about the year 589, Saint Augustine came to Kent with a band of Christians. Kent held a temporary supremacy at the time, and under Ethelbert intercourse was renewed with the continent.

For our knowledge of this period we are indebted to the first English historian, Bede. His genius for storytelling has greatly enriched our annals. Green says: "First among English scholars, first among English theologians, first among English historians, it is in the work of Jarrow that English literature strikes its roots. In the six hundred scholars who gathered round him for instruction he is the father of our national education."

By the beginning of the ninth century Wessex was gaining rapidly in strength. For the space of two centuries a continuous effort was in progress for the establishment of a national sovereignty, and it looked as though it was approaching completion when Danish hordes poured across the North Sea, harried the eastern coasts, invaded Kent, and swept down upon London. In their home in Scandinavia and the isles of the Baltic they had been compelled to wage a stubborn

war against climate, soil, and sea. Forays and raids on more fortunate lands seemed a necessity, and in England they soon found a wider sphere of action. Known as Vikings or "creekmen," they came for plunder and slaughter, as did their near kinsmen some centuries before. Christianity and civilisation thus received a further check for a time.

Wessex alone was able to cope with this second invasion of Northmen, and even this kingdom was powerless against them at first. The conquest by the Danes was nothing like so arduous as that by the English. Loose allegiance to their leaders made the conquest a mere transfer from one overlord to another, and it would seem that the lordship of the Dane was at least as welcome as that of Wessex.

It was due to King Alfred of Wessex that the Danes were held in check and denied total ascendancy over England. The story of Alfred and the Danes will be told later.

7. AN ENGLISH FARM

WITH an increased population and a continual state of internal warfare for a long period, it was not at all likely that the land would remain common property, as in the original home of the English, and that all men would be independent and free. In times of stress and danger the weak would seek the protection of the strong. In addition to this, grants of land would be made by the conquerors to those who had shown conspicuous valour or ability for leadership. In this way there emerged in the various districts outstanding figures—men who were probably not only

born to command, but who had also merited positions of authority.

The prominent figure would be the landowner or "lord," and the land he held became known as his "manor." Such was the origin of the "lord of the manor," who held his land from the King or overlord, and paid for it in special duties, or by supplying soldiers for the realm.

Of this manor he retained an appreciable portion for himself; the rest was given over to the use of his tenants. All the inhabitants of the village were his tenants, even the village priest, who held land from him or received as his stipend some of the produce of the manor.

The tenants were of various grades. Next to the lord himself and the parish priest came the freemen. Though designated thus, they were not free in the full sense of the word. They could not sell their lands or leave the manor without the lord's consent, and they were compelled to give the lord of the manor their services on special occasions when there was an abundance of work to be done, or else pay a fixed rate for the land in money or produce. They were also bound to give military service when called upon. But except for these restrictions, which were few for the times in which they lived, they were free men.

Next to the freemen in the grades of labour came the "villeins." These men held a portion of land from the lord, generally about thirty acres, and a house, for which they rendered him service in lieu of rent, as now understood. This service was of two kinds, week-work and boon-work. The former consisted of labour on the lord's own

estate, or demesne, for three days a week, and comprised ploughing, sowing, reaping, and other necessary farm operations. The latter ("boon," a gift or benefit) was rendered at times when the work was especially heavy, as at seedtime and harvest, and it could be exacted when required, though the number of boon days in the year was limited.

Lower down in the scale came the cottars (cottagers) or bordars, who were granted the use of not more than five acres of land and a cottage in return for work on one or two days a week. Neither villeins nor cottars were obliged to give military service. Last of all came the slaves, who did the more menial forms of work and who had the least freedom of all.

The villeins derived their names from the Latin word *villa*, a farm, and were so called because they were "bound to the soil"; that is to say, they could not leave their holding to seek another elsewhere. At least this was so in the early days of the system. They were alternately called "serfs," because of their obligation to serve the lord of the manor. The villein, or serf, was not a slave. He had his rights, although they were few, which a writer describes as "his house and lands, and rights of wood and hay." The rights of wood and hay were those of permitting his swine to feed on the acorns and beechmast (nuts from the beech-trees which abounded in the woodlands), and freedom to graze his cattle in the meadow. There were also "closes" in the village—that is to say, portions of meadow-land set apart for use on special occasions and under special conditions.

In relation to anyone but his lord

the villein was a free man. The villeins were the most numerous class of the agricultural population, forming in some cases as much as 50 per cent. The cottars were smaller in number, reaching in many cases 30 per cent., the slaves smaller still, numbering about 10 per cent.

The proportions of these different classes of tenants varied in different parts of England, according to local circumstances. The proportion of free-men was highest in the eastern counties, a fact traceable to Danish influence, under which a tenant was willing to serve his lord for a free grant of land. The slaves, on the other hand, were most numerous in the south-west and Welsh borders, often reaching 25 per cent., doubtless due to the fact that they were either Britons who were originally slaves, or who had become slaves under English domination. Slaves do not appear at all in some of the eastern districts, and in no case did they survive Saxon times.

Having described the classes of tenants, we must next look to the form of agriculture employed. The whole of the arable land was cultivated on a uniform system. Each field was divided into three parts. In one and the same year one part was sown with wheat (in autumn), the next part with barley or oats (in spring), and the third section was allowed to lie idle or "fallow." Each part was divided up into strips, of about an acre in extent (an acre derived its name from the fact that it was a portion of land that could be ploughed in a day), and the villeins held strips in each part to a total up to the quantity of his holding. The strips were not next to one another, so that fertile and poor

soil should be as far as possible equally shared. This rotation of cultivation went on uninterruptedly, thus:

1. WHEAT	BARLEY	FALLOW
2. BARLEY	FALLOW	WHEAT
3. FALLOW	WHEAT	BARLEY

No fences marked off one man's holding from another, the earth thrown up by the plough being deemed sufficient for the purpose. These natural mounds were known as "balks." Rude hurdles were used where necessary, but they were removed after harvest, so that the cattle might roam at will over the gleaned fields.

This method of agriculture was called the "three-field" or "open-field" system, the former because of the division of each field into three parts for different processes of cultivation, the latter because of the absence of permanent barriers and the throwing open of all fields after harvest. But it should be mentioned that although the three-field system was by far the more common form, a two-field system also prevailed in certain parts of the country, though even under this system one of the two fields lay fallow each year.

Teams of four, six, or eight oxen were employed in the ploughing. Each serf furnished an ox for the team, the ploughman being excused his contribution in return for driving the team. Not only was the team a combined one, but the water-mill which ground the corn was common to the village, and the forge was likewise. In the early days of the Saxon village (the term Saxon is often used for "English," because of the final emergence of the

Saxons) the work of the shoemaker, blacksmith, carpenter, and similar craftsmen, was each common to the whole village, and for their services they received a grant of land like the serfs, but later their work was assessed and paid for in money or "kind." There were few, if any, shops, and all manufactured goods were made to order.

Two oxen seem to have been the usual number held by each serf. It would doubtless have been impossible for him to keep more on the score of expense. Swine were much cheaper to provide for, and these were generally kept in large numbers. They could get the chief part of their food free in the forests and woodlands. Coal was not procurable, and great inroads were thus made upon the forests for fuel and for building purposes.

The Saxon village was practically self-supporting. It could supply all its own wants except salt and iron, and for these two commodities internal trade had to be carried on. Salt is found in few places in England, and iron was found in particular parts only. Each of these articles was necessary. Salt was depended upon to preserve meat during the winter. There were no root crops, not even carrots or turnips, grown in Saxon times, and it was therefore impossible to find food for cattle during the cold parts of the year. The cattle that were kept, and they were very lean, were retained for breeding purposes.

Fresh meat was unobtainable during the winter months. Iron was needed for the forge and the plough. But except for the transport of iron and salt there was no inter-village communication. Indeed, the facilities for

transport were few. The roads which the Romans had laid with such care were neglected by their successors, for the English were a rural and not a town people.

All the inhabitants, from the lord down to the slave, were interdependent. The lord was dependent on his tenants for his food. If he had more than one estate he visited each in turn, as his sovereign did; stayed for a time, and devoured the produce of his local demesne. The tenants were dependent on the lord for the holding, which was their chief support.

It would be a mistake to imagine that the restraint and serfdom were permanent and rigid, or that no rents or payments were made in money. As a matter of fact, freedom of movement and payments in money, though scarcely evident in the beginnings of Saxon agricultural life, were going on progressively, if slowly, all through. After a time freemen could transfer their holdings or quit the manors if they wished. They could change service into money payments, and indeed the villeins who could afford it were allowed to do the same subsequently. The payment in money was often encouraged by the lord himself, who, when in need of ready money for military or other purposes, was glad to accept it in lieu of service.

The Saxon village possessed advantages as well as disadvantages. The form of agriculture employed therein would certainly not suit present-day needs, or fit in with modern methods. But it undoubtedly suited the mode of life and the requirements of the time.

To-day large-scale production is sought after in most branches of

industry, in agriculture as well as in various other forms of the world's work, but in Saxon times life was local, not national; production was carried on for the needs of a small community, not for a large population. It was not as profitable, certainly, at least to the master man, but the worker was sure of employment, and was given a return for his service which enabled him to live in comfort, if not in luxury.

There was a stability about it which modern industry does not possess. The worker was strong and healthy. His living was plain but sufficient, his work physically beneficial, and free from the stress, strain, and anxiety of the present-day industrial world. It was a somewhat cramped existence, certainly, and unlikely to result in national greatness, but though it lacked many of the benefits of present-day activity, it was at least free from vexations and abuses.

One of the chief drawbacks of the system was its uniformity, necessary, no doubt, when work was carried on in a small way, and when internal conflict waged continually through the land, but destructive of initiative on the part of the farmer, and a hindrance to full production.

8. THE DANISH INVASION AND ITS EFFECT ON ENGLAND

THE second invasion of the Northmen shows two lines of attack.

The Northmen of Norway made for the north of Scotland and so passed on to Ireland, whilst their kinsmen, who occupied the old Engleland, swept through Gaul to the south of England.

Wessex, of the English kingdoms, seems to have borne the brunt of the blow, and it was Alfred, the King of Wessex, who consequently played the chief part in defending the country. The attack was probably according to a definite plan, for the Northmen evidently relied on co-operation with the Britons. This co-operation they effected, and many an engagement was fought against the combined enemy, the Northmen and Welshmen. Though these allied forces were defeated many times, the peril seems to have been undiminished.

But the invasions up till this time were in the nature of raids. In 866, however, another of the northern tribes, the Danes, attacked England in strength. Landing in East Anglia, they marched across the Humber to York. Northumbria capitulated after a short struggle; Mercia submitted without a struggle a little later. The Danes proved a furious, relentless foe. Peterborough and Ely were burned to the ground, and the monks were forced to flee in terror. Edmund, King of East Anglia, was brutally murdered; the stately abbey of St. Edmundsbury commemorates his martyrdom.

Of the three chief English kingdoms, only Wessex was unsubdued, and the story of the conflict between Wessex and the Danes forms an interesting and an important episode in the history of the early English.

With Northumbria and Mercia in subjection, the Danes began their march on Wessex. In spite of a few temporary checks they marched through most of the province, and were so much masters of the situation that Alfred was forced to take refuge for a while in the Isle of Athelney. Spend-

ing his time profitably in gaining knowledge of the Danish plans and operations, he ultimately attacked Guthrum and his forces at the battle of Edington. Peace was signed at Wedmore, in Somerset, and though it appeared not at all unfavourable to the Danes, it at least kept the country at peace for some time.

By the treaty all Northumbria, all East Anglia, and half of central England came under Danish rule. The line dividing this district, known as the Danelaw (because the Danish law was in force there), coincided for a large part of its length with the Roman road, Watling Street. The peace saved Wessex, but, as it has been well said, in saving Wessex it saved England. In the Danelaw the most populated parts were the north and the east, the middle portion being only thinly peopled.

To the Danes the territory was conquered territory and nothing else. They were the overlords; the English inhabitants their hirelings. The progress of England lay therefore through Alfred and Wessex. It was in very able keeping. "So long as I have lived, I have striven to live worthily," he said in his later days. The nobility of his character and his whole-hearted desire to do the best for his country mark him as one of the greatest of English monarchs, and one of the greatest of English men. An eminent historian says: "Alfred's victory over the Danes may be reckoned as one of the greatest victories of our civilisation over its enemies and invaders in the Dark Ages."

Having won the land (i.e. Wessex), Alfred's next aim was to win the sea,

so he created a fleet of such dimensions that in the reign of his son a hundred vessels commanded the English Channel.

As a law-giver Alfred was supreme. The laws that were to hand he took and applied impartially, and it has been laid to his credit that in his government lay the first conception of a national law.

But neither Alfred's wars nor laws had a more beneficial effect upon his people than the impetus which Alfred gave to literature. This came, too, at a time when learning, and to a large extent civilisation, had received its death blow. It was Alfred's earnest desire to educate his people, and in this connection no better account of his efforts could be given than in Alfred's own words. In parenthesis it might be pointed out here that occasional references to original documents are a very effective instrument in the hands of the teacher. They give reality to the history lesson, and serve to dissipate the notion sometimes held by children that all history is legend. The following quotation, taken bodily from one of Alfred's personal letters to every bishopric in his dominions, indicates clearly the King's zeal for the welfare of his people.

"So utterly was learning fallen off in England that there were very few on this side of the Humber who could understand their service-books in English, or translate even a letter from Latin into English: and I ween that there were not many beyond the Humber. So few were there of them that I cannot remember even a single one south of the Thames when I succeeded to the kingdom.

"Then, when I remembered all this,

I wondered greatly concerning men of wise and good counsel who of old were throughout England, and had learned all these books fully, that they would turn no part of them into their own tongue.

"Then, I remembered how the law was first known in Hebrew : and again, when the Greeks learned it, then they turned it all into their own tongue, and likewise all other books. And the Romans in like manner, when they learned it, they turned all the books, through wise interpreters, into their own tongue. And also all other Christian people turned some part of these books into their own tongue.

"Therefore it seems better to me, if it seems so also to you, that we too should turn into the tongue which we can all understand certain books which are most necessary for all men to know ; and that we bring it about, that all the youth which now is in England of freemen who have wealth enough to be able to apply themselves to it, be set to learning. Let those, who are to be taught further, and set apart for a higher office (holy orders) be taught further in Latin."

At the beginning of the tenth century, other invasions of Danes began, of which the most formidable were those under Sweyn, King of Denmark. His conquest of England was complete. Wessex fell like the rest of the country, and Ethelred (called the Unready), King of Wessex, was compelled to flee to Normandy. The whole country was ravaged, churches were plundered, and men slaughtered. For a period of thirty years England came under the rule of Danish kings, but though it was under a foreign yoke, the country for the first time became a single

nation. Commerce and trade were promoted by the Danes, and the political importance of the trader began to be evident. Rights of self-government and free speech were revived and laid down in ordinances. A clear connection was brought about with the Continent.

Canute, Sweyn's son, was, like Alfred, a great king. His rule was more like that of a native king than of a foreigner. He introduced no new system of government, consolidating only that which already existed. Canute's reign marked the beginning of a period of tranquillity for England, and with this period of peace came a vast increase in the wealth and prosperity of the country. The death of Canute marked the downfall of Danish rule and the dawn of English restoration.

The settlement of the Danes in England can be identified, it is interesting to note, by the place-names attributable to them. The words "thorp," a village, "dale," a valley, "fell," a mountain, which are to be found in northern and eastern districts, tell of Danish occupation. The termination "by" in Whitby, and Rugby, and other towns is another indication.

A visit to Whitby will reveal the many quaint Danish houses which are a striking feature of the town.

9. THE COMING OF THE NORMANS

AFTER the death of Canute his sons succeeded him for a few years, till in 1042 Edward the Confessor, a descendant of the ancient line of English kings, ascended the throne. His reign gave occasion for a

large influx of Normans, for Edward had been brought up in Normandy, and was naturally partial to Norman life, manners and friends. Norman civilisation at the time was in advance of English civilisation ; French became the adopted language in England, and the French-speaking Normans whom Edward brought over were placed in the highest offices of Church and State. Norman merchants also flocked to London.

This invasion from the Continent bred a good deal of discontent among the English, which was voiced especially by Godwin, a powerful Saxon noble, who placed himself at the head of the English party. Little came of the opposition, however, and Godwin was forced to flee and take refuge at Bruges. His son Harold sailed for Ireland.

It was at this juncture that William, Duke of Normandy, paid a visit to Edward. He saw that the court was surrounded by Normans, that the important offices were filled by them, and he heard French spoken on every hand. Little wonder that he was seized with a desire to rule over England, and such an aspiration fitted in with the temperament of the Normans.

It seems fairly certain that during his visit, William of Normandy was rashly promised the crown by Edward when it should be vacant. Whether this was so or not, William alleged it as an excuse for claiming the English throne on the death of the Confessor. But as soon as William had returned home, Godwin and his son Harold took up arms against the King. Battle was averted, however, by the intervention of the Bishop of London, who

suggested referring the trouble to the Witenagemot. It is worth mentioning that this was the second occasion in Edward's reign on which arbitration was invoked in the place of civil war. Terrible calamities would have been averted in the first quarter of the twentieth century if similar means could have been adopted.

On the death of Edward the Confessor William soon made plans to invade England. He did everything in order. He put in a formal application for the crown, published a statement of his claims, and prepared for an armed invasion of the country.

Landing at Pevensey, he marched straight on Hastings, where Harold had taken up a fortified position on the hill of Senlac, now included in the town of Battle. William's strategy outmatched that of Harold. The English King was killed by an arrow, after a gallant stand, and the Normans were left victorious. Securing his position as he went, William marched through Canterbury to London. There was little organised opposition, for the English leaders had been slain in battle, and William was offered the crown in 1066. It was accepted.

The defeat of the English at the hands of the Normans, painful though defeat always is, was not without its advantages, for as a result of it England was brought from comparative isolation into the family of European nations. The Normans brought with them great political ability, religious zeal and the highest culture then known in Europe.

For several years William's position was contested by the most prominent English nobles, the chief among whom

were Edgar Atheling, Edwin, Morcar and Hereward, the last-named taking his stand at Ely. With Hereward's submission in 1071, the last attempt had been made by the English to recover their independence. It had taken five years to subdue the land. The stoutest opposition had come from the north, but with characteristic determination it was put down by William, who then converted the country between the Humber and the Tees into a vast wilderness. It was William's practice to build strong Norman castles in the areas he had converted, and to provision them well in order to stave off the attacks of insurgents.

For the remainder of his reign of twenty-one years William was engaged in securing his hold on the country. His Norman nobles had to be rewarded with property and power, without being allowed to become too powerful. With this object in view he decided on a great survey of the country, to see how much land each man had, and what payments were due to the King. The investigation was a comprehensive one. It included particulars of ownership, of the population and its division into freemen, villeins, cottars and slaves. The whole information was contained in a volume known as the "Doomsday Book," so called probably because it was a sort of "judgment" book.

To William the survey of the land was of great value. When it was completed, after a period of less than two years, he summoned all the freeholders to swear allegiance to him. By this step William made himself supreme, and though it placed him in the unaccustomed position of an absolute

monarch, it had the advantage of placing the unity of England and the nationality of the English people on a far firmer basis than before.

It has been laid to William's credit that he introduced feudalism into England. But this was not the case. As a matter of historical fact, a form of feudalism was in operation when William came, but the system never existed here to the same extent as it did on the Continent. The very essence of feudalism is the delegation of power to the barons, whereas William and the Norman kings in general were engaged continually in checking the power of the great vassals.

The jurisdiction which feudal courts on the Continent held was considerably weakened in England by the upholding of the Witenagemot and the courts of the shire and hundred. But feudalism prevailed here to the extent that all the land was ultimately held by a grant from the King, and that the grant was made on condition of furnishing military service and paying certain dues.

In 1087 William died at Nantes, owing to an accident whilst riding his horse, and there he passed out of life, "a very wise and a very great man, more honoured and more powerful than any before him."

William was doubtless a hard ruler, and his right to the crown can only be justified on the ground of conquest. But the time had arrived for stern control, for the great earls were assuming such an attitude of independence, and acquiring so much power, that the country might have reached a state of anarchy, with the accompanying oppression of the people, as was exemplified later in the reign of Stephen.

From this fate William saved England. By increasing the power of the crown, by ranging on his side the English people and the clergy against the barons, by enforcing one law and one allegiance he laid the foundation of a strong and united kingdom.

The work which William had done was carried on to a greater or less extent by the remaining Norman kings, and most competently by Henry I, whose Charter of Liberties allayed many of the grievances under which the people suffered. The vigour of control was relaxed under Stephen, when the barons broke loose from all restraint, but fortunately the relapse was only temporary.

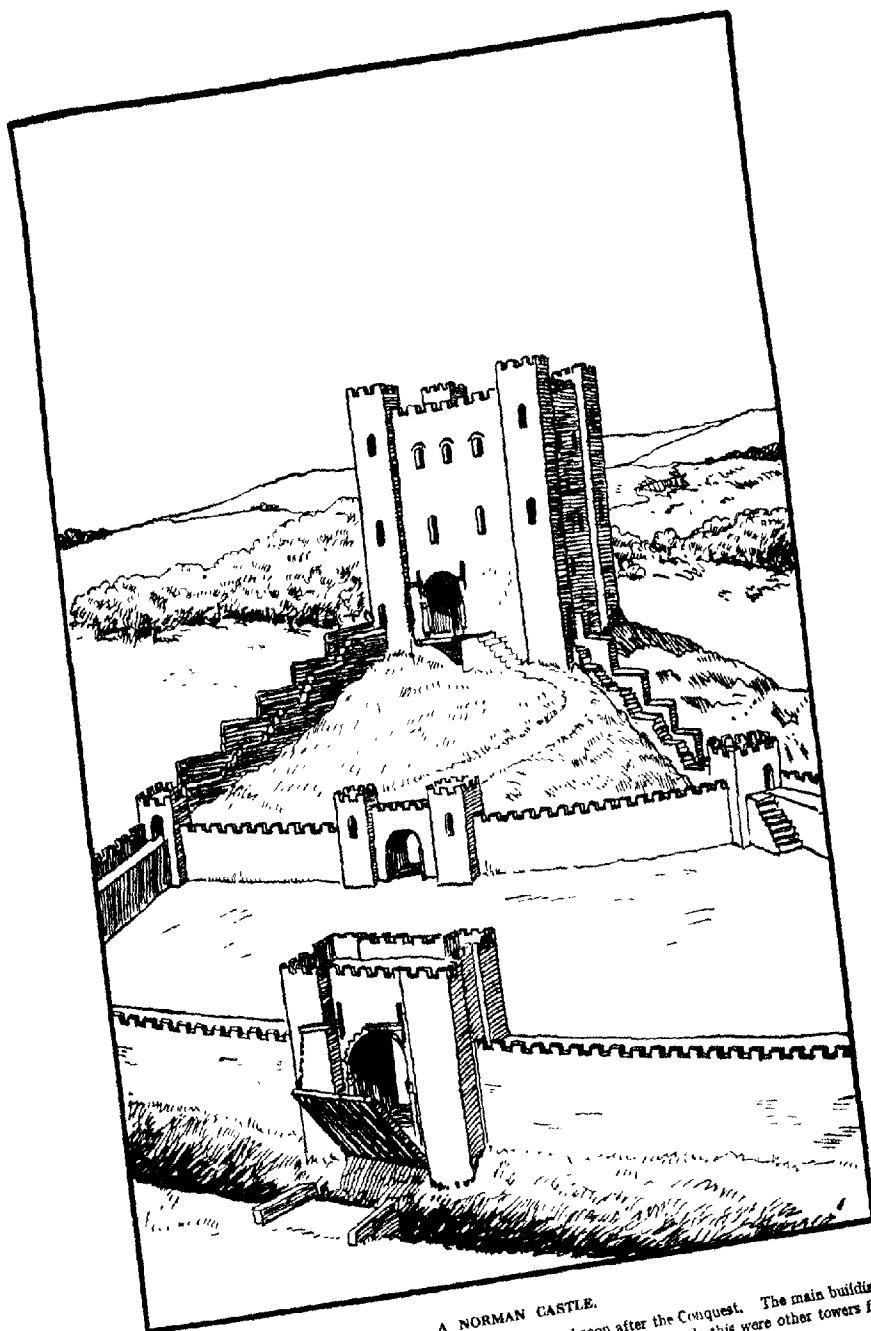
The lawless state of the country during Stephen's reign can be judged from the fact that no less than twelve hundred castles sprang up; and it is said that they were twelve hundred dens of iniquity. Under the refuge of these strongholds, dreadful atrocities were perpetrated by the barons on a helpless people.

But this unhappy close to the Norman period only served to throw into stronger relief the beneficent influences which had already permeated the life of the people through the Norman conquest and settlement, which Professor Somervell summarises thus:

"The Normans adapted themselves to their new manner of life with an energy worthy of their Viking past. They became not merely members but leaders of the civilised society they had joined. A hundred and fifty years later they were building the finest churches of the day; they became the champions of the Papacy and the leaders of the Crusaders. At the time of the Norman Conquest France was the centre of European civilisation, and Normandy was the best province of France."

With Henry II, who followed Stephen, came another reign of power and orderly government. His accession also marks the period when Norman and Saxon were being welded together into a single people. But the process was not rapid; and Sir Walter Scott, in the first chapter of "Ivanhoe," thus gives rein to his feelings on the relationship between the two races:

"A circumstance which greatly tended to enhance the tyranny of the nobility, and the sufferings of the inferior classes, arose from the consequences of the Conquest by Duke William of Normandy. Four generations had not sufficed to blend the hostile blood of the Normans and Anglo-Saxons, or to unite, by common language and mutual interests, two hostile races, one of which still felt the elation of triumph, while the other groaned under all the consequences of defeat. The power had been completely placed in the hands of the Norman nobility by the event of the Battle of Hastings; and it had been used, as our histories assure us, with no moderate hand. The whole race of Saxon princes and nobles had been extirpated or disinherited, with few or no exceptions; nor were the numbers great who possessed land in the country of their fathers, even as proprietors of the second, or of yet inferior classes. The royal policy had long been to weaken, by every means, legal or illegal, the strength of a part of the population which was justly considered as nourishing the most inveterate antipathy to their victor. All the monarchs of the Norman race had shown the most marked predilection for their Norman subjects. The laws of the chase, and many others equally unknown to the milder and more free spirit of the Saxon constitution, had been fixed upon the necks of the subjugated inhabitants to add weight, as it were, to the feudal chains with which they were loaded. At court, and in the castles of the great nobles, where the pomp and state of a court was emulated, Norman-French was the only language employed; in courts of law the pleadings and judgments were delivered in the same tongue. In short, French was the language of honour.



A NORMAN CASTLE.

The Normans built a large number of square castles in England soon after the Conquest. The main building was generally erected on a hill, and in this the lord of the castle lived. Outside this were other towers for the garrison, and round the whole a moat was constructed.

of chivalry, and even of justice, while the far more manly and expressive Anglo-Saxon was abandoned to the use of rustics and hinds, who knew no other. Still, however, the necessary intercourse between the lords of the soil, and those oppressed inferior beings by whom that soil was cultivated, occasioned the gradual formation of a dialect, compounded betwixt the French and the Anglo-Saxon, in which they could render themselves mutually intelligible to each other; and from this necessity arose by degrees the structure of our present English language, in which the speech of the victors and the vanquished has been so happily blended together, and which has since been so richly improved by importations from the classical languages, and from those spoken by the southern nations of Europe.

"This state of things I have thought it necessary to premise for the information of the general reader, who might be apt to forget that, although no great historical events such as war or insurrection mark the existence of the Anglo-Saxon as a separate people subsequent to the reign of William the Second, yet the great national distinctions betwixt them and their conquerors, the recollection of what they had formerly been and to what they were now reduced, continued, down to the reign of Edward the Third, to keep open the wounds which the Conquest had inflicted, and to maintain a line of separation betwixt the descendants of the victor Normans and the vanquished Saxons."

The effect of the coming of the Norman upon the English tongue is vividly brought out in the dialogue of Gurth and Wamba.

"Why, how call you those grunting brutes running about on their four legs?" demanded Wamba.

"Swine, fool, swine," said the herd; "every fool knows that."

"And swine is good Saxon," said the Jester. "But how call you the sow when she is flayed, and drawn, and quartered, and hung up by the heels, like a traitor?"

"Pork," answered the swineherd.

"I am very glad every fool knows that too," said Wamba; "and pork, I think, is good Norman-French. And so, when the brute lives, and is in the charge of a Saxon slave, she goes by her Saxon name; but becomes a Norman, and is called pork, when she is carried to the Castle-hall to feast among the nobles. What dost thou think of this, friend Gurth, ha?"

"It is but too true doctrine, friend Wamba, however it got into thy fool's pate."

"Nay, I can tell you more," said Wamba in the same tone. "There is old Alderman Ox continues to hold his Saxon epithet while he is under the charge of serfs and bondsmen such as thou, but becomes Beef, a fiery French gallant, when he arrives before the worshipful jaws that are destined to consume him. Mynheer Calf, too, becomes Monsieur de Veau in the like manner; he is Saxon when he requires tendance, and takes a Norman name when he becomes matter of enjoyment."

"By St. Dunstan," answered Gurth, "thou speakest but sad truths; little is left to us but the air we breathe, and that appears to have been reserved with much hesitation, solely for the purpose of enabling us to endure the tasks they lay upon our shoulders. The finest and the fattest is for their board; the best and bravest supply their foreign masters with soldiers, and whiten distant lands with their bones, leaving few here who have either will or the power to protect the unfortunate Saxon."

In both extracts it should be realised that though Scott is our greatest historical novelist, and though his fidelity to truth is clearly marked, imagination is the novelist's stock-in-trade.

10. ENGLAND UNDER THE ANGEVIN KINGS

WITH the accession of Henry II there commences what is sometimes known as the reign of the Angevin kings.

Henry was the son of Matilda, the

daughter of Henry I, and Geoffrey of Anjou, and as such was one of the most important monarchs in Europe. He was not only King of England, but Duke of Normandy and Count of Anjou. He held in addition sovereignty over most of France west of the Rhone, and had command also over the greater part of the coasting trade of France. Such possessions were likely to make any king powerful, and emphasis must be laid upon this extension of English rule over French territory, since it affected very considerably our national life for many years. In fact it occupied the attention of our monarchs and statesmen to a greater or less extent up till the loss of Calais, a loss which affected Queen Mary so much that she declared that at her death it would be found "written on her heart."

It is a point worthy of consideration as to what extent England ultimately benefited by her hold on French territory for a period of 500 years, and how far it affected our national growth. Henry immediately concerned himself with abolishing the abuses that had been rampant during Stephen's reign. All the unauthorised castles were levelled to the ground, and the recalcitrant barons forced to submission. Scotland and Wales felt compelled to acknowledge allegiance to Henry. With England at peace, Henry repaired to France, where he stayed for a period of six years, asserting by force of arms his claim to French territory.

This long absence of Henry from England, and the demand on men and money made by his various military expeditions across the Channel, wrought one great change in English affairs.

According to feudal law the tenant-in-chief was bound to supply military service for forty days each year. But this obligation did not answer in the case of service abroad, and Henry found it more convenient to excuse this service on a money payment, from the proceeds of which he could hire soldiers; hence "scutage," as this payment was called, was an indulgence to the King and baron alike, but it loosened considerably the bonds of feudalism. By the hiring of trained soldiers the King became less dependent on his barons. It made feudal tenants less warlike, and as it rapidly became a regular institution, helped appreciably to reduce feudalism to a mere method of land tenure, instead of being, as it was on the Continent, one of the chief bases of society.

The reforms which Henry II effected in the administration of the law added considerably to its equity and effectiveness. In former times civil cases had been decided by the whole body of suitors at the shire-moot, on the oaths of persons who were acquainted with the facts of the case. Henry favoured the services of a body of sworn men, whose testimony was likely to be impartial and more reliable.

The procedure in criminal cases was also much improved. The old English method of ordeal was superseded by the appointment of twelve legal men from each hundred to bring offenders before the King's judges. This was a great step forward. Originally regarded as a sort of regulated revenge, where the whole family of the wronged person maintained a sort of blood-feud against the family of the criminal, justice became the more intimate concern of the State.

In Anglo-Saxon times the kinsmen of the accused were responsible for producing him in court; and if he failed to appear he became an outlaw, and no further protection was given him. If he swore his innocence it had to be supported by the oaths of his friends, called in this case his "compurgators." If this means failed he was put to the ordeal. Inhuman as it seems at the present day this consisted of walking over red-hot ploughshares, carrying for a distance of three paces a bar of red-hot iron, or plunging his bare arm into boiling water. In either case if his wounds were not healed in three days he was regarded as guilty, and dealt with accordingly.

Trial by ordeal was thus a form of justice by superstition; but it was more or less in vogue till the times of Henry II. It was then ordered that when the royal judges came into a county twelve legal men should be chosen from each hundred, and four from each township; and they should present to the judges on oath those who were suspected of robbery or murder. The accused were then put through the ordeal of water. If they failed they were punished as the judges directed, and even if they passed the ordeal they were banished within forty days as worthless fellows.

This body of sixteen may be regarded as the origin of our *grand jury*. It decided whether prisoners should be tried or, in legal phrase, whether a "true bill" was to be returned against them. But the question of guilt or innocence was still determined by the "ordeal."

Fifty years later, in 1216, a council held in Rome by the Pope forbade the use of ordeal altogether, as an institu-

tion too inhuman for Christian people. A substitute for it was found in the formation of the "petty" or little jury. This consisted of twelve sworn men taken from the neighbourhood where a crime was committed, and who were supposed to know the circumstances. If they did not agree others were added till twelve of them were able to give the same decision.

This practice was found to be unwieldy, and the verdict was later given by the original twelve, the additional jurymen acting merely as witnesses. The twelve were required to be unanimous. There was no appeal from the decision, nor was the accused allowed to call witnesses on his own account or be represented by an advocate. The decision was regarded as the judgment of God, and as such it was final. It was assumed, however, that the prisoner should have the benefit of the doubt, if any existed, but in practice this does not seem to have been always observed.

The system of conducting the nation's affairs, which Henry had inherited from his grandfather, was carried on through the reign of his son Richard I, who, occupied with the Crusades, was wise enough to entrust the government of the country to men who had been trained in the methods of his father; and the advantage of this was seen in the combination of the chief parties in the State during the reign of the succeeding monarch, King John. It was against the weakness of this monarch that the parties pitted their strength. His indifference to principle of any kind brought about his ultimate downfall.

It is said of John that "neither truth, nor pity, nor duty stood in the way of

his will. His passions required to be gratified at all costs; being a bad man himself, he judged others by his own standard, and was incapable of appealing to anything higher." His incompetence lost us Normandy, and other French provinces, and so began the reversion of territory to France. This reversion, though contested on several occasions afterwards, was accomplished later.

But the losses had their beneficial effects. The great barons who held lands on both sides of the Channel had to decide which they were to administer. Generally one son took the French and another the English territory, and hence the loss of Normandy anglicised many of the Norman barons, and contributed largely to the fusion of Saxon and Norman. An ancient writer says that about this time the nations were so mingled that it was impossible, speaking generally, to say who was a Norman and who was an Englishman. Still in spite of this, it is remarkable that the use of the French language was still spreading. It was apparently the habitual language of conversation not only at Court, but among the upper classes generally.

John's indifference and incompetence, and the growing power of the barons, caused the latter to decide upon definite steps deemed necessary to compel the King to rule more efficiently. Matters were carried further by Langton reading to an assembly of barons at St. Paul's the charter which Henry I had granted to his subjects, by which, among other things, the Church was declared to be free, and feudal dues reduced. A greater charter than that of Henry I was drawn up by the

barons, and under threat of war John was compelled to accede to its terms in 1215.

It was the first great charter of English liberties. It dealt with the claims of the Church, the barons' feudal dues, the administration of justice and with trade. The Church was "to be free and have all its rights, especially that of freedom of election." Feudal dues were definitely fixed. In the matter of law it was asserted "to none will we sell, to none will we deny right or justice." In practice this justice had been the right of Englishman from the earliest times, but it could not acquire full force till it was included in a legal document. Merchants were to be subject to no exactions, and there was established a proper standard of weights and measures. One of the best features of the charter was the fact that every right granted to a baron was carefully extended to include the case of the simple freeman, for right was denied to none.

It has been well said that

"The importance of Magna Charta lies in the fact that its authors, the barons, stood for law, and set law above the caprice alike of the king and of themselves: that they were supported by the church, by the knights or lesser gentry, and by the towns, which had lately begun to secure charters of self government; and that the incident at Runnymede displayed to the world the spectacle of a bad king brought to his knees by the orderly co-operation of several different classes of his outraged subjects."

Through the rest of John's reign, and during that of his son, Henry III, the charter steered its course more or less untroubled, but the son was almost as much a weakling as his father had

been. His reign, however, was conspicuous in one or two particulars. It was during this time that bands of mendicant friars wrought a religious revolution in England.

Francis of Assisi, son of an Italian merchant, and Dominic, a Spanish monk, deplored the heresies that had crept in both among the upper and lower classes, and believed that the remedy could be found in an order of popular preachers. They thereupon created a band of brothers who were to travel the country and to live on the alms they received from those to whom they ministered. Both Francis and Dominic abandoned the idea of monkish seclusion as the way of religion. Dominic and his followers made a deep study of theology; Francis and his band discouraged study for action, and spent their every hour amongst the squalid and out-cast.

But later, even they discovered that knowledge is power, and that their services would be of little avail unless they could minister to the body and mind as well as to the soul. By dint of study they soon ranked among our earliest physicians, and the Franciscans, whose special mission was amongst the poorest, established the famous order of Grey Friars, whose simple convents were built among the darkest places of the land.

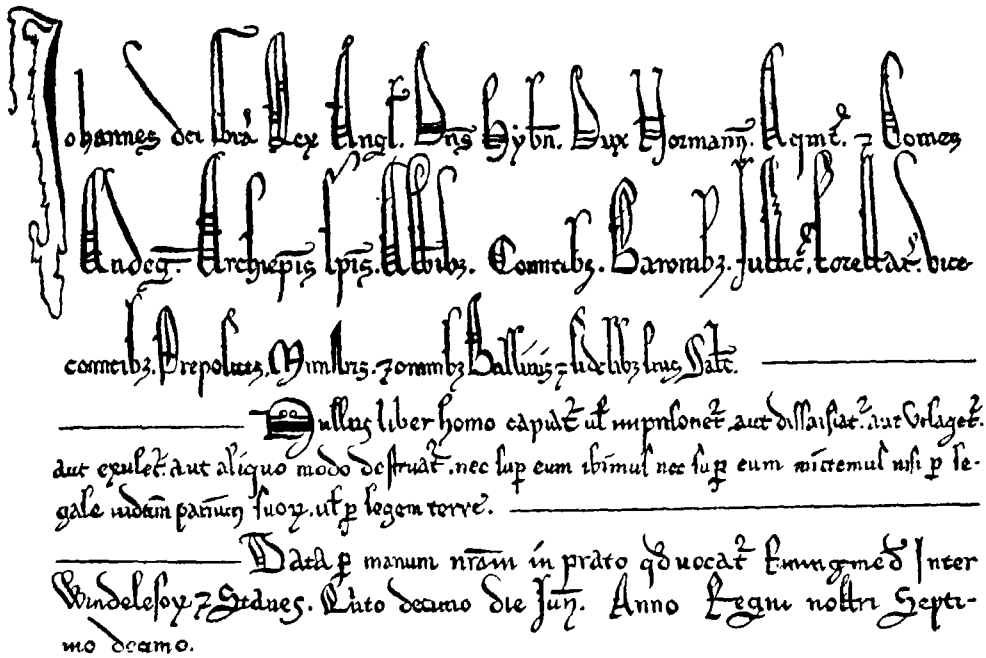
The influence of the friars in England in the thirteenth century was enormous. They were the pioneers of learning and culture, as well as character-builders. They filled the place occupied by the Press of the present-day. Their sermons were the primary source of instruction; the arrival of the friar in town or village was looked upon as the event of the day,

and his words were regarded as the latest news. Thus the influence of the friars gave a great impetus to the spread of popular ideas and the formation of public opinion. Subsequent history will show how learning in England reposed largely in its monks and ecclesiastics for several centuries.

But politically matters were going very badly under Henry, and the country was verging on bankruptcy. The King had surrounded himself with expensive foreign favourites; he became heavily in debt to the Pope for a war which he had conducted on Henry's behalf in order to secure the throne of Sicily for his son Richard; and lastly he engaged in a fruitless war in France. Added to this the foreign favourites were getting quite out of hand and were usurping power.

This state of things naturally aroused and spread discontent, and at last the English barons found a leader in Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester. Civil quarrels arose and civil war was declared. At the battle of Lewes, the decisive one of the war, Simon de Montfort emerged victorious, and he used his power to summon the famous Parliament of 1265.

In point of fact it was not a parliament, but a representative assembly of the supporters of the baronial party. The clergy, however, were well represented, which indicated that the leading baron's policy was fully supported by the Church. Each sheriff was directed also to send two discreet knights from his shire, and the cities and boroughs on which Simon could rely were allowed to send two members each.



MAGNA CHARTA.

A facsimile from an old print of the original charter. The passages shown are a portion of the Preamble, the 46th clause and the Attestation. It will be observed that the language is Latin, which was used at the time in documents. The beautiful capital letters are worthy of note.

It was an irregular assembly in that it consisted of specially selected persons, but it deserves to rank high in the history of parliament, for it established the right of the towns and cities to separate representation. Having met, however, its life was too short to achieve much. Simon was not a popular leader, and Prince Edward was rapidly growing in favour because of his manliness and astuteness. Raising an army, he fought Simon at the Battle of Evesham. The great baron was defeated and killed, but the work which he had done was of permanent value. Through the efforts of the baron, foreign favourites no longer found a place at court, and the idea had taken root of a parliament, representative of the whole nation and to which the King's ministers should be responsible.

II. ENGLAND UNDER THE THREE EDWARDS

EDWARD I came to the throne as a man who had had a long training for kingship. He was thirty-three years of age at the time, and had been brought into contact with the nation's affairs in Wales, Gascony and the East, as well as in England by his wars with the barons. His thoroughness of mind, his careful attention to details and his determination to secure and safeguard his country's rights, marked him out as a monarch likely to further the best interests of his people. His reign will favourably compare with that of any other English sovereign, both for the actual work achieved and the permanence of that work. His love of law and order has

caused him to be known sometimes as "The English Justinian."

Two factors contributed to his success. When he landed in England two years after his father's death, he spent his time here and gave his attention to his country. He was able also to carry his nobles with him instead of having them in opposition, as was the case with so many of his predecessors. This confidence extended to Parliament itself. It speaks well for Edward's tact and sagacity that he looked upon Parliament as the instrument of co-operation, and not merely as a revenue-raising institution. His whole reign is marked by a series of great statutes, dealing with every conceivable subject of legislation.

In his efforts to hammer out a system of English law, Edward had every encouragement from the Continent, for the work of the legal school of Bologna had been the means of creating a body of lawyers trained in the Roman law, in every court in Europe. The thirteenth century may be regarded as a law-making century throughout Europe, and Edward I took full advantage of this activity in legal affairs. Into the particulars of the statutes it is not necessary to enter—suffice it to say that some dealt with the holding of land and the just payment of the revenue arising from the same; others dealt with the defence of the realm, fixing among other things the species of arms which were sanctioned.

Every man between fifteen and sixty was to have arms according to his rank, i.e., according to his property, and the weapons were to be inspected twice a year. The larger land-owners were allowed armour, the smaller had to go without. The man

who held land to the value of £2 could have only a sword, a bow and arrow, and a knife.

Other statutes dealt with the Central Courts of Justice, and here the legislation was so thorough that it marks Edward's reign as an epoch in the history of English law, and it is held by lawyers that many statutes which date from Edward are good law at the present day.

In the administration of justice, which he was so successfully reducing to a system, the summoning of the first really *representative parliament* was an important step. Thirty years before, Simon de Montfort had conceived the idea and brought it into effect, and full credit must be given to the great baron for his pioneer work. Edward convoked his assembly on more representative lines, and on a wider basis. It included representatives of what came to be known as the three estates of the realm—the *clergy*, the *nobility* and the *common people*.

The meeting of this parliament was a great day for England, and marks the beginning of a new era in parliamentary government. The raising of the revenue is interesting reading. The clergy granted one-tenth of their goods, the barons one-eleventh, and the citizens and burgesses one-seventh. By these liberal contributions Edward was supplied with sufficient money to carry out his projects.

Not the least of these projects was his desire to see the whole of the British Isles united under one sceptre.

Wales first occupied his attention. Llewelyn, Prince of Wales, one of the foremost of his line, had allied himself with Simon de Montfort and taken a

prominent part in the struggle between the King and barons. Edward, then Prince only, found it advisable on this occasion to buy off Llewelyn, and this surrender seems to have raised high hopes in the Welsh prince that even under Edward as King, he might make further profit out of what he hoped would be a continued state of disorder in England. But Llewelyn this time had reckoned without his host. Edward invaded Wales and brought Llewelyn into submission.

The English monarch treated his enemy with great generosity, and afterwards set about a scheme of Welsh reconstruction. This consisted in breaking down the tribal system, and dividing the principality into shires. He proposed also to change what he considered the barbarous Welsh laws (among which was the punishment of murder with a fine), for a system of English law. But the Welsh showed a disposition to keep their old barbarous laws rather than to accept the English reformed laws. Through this attempted change a new rebellion broke out, the leader of which was David, brother of Llewelyn, who had formerly been Edward's ally. Forced to surrender, he was executed on a charge of treachery.

Edward was now able to carry out his Welsh policy. He formed shires, substituted English law for Welsh, and established new county courts. He also furthered the commerce of the principality by the establishment of towns, which he filled with English settlers, and it is interesting to observe that these same towns preserved their English tongue up till the time of Elizabeth, though their surroundings were all the time exclusively Welsh.

Scotland presented a more difficult problem, for here Edward met national resistance on a large scale. There were three claimants for the Scottish throne at the time—John Baliol, Robert Bruce and John Hastings—and as the succession could not be settled, Edward, who had established a reputation for the fairness of his decisions, was asked to arbitrate. He consented on one condition, that he should be recognised as overlord of Scotland. To this all three claimants agreed, and a council of Scots and English, the latter of which was appointed by Edward, decided that Baliol's claim was the greatest.

The various parties were agreed, and Baliol did homage and was crowned. But the question of right of appeal afterwards arose, and the aid of France was sought by certain of the Scots. It was not the first time that Scots and French had been in alliance. With matters still seething there, Edward marched to Scotland in person. Baliol meanwhile formally renounced his allegiance and Edward captured Berwick. The Scots, abandoning a strong position on the Lammermuir hills, gave the English battle on the plains of Dunbar, and were decisively beaten. Baliol surrendered, was permitted to retire to his estates in France, and there died.

After receiving the homage of the leading Scots, Edward returned to England, leaving behind English officials as his representatives. But their administration gave great discontent, which was fanned into a flame under William Wallace. The British forces in Scotland were attacked and routed near Stirling, and a provisional government was set up under Wallace.

Edward at this time was in Flanders, but a truce in his operations there enabled him to return home and to set out to meet Wallace. The two armies met at Falkirk, and skilfully handled though the Scots were under Wallace, Edward's more astute generalship carried the day. The defeat was fatal to Wallace's power, and he sought a hiding place in France.

Scotland was not subdued, however, by this reverse. Other leaders arose and maintained opposition to Edward. Later they were compelled to seek for peace also, and a general pardon was granted. Wallace, unfortunately, seemed to show no willingness to submit, and Edward, fearful of his being at large, ordered his execution on the ground of treason. Wallace claimed that as he had never sworn allegiance to Edward there could be no treason. Nevertheless, the sentence was carried out, but his death made Wallace the hero of Scottish independence. Near Stirling his countrymen have erected a noble monument to his memory, overlooking the pleasant plains which have witnessed so many of Scotland's great struggles.

As opposition seemed now at an end, Edward, true to himself, produced a scheme for the government of Scotland. He appointed justices to go on circuit, revised the Scottish law, and arranged for representatives of Scotland to attend the English Parliament.

The scheme was doubtless a good one, and in practice might have been effective, but at this stage there arose one, Robert Bruce, grandson of the former claimant, who seemed fired with a desire to try for the crown. His ambitions were fostered by an out-

burst of national feeling among the Scots. When Edward heard of Bruce's intentions, he began to march north, but, worn out by his strenuous labours during a long kingship, he died on his way, leaving behind him a royal record which has not been surpassed.

In the meantime Bruce had been making rapid progress in Scotland, and had advanced so far that he was able to invade England and ravage the northern counties. Edward II, who had inherited few of his father's good qualities, gave Bruce battle at Bannockburn. The strategy of the Scottish leader, the nature of the battle-ground, in which Bruce was able to make a number of concealed pits, and the incompetence of the English commanders, wrought confusion in the English ranks, and an overwhelming victory for Scotland was the result.

Scottish independence was now complete, and for the remainder of the war the Scots were the aggressors.

Edward II's frivolous and unprincipled behaviour whilst King became intolerable, and Parliament requested him to abdicate in favour of his son. This he consented to do, but his submission unfortunately did not prevent what was unquestionably his murder. In his son Edward III, the nation once more possessed an able ruler, but one who was primarily a soldier. He seems to have regarded his country as a means of furnishing him with men and money for his wars in France. The victories of Crécy and Poitiers have added a lustre to English arms, and the achievements of Edward the Black Prince mark him out as full of chivalry and courage, but it would be difficult to discover what benefits accrued

to us from this long French campaign, except an enrichment of our annals.

The pretext for the war with France arose out of the French King's aid to the Scots when Baliol was placed on the Scottish throne for the second time, and supported by Edward against the national wish. Edward's answer to Philip of France was a claim to the French crown, which he pressed so far, "by the assent of the Lords and at the earnest request of the Commons," that he assumed the title of King of France.

12. THE CONDITION OF THE WORKING CLASSES

THOUGH Edward III's reign will always be famous for the brilliance of its conquests, England suffered a severe disaster at home through the dreadful plague, called the Black Death, which visited this country in the year 1348. It broke out in China, found its way across Europe, reached England, and carried off about one-third of the population.

The towns, as was only to be expected, suffered most, for here the population was densest, and the insanitary conditions of life, which then existed, were more harmful in their effects under such congested conditions. The death-rate was greatest among the poorer classes, as they were least fitted to withstand the disease, and a large proportion even of our sturdy agricultural labourers perished, in addition to town-dwellers. So great was the death-rate that there were not sufficient labourers to reap the harvest or tend the cattle, and corn lay rotting

in the fields, and cattle died of neglect and starvation.

This scarcity of labourers naturally led to a rise in wages, as the labourers now possessed a large measure of independence, and felt it a good opportunity to demand an increase. The landowners were willing to pay this to outbid their fellow-landowners, and also were obliged to do so because they could not obtain labour without. Wages rose in consequence as much as 50 per cent. in some branches of work.

But when wages rise, the prices of goods rise also, though not always to the same extent. In all goods where a great deal of labour is required to produce them, such as in the case of watches for instance, the price is bound to rise considerably if the wages paid for the labour rise; whereas in a case like corn-growing, where little labour is required, the price of the corn will not rise to such a large extent when wages are increased as in the case of watches.

So here the agricultural labourer was fortunate, because the rise in the price of his food was less than the rise in his wages.

Prices rose most, as a matter of fact, in such articles as agricultural implements. Hence the farmers had to pay not only higher wages, but more money for their materials. So they were hit in two ways. But the villeins were much better off than they were before, and this increase in wages enabled many of them to buy themselves free from the yoke of the lord of the manor, and to take their labour where they liked.

Thus the system that had been established since the days of the Saxons.

of binding a man down to a particular piece of land, which was lent to him to cultivate in return for his services to the lord of the manor, received a great blow. It had been slowly but surely declining for centuries, and the Great Plague hastened its end.

But though the scarcity of labour and the increased price of materials were disadvantages to the landowner, they were distinct advantages to the small tenant farmers, who declared that they could not stand the strain of high rents. And this for the same two reasons, viz., having to pay higher wages, and more money for their farming implements. Their complaint was recognised, so the small farmers obtained their land at a cheaper rate.

The number of tenant farmers considerably increased also, for the great landowners found farming much less profitable than before, and hardly deemed the income from it to be worth their close attention. They were glad in consequence to give it up themselves and let out the land for a rental. Owing to this, the tenant or yeoman farmer as he was called, became a greater force in the land, and from this time forward, and for many years to come, the yeoman farmers were the backbone of England. Then a reaction set in.

The troubles and changes in agricultural affairs, together with the loss of wealth on the part of the landowners, and the gain in wages on the part of the working classes, called forth action from Parliament, which was largely made up of landowners. Laws were made forbidding the further raising of wages by the master, or the demanding of an increase by the

labourer. The most important of these laws was known as the Statute of Labourers, which was passed in 1349.

Attempts also were made by the Government to fix the prices of things. All these efforts were unsuccessful, for the simple reason that it is impossible to fix either wages or prices by law. Both are determined in the long run by supply and demand; that is, by the quantity of goods for sale compared with the amount which people require.

Thus the Black Death, despite the fact that it made such havoc with the population, turned out to be a means by which the agricultural labourers of this country, who formed then by far the greater part of the working classes, obtained more freedom, better conditions of service and higher wages.

There was one other factor which assisted in the social improvement of the labouring classes, and that was the teaching of John Wyclif and his wandering friars, who became known as Lollards, a term of contempt derived from the German word "lollen," meaning "to sing." These men preached the dignity of labour and the duty of self-respect. Their efforts to better the condition of the working classes had been preceded by the early English poet, John Langland, who wrote his poem, "The Vision of Piers Plowman," for the purpose of drawing attention to their actual lot.

It has been pointed out that as a result of the Black Death, villeinage—that is, the holding of land on condition of giving service to the lord of the manor—had suffered a severe blow. It was yet to receive its final check. For many years the labouring classes

had been dissatisfied with the system, as it deprived them of freedom and enterprise, and this dissatisfaction had been increased, as mentioned above, by the teaching of Wyclif's wandering friars, who went about the country endeavouring to raise the working classes to a higher social level. It is said that careful arrangements had been made for a long time between these friars and the various unions of working men throughout the land, to rise in revolt when a suitable occasion offered. It may be true.

The occasion soon came. When Richard II ascended the throne, the war with France, which Edward III had waged so successfully, was still going on, though with much less success. Additional money was required, and Richard's Government put new taxes on to the people for the purpose. Those which had been previously raised had been fixed according to the income of the person taxed, so that the rich paid much, the poor little or nothing.

To take an instance, John of Gaunt, the King's uncle, was called upon, on the occasion of an earlier tax, to pay £6 13s. 4d., whilst the poor people paid only 4d. per head. This particular tax was a graduated one, because it proceeded in regular steps from the poorer class of people to the richest. But the extra tax which Richard the Second's Government levied was a poll-tax, that is, it was levied upon the head of every person over fifteen years of age, and none was excused, not even the poorest. Besides this, it was the same for everybody, for prince and peasant, lord and serf.

Added to this injustice to the labouring classes, the taxes were not collected

by the King's officers, but by the agents of the money-lenders who had advanced to the King beforehand the money which the taxes were expected to yield. These agents of the money-lenders were not so courteous, patient and forbearing as the King's own officers would have been, and one of them is said to have insulted the daughter of a man of Kent, Wat Tyler by name.

This adding of insult to injury was the little spark which broke out into a big flame. Everything was ready. The inflammable material was to hand. It merely needed setting alight. Wat Tyler, resenting the insult, killed the tax collector on the spot, and this was the signal for a general rising of the men of Kent under his leadership, and of the men of Sussex under Jack Straw. All over the kingdom revolt broke out.

The rebellion of the men of Kent seems to have been the most formidable. They marched from Blackheath to Smithfield, burning, plundering and, unfortunately, taking life by the way. The burning was the least blameable, for it was carried out with the purpose of destroying for ever the records of their service as villeins, which were kept in the manor houses. Anxious to be free men, they knew that one of the best ways of securing that freedom was to destroy the documents by which they were bound in service to their lord.

At Mile-end Richard met the men of Essex, and on the day after the men of Kent at Smithfield. "What will ye?" said the young King. "We will that you free us for ever, us and our lands, and that we be never named or held as villeins." In other words, their demands were that they should be allowed

to pay rent for land instead of service. The rent suggested was 4*d.* per acre, or about 3*s.* 4*d.* in present-day money. They also claimed the liberty to buy and sell in fair markets.

Richard promised to grant them their requests, and the peasants went home pacified. But the King did not keep his promise. Maybe he never intended to do so, and naturally the rebellion still smouldered, though gradually it died out. The immediate result was a victory for the King, but the real and lasting result was a crowning victory for the peasants. Villeinage was practically at an end, and though slight traces of it were visible right up to the time of Queen Elizabeth, it rapidly dwindled after the peasants' revolt.

But despite the fact that villeinage was a great drawback to the labouring classes, and a hindrance to the progress of the country as a whole, it would be wrong to suppose that the working people of the time were badly off. As a matter of fact the wages that were paid were good, and food was plentiful. The former, it will be remembered, had risen 50 per cent. since the Black Death, whilst the price of food had not increased in as large a proportion.

It has been said that this was quite a Golden Age for the English labourer, though probably this description is as fanciful as that of the "good old days" one hears so much about. The prices of the time certainly point to cheap food, and though these prices must be multiplied by at least ten in order to compare them with those of to-day, they will still appear very favourable. A pig could be bought for 6*d.* ; a pound of beef for a halfpenny. The labourer's wages were £4 a year, but this was good

in proportion to prices, and the labourer had something to spare.

Again, employment was regular and constant. There were none of the rapid changes and uncertainties usually connected with trade when it is conducted on a large scale, as in modern times. The labourer, in addition, had the right in those days to pasture his cattle on the common grazing-ground free of charge. There were drawbacks to his lot, of course. His meat was principally salt meat, and this, when eaten to any extent, is likely to cause certain diseases. His house was a rude dwelling, built of mud, sticks and clay, for the art of brick-making which had been introduced by the Romans had fallen into decay, and only the dwelling-houses of the wealthy were built of brick or stone.

13. THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES

THE reign of Richard II presents many contrasts. For a period the King governed constitutionally through his ministers and according to the advice of Parliament, but the latter years of his reign were so wanting in vitality that his deposition was finally decided upon. But it is somewhat singular that during this period the condition of the peasants was greatly improved, and the crowning point was reached in one of our greatest epochs of English literature. Out of evil seemed to come good.

The fourteenth century in itself was remarkable throughout Europe for the displacement of Latin and the substitution of native tongues. In England

a double displacement took place. French had shared honours with Latin, the former being the language employed at Court and castle, the latter in legal and literary matters. The French war was one factor which wrought a change, for it is to be noticed that in all State documents French was used less than formerly, whilst later it was forbidden in courts of law.

It died hard, however, and the "Oyez, oyez," of the town-crier, which has survived, affords a slight proof of it. It was the advent of Wyclif, Chaucer and Langland which did more than anything to oust Latin and French, and install English as our literary language, in poetry as well as prose.

Wyclif's part was the translation of the Bible, and the issue of religious tracts.

Geoffrey Chaucer wrote much, but his best-known work was the "Canterbury Tales," in which he gives a vivid picture of most of the characters of his time. The English of this great poem took a strong hold of the people, and helped considerably to make the position of our mother tongue secure.

William Langland's efforts in this direction were equally serviceable; whilst his chief work, "The Vision of Piers Plowman," combined politics with literature, revealing as it did the real grievances of the peasants and the feeling which led them to revolt.

During the early part of the fifteenth century we were again at war with France. The pretext was doubtless inherited from the reign of Edward III. The war was, in fact, a continuance of the struggle between that monarch and

France. There was an additional reason in that Henry felt it advisable to find an outlet for the warlike energy of his nobles. Continental wars in the Middle Ages seemed to have been part of the life of the nation. Parliament readily gave its consent and granted the money, which was a clear indication that agricultural England became prosperous again after a few years of peace. Henry V, a warrior King, believed thoroughly in the justice of his demands, which consisted of the restoration of Normandy and several other French provinces.

The Battle of Agincourt will always redound to the credit of Henry and add lustre to the British arms. His success made him the most renowned of European sovereigns. But even after Agincourt the English hold on France was very insecure, and it was not very much strengthened by the two other campaigns which the King undertook. The issue of the war might have been more definite if Henry had not fallen a victim to dysentery at the early age of thirty-four.

The campaign in France was then carried on by his brother, the Duke of Bedford, one of the regents during the minority of the child King, Henry VI, and English fortunes fluctuated from time to time. At last Bedford laid siege to Orleans, and though the city fell at first, the disaster was afterwards retrieved through the inspiration of Joan of Arc, a girl of eighteen and the daughter of a peasant. As a result of her patriotic fervour, Charles the French dauphin was crowned King as Charles VII.

The English, however, recovered from this set-back, but the heroic Joan of Arc, to the disgrace of all con-

cerned, was tried and condemned as a witch by a court of Norman and Burgundian prelates.

Meanwhile a peace party was forming in England which felt that the country was not strong enough to establish a sovereignty over France in the face of French national feeling. The party received valuable support from Henry VI as soon as he came of age (he was only nine months old when he became nominally King). The subsequent marriage of Henry with Margaret of Anjou promoted peace still further.

Affairs at home occupied the attention of Henry for the rest of his reign, a continual feud going on between the Duke of York and the Duke of Somerset as to who had the greater claim to be the King's chief adviser. The feud culminated in civil war, and York was ultimately slain at the battle of Wakefield. Henry VI was dethroned, however, in the following year, and York's son became King as Edward IV.

The wars between the House of Lancaster represented by Henry VI, and the House of York to which Edward IV belonged, were known as the Wars of the Roses, because the emblem of each side was a rose. They were so complicated and of such little consequence that reference need not be made to them in detail. The Lancastrians were routed by Edward IV at Towton, and during his reign a seven years' truce was declared with France.

Edward died prematurely, and his son, a boy of thirteen, was proclaimed King by the Council. His reign, if such it may be called, was of short duration. Within the same year a claimant to the throne arose in the

person of Richard, Duke of Gloucester, the brother of Edward IV, and consequently the young King's uncle. Richard's reputation as a soldier was known far and wide, and he was also esteemed as an excellent administrator. His claim to the throne met with popular approval and his declaration that he was an hereditary as well as an elected King was accepted.

His reign was short, but it was marked with a desire to dispense justice and uphold public morality. The blot upon it was the murder of the dethroned young King Edward V and his brother, in the Tower, which history has ascribed to Richard himself. The King's right to the throne, however, was to be contested later by Henry Tudor, a descendant of John of Gaunt, and the issue was decided at Bosworth Field, where Richard III was killed. Henry assumed the crown as the result of his victory, and as he was of royal lineage, also by descent. His marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV, strengthened his position on the throne.

With Henry's accession the House of Tudor began. His most noteworthy achievement was his resolute action in Ireland, where he placed Sir Edward Poynings as deputy. Under his wise administration, laws were passed which were aimed at controlling the great English settlers who had got out of hand, and were assuming too much authority. By his enactments no Parliament could be assembled in Ireland without the consent of the King of England and his Council; no bill could be considered by an Irish Parliament unless it had been previously approved by the English Council; and all laws passed by the English Parliament were to be binding

on Ireland. These enactments were the means of securing a large measure of stability in Ireland for many years.

Henry VII's reign may be considered as the end of a definite epoch in English history. It instituted a higher standard of law and order, and paved the way for the reception in this country of the Great Revival of Learning, sometimes called the Renaissance (i.e. the "new birth"). The movement had its roots in Italy. The taking of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453 caused the dispersion of Greek Scholars throughout Europe. Five years later also, Erasmus, the great Flemish scholar, came to England and was hospitably received.

Geographical discovery also was stimulated. Vasco da Gama, the Portuguese, doubled the Cape of Good Hope and found his way to India; John Cabot, with a British ship manned by British sailors, set sail and reached the mainland of North America. These discoveries changed considerably the political importance of the nations. The countries bordering on the Mediterranean now had to concede some of their prestige to the western ports, Cadiz, Lisbon, Bordeaux, Bristol and London, which the discovery of the route to America had opened up.

Caxton had appeared with his printing press in 1471, and the first new book, "The Game and Playe of the Chesse," appeared in 1474. Gunpowder had been in use since the time of the battle of Crécy, and with its greater use the armoured knight gave way to the plebeian soldier.

So to summarise: The discovery of America, the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, the revival of learning, the introduction of printing,

and the invention of gunpowder are the great events which mark the change from mediæval to modern Europe, which latter may be said to date from the time of Henry VII.

14. THE OLD ENGLISH GILDS

IN LESSON FORM

Definition

A GILD (or "Guild," as it is sometimes written) was a body of persons belonging to the same trade, who combined for purposes of mutual help and protection.

The Merchant Gild

The most important form of gild first established in England was the Merchant Gild, and the earliest one was formed about the year 1100. It was an association of all those who bought and sold in the town, and its object was twofold: To ensure a fair price to the buyer, and a fair profit to the seller. Their methods of obtaining these objects were:

1. Keeping all the trade in the hands of members of the gild by allowing non-members to deal wholesale only, and with members of the gilds only.

2. Insisting that all selling should be done in the open market. This was to prevent what is at the present day known as "cornering," by means of which buyers hold large stocks and will not sell till they can command unreasonably high prices.

3. Aiding and protecting their members. The gild could sometimes be made responsible for its members' debts. It was also an insurance company against sickness and poverty,

and sick members were visited and supplied with necessities.

The Craft Gilds

Half a century later another form of gild was formed. This gild consisted of those who plied any particular trade, and it became known as the Craft Gild. As the Merchant Gilds were to a large extent commercial gilds, so the Craft Gilds were industrial. The latter chiefly concerned the producers, the former the distributors.

The first craft gild was that of the Weavers, and this was followed by many others, such as the Fishmongers and Cordwainers. The objects of the Craft Gilds were much the same as those of the Merchant Gilds.

The Working of the Gilds

The religious functions of the gilds were important, and they were strictly observed. Pageants and plays were a great feature of these gilds.

The regulations laid down by the Craft Gilds were carefully thought out and strictly enforced, and they exerted a great influence on English workmanship.

They paid careful attention to :

1. *Apprenticeship*, so that every artisan should be a skilled craftsman. Such apprenticeship was usually of seven years' duration.

2. *Supervision*.—To ensure good quality in all manufactured goods, a system of careful supervision was established. Overseers were appointed to see that no unfinished or faulty work was offered for sale. Offenders could be brought before the Court of the Gild, and penalties and fines inflicted. A perusal of some of the old documents

reveals many of the malpractices of the time. Punishment was meted out for "Putting better wares on the top than below ; moistening groceries to make them heavier ; selling second-hand furs for new, and soldering together broken swords." Some of these devices are not unknown at the present time, and often go unpunished.

Night work was forbidden, and this for two reasons. Firstly, supervision was much more difficult than in the daytime, and secondly, the artificial light was so poor that it was impossible to do thorough work by it. In these days of incandescent and electric light this drawback would not exist.

3. *Membership*.—All who were engaged in craftwork were compelled to join their particular gild, and no one could practise the craft without doing so.

4. *Fellowship*.—The members of the gild were not expected to go to law against each other until they had laid their case before their own Courts. This is a useful lesson to later workmen in the matter of arbitration. In addition to this, members were not expected to rival each other, but to help one another in every possible way. This dispensed with the "cut-throat" competition which is often a feature of modern-day trading.

The value of the old gilds was very great. They established a reputation, which still endures to a large extent, for *quality* in English goods. They were mutual-help societies, and they stood for the welfare of the workers.

The Great City Companies

In the later days of the gilds, the Craft Gilds strove with the Merchant



THE LONDON GUILDHALL.

The greater part of the Guildhall, situated off Cheapside, London, was erected of oak in 1411, Richard Whittington, then Lord Mayor of London, paying for the paving. The strength of the structure enabled it to withstand the ravages of the Great Fire, though the roof was destroyed.

Gilds for supremacy, and the former came out pre-eminent. By the close of the fourteenth century they had acquired such power that the municipal government of London came into their hands. They became henceforth the civic companies, or city corporations of London. The members were entitled to wear the livery of their respective companies, and on this account the corporations were called "Livery Companies," and the members "Liverymen." There are more than seventy such companies in London at the present time, the chief of which are the Clothworkers, Drapers, Fishmongers, Goldsmiths, Grocers, Haberdashers, Ironmongers, Mercers, Mer-

chant Tailors, Salters, Skinners and Vintners.

Many of these companies have established large public schools. The Fishmongers' Company still exercises some control over the fishing industry, especially with regard to Billingsgate Market, and the Goldsmiths are still connected with their craft, but the remainder have become more or less benevolent and charitable societies.

Comparison with Trade Unions

A comparison will now be made between the old English gilds and modern trade unions, but it will be chiefly for purposes of contrast. They

had one point of resemblance, it is true, in that both of them were institutions for co-operation and mutual help, and for the seeking of that "unity" which is "strength." But it would be erroneous to think that trade unions are a development of the old guilds.

1. In the first place they had a different origin. Trade unions were brought into being, owing to the changed conditions of employment at the time. Previous to the Industrial Revolution the organisation of industry was very simple. Large numbers of the working classes were producers on their own account. But with the introduction of machinery and steam-power a much larger and more complex organisation arose, and the workman was compelled to join the employed class, in other words, to work for a master and for a weekly wage.

The two classes, employer and employed, became quite distinct, and though it need not necessarily have been the outcome, their interests were often opposed to each other. Thus trade unions had their origin in mutual protection against employers. They received an early impetus through the rise of unrestricted competition, which the Government of the time considered the best for industry. It was known as the policy of "*laissez-faire*," that is "leaving people alone." The wage-earners who became the victims of this competition urged that the old statutes which fixed wages should be put into operation.

2. Trade unions concerned themselves more and more as time went on with political activities, though some reaction against this state of things has taken place recently.

3. The separate unions are not

mutually exclusive as were the old guilds, but show a strong tendency to amalgamate.

4. *Skilled* and *unskilled* workers have their trade unions.

5. The Unions are largely concerned with the standard of wages, the fixing of hours, etc.

6. They are not averse to international alliance. The old guilds were highly national.

Conclusion

Every attempt should be made in teaching history to avoid political bias, and the danger of introducing it is greatest in a lesson of this description. An attempt has been made here to chronicle history and facts only, and to introduce no theory. The truth will be found in the fact that both institutions were called forth by the needs of the time. They both had their advantages, as well as their drawbacks and limitations.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

GILDS. WHAT THEY WERE

1. *Merchant Gild* (commercial).
 - (a) objects.
 - (b) methods.
2. *Craft Gilds* (industrial or technical).
 - (a) Kinds: Weavers, Fishmongers, Cordwainers, etc.
 - (b) objects.
 - (c) methods.

THEIR WORKING

1. Apprenticeship.
2. Supervision.
3. Membership.
4. Fellowship.

THEIR POWER AND INFLUENCE

1. *Craft versus Merchant Gilds*.
2. Companies and Liverymen.
3. Schools and Charitable Societies.
4. *Gilds versus Trade Unions*.

15. CHURCH AND STATE

IN LESSON FORM

Early History of the Relationship

THE reign of Henry VIII is conspicuous for the attitude which the King adopted concerning the Church, and in this connection the name of Wolsey stands out prominently. Promoted by Henry to be Archbishop of York, he also held the secular office of Chancellor. After the lapse of two years from his appointment as Archbishop, Wolsey, by the consent of the Pope, was made a cardinal, and also raised to the dignity of papal representative in England. Henry's plan of rewarding his secular officials by giving them preferments in the Church should be carefully observed as, though it was calculated to increase the King's power over the Church, it was also likely to be injurious to the Church itself, in that it tended to secularise it, and to dim its religious fervour.

This difficulty of the alliance between Church and State was seen in the case of Henry II and Becket. The latter, like Wolsey, was elected Chancellor by the King, and in this capacity he had much to do with the institution of "scutage" and its collection. Thomas à Becket was undoubtedly a great Chancellor, who threw himself with zeal and capacity into all Henry's plans. Added to this he still held the archdeaconship of Canterbury under Archbishop Theobald. In the matter of "scutage" it was felt by the clergy that Becket had been hard on his own order, that he had sunk too many of his religious scruples in his lay capacity of Chancellor. When also he appeared

in full armour at Toulouse and personally overthrew a French knight in single combat, he added military prowess to his other qualities.

Henry was delighted with Becket's versatility, and when Theobald died, the King determined that Becket should add to his office of Chancellor that of Archbishop. By this means both the civil and ecclesiastical administration would be in the hands of his trusted servant.

The occasion served to reveal Becket's real feelings, for he was no sooner appointed Archbishop than he showed that his religious duties were much nearer to his heart than the secular. Rising to the full demands of his new office he resigned the Chancellorship. It was a momentous decision, for it marked the occasion for a revival of the ecclesiastical power, which had for years been overshadowed by the State.

Clerical versus Lay Courts

The first cause of conflict between Henry and Becket arose over the question of the right way of dealing with clergy who were accused of crime. William the Conqueror had decreed that all clerical cases were to be tried in ecclesiastical courts, according to Church law, and the lay authorities were directed to aid the clergy in carrying out the sentences of their courts. But the Church authorities seemed more inclined to appeal to Rome instead of the English Courts in matters under dispute, a contingency which William had probably never foreseen.

There was another difficulty. The ecclesiastical courts could only impose

finer, or imprison, or unfrock a cleric. They had no power over life or limb, and the measure of punishment was insufficient for serious criminal offences. Under the title "clergy," also, large numbers of people who had only a slender connection with the Church claimed the comparative immunity of the clerical courts.

Henry considered that Church officials accused of serious crimes should be subject to the jurisdiction of the lay, as well as the clerical, courts. Neither King nor Archbishop would give way, and Henry in his wrath at Becket's rigid opposition is said to have exclaimed, "Are there none of the cowards eating my bread who will rid me of this turbulent priest?" Four knights took him at his word, and murdered Becket at the altar of the cathedral. For his rashness of speech Henry made deep and sincere atonement, and for several years the ecclesiastical courts held their unchallenged privileges. It was only by slow degrees that the State recovered its hold over Church and clergy.

Wolsey's Rise and Fall

Wolsey, as Archbishop and Chancellor, kept a more even balance between the two offices, but he could not help being impressed by many disorders that had crept into the Church. The condition of the monasteries became his early concern. Since the introduction of printing and the revival of learning the monasteries could no longer claim to be the sole seat of culture. Many, as a matter of fact, had come to be peopled by wealthy landed proprietors, and the standard of life in these monastic institutions

had considerably deteriorated. Wolsey accordingly dissolved some of the smaller monasteries himself, and so paved the way for the wider and more ruthless measures of Henry VIII later. It must be credited to Wolsey that a good deal of the wealth which accrued from the suppression of these smaller monasteries was devoted to founding schools and colleges.

The fall of Wolsey, which was largely due to the fact that he was unable to procure for Henry sanction for the divorce of Katharine, marks the end of clerical power in matters of government. Since the institution of the office the Chancellorship had, with few exceptions, been held by a bishop. The new Chancellor, Sir Thomas More, was a layman, and the author of "Utopia," a work describing the evils of the time and suggesting a scheme for an ideal commonwealth.

With a layman in power Henry began to evolve a plan for dispensing with the power of the Pope, in order that his divorce could be accomplished. He knew this could not be done unless he had the nation with him, and he accordingly summoned a special Parliament for the purpose. This Parliament may be regarded as the first modern type of Parliament in England. Its session extended, not over a few weeks as formerly, but over seven years. This reformed Parliament paved the way for Henry's scheme of Reformation in the Church.

The Position of the English Church before the Reformation

1. The Church of England had been connected with the Church of Rome since the landing of St. Augustine in

597, and the Pope was acknowledged as head of the Church.

2. Appeals had been allowed from the ecclesiastical courts to the papal court at Rome.

3. Peter's pence had been paid to Rome from early times, and all clergymen had paid a tax to the papal authority.

4. The Pope had acquired great influence in the disposal of bishoprics.

5. The monastic orders were under the authority of the Pope.

6. The Pope was represented by a papal representative, known as a legate.

Objects of the Reformation

The Reformation, brought about by Henry VIII, was of an ecclesiastical nature, and was wide in its scope. It had three main objects:

1. To separate the Church of England from the Church of Rome.

2. To reform the abuses in the Church. This brought about the abolition of the monasteries.

3. To change the doctrine of the Church of England and so make it distinct from that of Rome.

Object 1. The Separation

The links between the Church and the State enumerated above were all gradually swept away by Henry, but it should be remarked that in so doing he had no desire to deviate from the principles of the Catholic Church. His most decisive step was to compel the Convocations of Canterbury and York

to recognise him as the "supreme head of the Church and clergy so far as the law of Christ will allow." After obtaining this concession Henry took no further steps in the process of separation, and continued relations with the Pope for several years longer.

But the first step in separation had been definitely taken.

The last step was the Act of Supremacy, passed by Parliament in 1534. By it the King became "supreme head on earth, after God, of the Church of England." It is an unfortunate circumstance that two of the greatest men of the time, Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, and Sir Thomas More, were executed because they strongly opposed the Act of Supremacy. It must be realised that the issue at stake was a vital one, and that the times were intolerant.

Object 2. The Reform of Abuses

Chief among the reform of abuses was the suppression of the monasteries. The devolution of the Pope's authority in England had brought the monks under the direct jurisdiction of the King, and no one resented this change more than the monastic orders. So the monasteries were apt to be the abodes of opposition and discontent.

The case against the smaller monasteries seems to have been also one of falling away from grace. The stern discipline and severe manner of life, the piety and self-denial which had formerly characterised the monks were fast disappearing in the case of the smaller institutions, and to a less extent in some of the larger. But in spite of this the chief charge against them seems to have been the wealth

they were accumulating and squandering, and the political and economic power they were acquiring.

The amount of revenue which their dissolution brought in was very large. Some of the monasteries held out for a short time against the King; others surrendered readily. Those abbots and monks who had not rebelled were treated liberally. In the case of the others their property was confiscated.

The dissolution of the monasteries had two effects. First, the distribution of the land among laymen created a set of grasping landlords who, to make more money, turned fertile lands into pasture grounds, and second, the poor and sick were deprived of the large measure of charity which they had received at the hands of the monks.

Referring to the confiscation of property, Hilaire Belloc says: "It was a revolutionary undertaking such as Europe had not seen until that moment, and perhaps has not seen since. It was effected with ease, because there did not reside in the public opinion of the time any strong body of resistance."

Object 3. Change of Doctrine

For the third purpose of the Reformation in England we must refer to the reign of Edward VI. Somerset, Protector during the King's minority, instituted drastic changes in the Church. Images were to be pulled down, and frescoes on the walls white-washed; mass was to be abolished, and the service was to be read in English.

A new prayer book was also issued, which, with a few revisions it holds to-day, was a model of beautiful English and of sincere devotion. During the reign of Mary, some of the eccle-

siastical legislation of Henry VIII and Edward IV was set aside, but it was only a temporary achievement. When Elizabeth ascended the throne the country had experienced two extremes in religious matters—extreme Protestantism under Edward VI, and extreme Catholicism under Mary. Elizabeth was anxious to find a golden mean, and to formulate a church service likely to be acceptable to the moderate people of both parties. Many of the clergy, who were unable to accept the compromise, resigned and their places were taken by men who adopted the new Protestant faith and practices of Elizabeth.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

CHURCH AND STATE

HISTORY OF THE RELATIONSHIP

1. *Henry II and Becket:*

- (a) The reasons for Becket's rise to power
- (b) The reasons for his changed attitude towards the King.
- (c) Becket's death and the consequences.

2. *Henry VIII and Wolsey:*

- (a) The reasons for Wolsey's rise to power.
- (b) Henry's scheme for the Reformation of the Church.
 - (1) Separation from the Pope.
 - (2) The reform of abuses and the dissolution of the monasteries.
 - (3) The change of doctrine, the King and not the Pope to be head of the English Church.
- (c) The reasons why Wolsey fell from royal favour.
- (d) The results of the struggle between Henry VIII and Wolsey.

3. *Edward VI.* A new prayer book—with few alterations—still in use.

4. *Queen Elizabeth*, tried to find a mean between the extremes of Mary's and Edward VI's reigns.

16. THE FLOURISHING TIMES OF ELIZABETH

ONE of the periods of greatest development in this country was that of Elizabeth's reign. A new class of people was becoming a power in the land. The old aristocracy had consisted of landowners, but a new aristocracy was arising in the shape of successful merchants. Trade now came to be looked upon as an honourable calling, and new honours were bestowed upon those who followed it. London became a great centre of activity, and took the place of Bruges and Antwerp, the old markets of Europe.

Every attempt was now made to keep foreign merchants out of England, though *workmen* from abroad were encouraged to come and settle here. This they were only too glad to do in many cases, as an escape from religious persecution. Living as we do now in an age when men and women are allowed to think for themselves, and hold their own beliefs, it is hard to understand that people were persecuted, and even put to death, because they did not follow the particular form of religion adopted by their own State.

The greater part of these refugees came from Flanders (which comprised what is now known as Holland, Belgium and a small part of North-east France). Many settled in Kent, but a larger number migrated to Norfolk, which at that time was the chief seat of the woollen manufacture, with Norwich as the centre.

It was in the direction of weaving that the Flemings, i.e., the men of Flanders, taught us so much. Although this had been an English

industry for centuries, it was confined to the coarser kind of cloth. The Flemings taught us how to weave the finer forms. In addition to this they introduced the lace manufacture into this country, setting up the industry in the Midland counties. They were experts in the art of building, the making of cutlery, hats and caps, pottery and clocks.

As a result of this peaceful invasion of the Flemings the standard of English manufacture was considerably improved, the number of industries greatly increased and other elements introduced into the national character, which helped to awaken it to its new activities. Up till this time strength had been the chief feature of English workmanship. Now elegance and finish were introduced, and with these qualities combined, our goods gained a reputation the world over. Much of that reputation remains at the present day, and it is hoped that it will be sustained.

As Elizabeth's reign is renowned for advance in industry and trade, so, in an equal degree, it is remarkable as being an age of discovery and adventure. Exploration and conquest generally precede trade. The names of Drake, Raleigh, Frobisher, Davis, Hawkins and Sir Humphrey Gilbert will live for ever in the annals of the sea. The first-named roamed over the world at large; Raleigh discovered Virginia, and brought the potato and tobacco into England; Frobisher and Davis sailed to the icy regions of the North; whilst Hawkins journeyed to the West Coast of Africa to ship negroes as slaves to the American plantations.

Slave-trading in early days was not looked upon as inhuman or cruel. It

was argued that the negroes were better off as slaves than they were in their native haunts. But this notion is a very questionable one. Yet because of this opinion it was not till 1807 that trading in slaves was abolished in the British dominion.

It was for power, profit and trade expansion, as well as for glory and love of adventure, that these daring spirits set out. Profit they certainly acquired, and it has been aptly said that they "set out with sails of canvas, and returned with sails of silk." Their methods may have savoured of the pirate, but things were different in the days of old, when a common code of sea laws for all nations was hardly thought of. Certainly these old-time sailors were a wonderful race of men, brave and loyal to a high degree.

There were other acts of Elizabeth and her statesmen which helped in a large measure to increase our national power. The coinage was considerably improved. Henry VIII and Edward VI had lowered the metal value of the money used during their reign or, as we say, debased the coinage. They did this in two ways. They issued smaller coins, and put less pure metal into them also.

As a consequence of this interference there were as many as three different kinds of shillings, and four different kinds of sixpences, when Elizabeth came to the throne. The result was that, as the money was of less value, more of it had to be given in exchange for goods, or, in other words, prices were raised. Added to this there was a continual uncertainty as to what the coins were really worth, which is always very injurious to trade, for

foreigners who send goods to England naturally demand money of full value in payment.

Elizabeth's ministers saw that trade would make little headway unless our coins had a proper, reliable value, and one of their first measures was to reform the coinage.

An important feature of the legislation of Queen Elizabeth's reign was that it collected together into one system the laws of many of the preceding reigns. This was the case with the labour laws as well as with others. The Gilds, at the time of their greatest power, had insisted on an apprenticeship in the different trades. They had also taken upon themselves to fix the rates of the wages for workmen. In the trades for which there were no Gilds, the Government attempted to fix a scale.

Elizabeth's Parliament took the matter up more earnestly and thoroughly, and passed, in 1563, a law known as the *Statute of Apprentices*, which not only laid down rules for the apprenticing of youths to a trade, but set the fixing of wages on a better footing.

How far the Act was put into operation throughout the country seems to be a debatable point, but there is plenty of evidence to show that in several places the wages of all classes of manual workers were fixed by it, and that it was strictly observed. It is interesting to note the actual amount of wages received in various trades. A carpenter or mason got 8*d.* a day with food, or 16*d.* a day without; a cobbler, painter, or tailor 6*d.* or 12*d.* Servants and apprentices received less, and were paid partly according to age. Taking the actual value of money into account,

it may be said that these amounts differ very little from those of the present day.

With regard to apprenticeship a period of seven years was laid down as a minimum, and so that the period should be one of real training, any master who employed more than three apprentices was to engage an extra workman for every apprentice. This prevented the masters getting the work done by unskilled and unpaid persons, and ensured that the apprentice should receive efficient instruction.

The care of the poor will always stand out as an important feature of Elizabeth's reign. Up to this time those who were unable to get a living had to depend on the charity of private persons, who gave money in their lifetime to the needy, or left it in their wills "for their souls' sake." This form of benevolence, though it shows the generosity of the giver, is likely to be misplaced in many cases. The most deserving poor may get little help, the less deserving more than they should. It was seen that, if poverty was to be satisfactorily relieved, it had to be brought under a system, and in addition to this it was considered fitting that all who had more than sufficient for their wants should pay something for the keep of those who had not.

Thus it came about that Elizabeth's Government imposed a tax for the relief of the poor on all persons earning more than a certain income. This was known as the Poor Rate, and it marks the beginning of the State Protection of those who live in poverty.

It was in the year 1601 that the famous Poor Law was passed. It sprang into existence because the Government began to recognise that,

besides the sturdy beggars who were able but not willing to work, there were others, the old, the infirm and the sick, who were unable to work at all.

In earlier days such persons had been given licences to beg; but some years previous to Elizabeth's reign, in the year 1536, such licences were taken away. Then the helpless poor were to be assisted in their own parish, the minister exhorting all persons to give alms for this purpose. But there followed the suppression of the monasteries by Henry VIII, in consequence of which thousands of poor people found their means of relief swept away. Added to this, large numbers had been thrown out of work, owing to the enclosing of land for pasturage in place of corn-growing. And so it was a sore problem of distress which Elizabeth's Government had to face, and they met it manfully.

The Poor Law of 1601 laid down four things:

1. That those who were unable to work should be provided for by their own parish, and to enable this to be done a tax, to be known as the *Poor Rate*, was to be enforced.

2. That those who could work, and would not, were to be punished by the Authorities of the Parish, either by whipping, or by being put into a house of correction.

3. That the children of the poor people who were dependent on the State could be apprenticed out of the rates.

4. That work was to be found for all who were willing and able to do it. For this purpose material, generally flax or hemp, was provided.

As a result of this measure the Local

Governing Bodies were induced to take more interest in the poor, and the work was carried out more effectively than it could have been by Parliament itself. The number of sturdy beggars and vagabonds decreased very considerably, and there were far fewer complaints from the helpless poor. The wisdom and fairness of the law is shown by the fact that it lasted, with very few alterations, till 1834, i.e. over 200 years.

In spite of her many whims and fancies, Elizabeth left England a much better place than she found it. The social condition of the people was much improved, and the foundations of our national greatness securely laid.

17. ELIZABETHAN ENGLAND

An Account by a Contemporary Writer

IN LESSON FORM

IT is very important to remember that extracts from original sources give the real historical and literary atmosphere of the time. They present a view of the period as the men of that particular day saw it, and it must thereby gain in vividness and accuracy.

This extract should be read straight through at first. It will be found to make an appeal by the quaintness of its language, and if the class is informed beforehand that it is the description of an eye-witness, it will awaken enthusiasm and command closer attention.

When the chapter has been read through by the teacher, comments and further information should be added by teacher and scholars. It is hoped that the hints at the end of the chapter may be found helpful.

This account of English life and manners is taken from a work by William Harrison, who lived during Elizabeth's reign. The book was written at the request of Holinshed, the author of the famous "Chronicle," from which Shakespeare and other eminent writers gleaned much of their working material.

Harrison was born in London. In fact he was a cockney of cockneys, being born within the very sound of Bow Bells. He was educated at St. Paul's and Westminster Schools, and afterwards at both Universities, Oxford and Cambridge. His descriptions are considered to be extremely reliable.

"We in England, divide our people commonly into four sorts, as gentlemen, citizens or burghesses, yeomen, and artificers or labourers.

"The fourth and last sort include day-labourers, poor husbandmen, and some retailers (which have no free land), copyholders, and all artificers, such as tailors, shoe-makers, carpenters, brickmakers, masons, etc. As for slaves and bondmen, we have none; nay, such is the privilege of our country by the especial grace of God and bounty of our princes, that any come hither from other realmes so soon as they set foot on land they become so free of condition as their masters, whereby all note of servile bondage is utterly removed from them.

"For albeit that the Saxons builded many towns and villages and the Normans well more at their first coming, yet since the first two hundred years after the latter conquest, they have gone so fast again to decay that the ancient number of them is much abated.

"There are (as I take it), few great towns in England that have not their weekly markets, one or more granted from the prince, in which all manner of provision for household is to be bought and sold, for ease and benefit of the country round about. Whereby, as it cometh to pass that no buyer shall make any great journey in the

purveyance of his necessities, so no occupier shall have occasion to travel far off with his commodities, except it be to seek for the highest prices.

"This is to be lamented, that one general measure is not in use throughout all England, but every market town hath in manner a several bushel; and the lesser it be, the more sellers it draweth to resort unto the same. Such also is the covetousness of many clerks of the market, that in taking a view of measures they will always so provide that one and the same bushel shall be either too big or too little at their next coming.

"To conclude therefore, in our markets all things are to be sold necessary for man's use; and there is our provision made commonly for all the week ensuing. Therefore, as there are no great towns without one weekly market at least, so there are very few of them that have not one or two fairs or more within the compass of the year, assigned unto them by the prince.

"From thenceforth also unto our days, and even in this season wherein we live, there is no restraint of any meat either for religious sake or public order in England, but it is lawful for every man to feed upon whatsoever he is able to purchase, except it be upon those days wherein eating of flesh is especially forbidden by the laws of the realm, which order is taken only to the end our numbers of cattle may be the better increased and that abundance of fish which the sea yieldeth more generally received. Besides this, there is great consideration had in making this law for the preservation of the navy and maintenance of convenient numbers of seafaring men, both which would otherwise greatly decay if some means were not found whereby they might be increased.

"Of bread made of wheat we have sundry sorts daily brought to the table, whereof the first and the most excellent is the manchet, which we commonly call white bread.

"The second is the cheat or the wheaten bread, so named because the colour thereof resembleth the grey or yellowish wheat, being clean and well dressed, and out of this is the coarsest of the bran (usually called pollard) taken.

[There seems to be no controversy in

the book over the respective merits of white and brown bread, and the quantity of vitamins each contains.—ED.]

"In some places of England there is a kind of drink made of apples, which they call cider or pomage, but that of pears is called perry, and both are ground and pressed in presses made for the nonce.

"With us the nobility, gentry, and students do ordinarily go to dinner at eleven before noon, and to supper at five, or between five and six afternoon. The merchants dine and sup seldom before twelve at noon, and six at night, especially in London. The husbandmen dine also at high noon as they call it, and sup at seven or eight; but out of the term in our universities the scholars dine at ten. As for the poorest sort they generally dine and sup when they may, so that to talk of their order of repast it were but a needless matter."

In the matter of dress Harrison says:

"And as these fashions are diverse, so likewise it is a world to see the costliness and the curiosity, the excess and the variety, the pomp and the bravery, the change and the vanity, and finally the fickleness and the folly, that is in all degrees, insomuch that nothing is more constant in England than inconstancy of attire. Oh, how much cost is bestowed nowadays upon our bodies, and how little upon our souls. How many suits of apparel hath the one, and how little furniture hath the other. How long time is asked in decking up of the first, and how little space left wherein to feed the latter. How curious, how nice also are a number of men and women, and how hardly can the tailor please them in making it fit for their bodies. How many times must it be sent back again to him that made it. What chafing, what fretting, what reproachful language, doth the poor workman bear away. And many times when he doth nothing to it at all, yet when it is brought home again it is very fit and handsome; then must we put it on, then must the long seams of our hose be set by a plumb-line, then we puff, then we blow, and finally sweat till we drop, that our clothes may stand well upon us.

I will say nothing of our heads, which sometimes are polled, sometimes curled, or suffered to grow at length like woman's locks, many times cut off, above or under the ears, round as by a wooden dish. Neither will I meddle with our variety of beards, of which some are shaven from the chin like those of Turks, not a few cut short like the beard of Marquess Otto, some made round like a rubbing brush

"The greatest part of our building in the cities and good towns of England consisteth only of timber, for as yet few of the houses of the commonalty, (except here and there in the West-country towns), are made of stone, although they may (in my opinion) in divers other places be builded so good cheap of the one as of the other.

"Certes this rude kind of building made the Spaniards in Queen Mary's days to wonder, but chiefly when they saw what large diet was used in many of these so homely cottages; insomuch that one of no small reputation amongst them said after this manner—'These English (quoth he) have their homes made of sticks and dirt, but they fare commonly so well as the king.' Whereby it appeareth that he liked better of our goodfare in such coarse cabins than of their own thin diet in their prince-like habitations and palaces.

"As for stoves, we have not hitherto used them greatly, yet do they now begin to be made in divers houses of the gentry and wealthy citizens, who build them not to work and feed in, as in Germany and elsewhere, but now and then to sweat in, as occasion and need shall require it. This also hath been common in England, contrary to the customs of all other nations, and yet to be seen (for example in most streets of London), that many of our greatest houses have outwardly been very simple and plain to sight, which inwardly have been able to receive a duke with his whole train, and lodge them at their ease. Hereby, moreover, it is come to pass that the fronts of our streets have not been so uniform and orderly builded as those of foreign cities, where (to say truth) the outer side of their mansions and dwellings have oft more cost bestowed upon them than all the rest of the house, which are often very simple and

uneasy within, as experience doth confirm. Of old time our country houses, instead of glass, did use much lattice, and that made either of wicker or fine rifts of oak in checkerwise. I read also that some of the better sort, in and before the times of the Saxons did make panels of horn instead of glass, and fix them in wooden calmes, (i.e. a mould or framework). But as horn in windows is now quite laid down in every place, so our lattices are also grown into less use, because glass is come to be so plentiful and within a very little so good cheap, if not better than the other.

"The ancient manors and houses of our gentlemen are yet and for the most part of strong timber, in framing whereof our carpenters have been and are worthily preferred before those of like science among all other nations. Howbeit such as be lately builded are commonly either of brick or hard stone, or both, and their rooms large and comely.

"The furniture of our houses also exceedeth, and is grown in manner even to passing delicacy; and herein I do not speak of the nobility and gentry only, but likewise of the lowest sort in most places of our south country. Certes in noblemen's houses it is not rare to see abundance of arras, rich hangings of tapestry, silver vessels, and so much other plate as may furnish sundry cupboards to the sum oftentimes of a thousand or two thousand pounds at the least, whereby the value of this and the rest of their stuff doth grow to be almost inestimable. As for ourselves, we have lain full oft upon straw pallets, on rough mats covered only with a sheet, and a good round log under our heads, instead of a bolster or pillow. If it were so that our fathers—or the good man of the house—had within seven years after his marriage purchased a mattress or flock bed, and thereto a stack of chaff to rest his head upon, he thought himself to be as well lodged as the lord of the town, that peradventure lay seldom in a bed of down or whole feathers, so well were they content, and with such base kind of furniture

"As for servants, if they had any sheet above them, it was well, for seldom had they any under their bodies to keep them from the pricking straws that ran oft through

the canvas of the pallet and rased their hardened hides.

"With us the poor is commonly divided into three sorts, so that some are poor by impotence, as the fatherless child, the aged, blind, and lame, and the diseased person that is judged to be incurable; the second are poor by casualty, as the wounded soldier, the decayed householder, and the sick person visited with grevous and painful diseases; the third consisteth of thriftless poor, as the rioter that hath consumed all, the vagabond that will abide nowhere, but runneth up and down from place to place (as it were seeking work and finding none), and finally the rogue.

"The navy of England may be divided into three sorts, of which the one serveth for the wars, the other for burden, and the third for fishermen which get their living by fishing on the sea. How many of the first order are maintained within the realm it passeth my cunning to express; yet, since it may be parted into the navy royal and commonfleet, I think good to speak of those that belong unto the prince, and so much the rather, for that their number is certain and well known to very many. Certainly there is no prince in Europe that hath a more beautiful or gallant sort of ships than the Queen's Majesty of England at this present."

His remarks on tobacco sound very quaint:

"In these daies, the taking-in of the smoke of the Indian herbe called 'Tobacco' by an instrument formed like a litle ladell, whereby it passeth from the mouth into the hed and stomach, is gretlie taken-vp & vsed in England, against Rewmes & some other diseases ingendred in the longes & inward partes & not without effect."

TEACHING NOTES

1. "As for slaves and bondmen we have none." Reference can be made here to the passing of villeinage, wherein, though the labourer was not a slave, his life was confined to his own village through several generations.

In Elizabeth's time also freedom for the

individual was growing, and foreign craftsmen were encouraged.

2. Treat of the decay of towns during the period of agricultural development in England, and also of their rise when manufactures sprang up in the middle of the eighteenth century.

3. Refer to the weekly markets still held in rural districts. Also make reference to the forms which fairs take at the present day.

4. In the matter of weights and measures show the desirability of a uniform standard. Reference might be made to our English tables of weights and measures at the present time and also to the metric system.

5. It is important to show how the fish-days helped fishermen, and so aided the mercantile marine and hence the Navy. The fishing fleet was the nursery of the Navy.

6. Pictures of costumes of the day should be shown. There are several books published on the evolution of dress through the ages.

7. The architectural beauty of the exterior of Elizabethan houses should be commented on, and if any such are in the neighbourhood they might be visited. Many of the scholars in a class may have seen actual specimens during holidays.

8. The Poor Law passed in 1601 was by far the most important up to that time, and it was so thorough that it lasted with few alterations till the Poor Law of 1834. The principle of Elizabeth's Act was that the destitute should be given sustenance; the lazy vagabond should be punished.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. Quaint language of the times; compare with modern.

2. "Classes" of people. Divisions to-day—do they exist?

3. The weekly markets and yearly fairs; reasons for such. Equivalents of to-day.

4. Weights and measures used.

5. Food and drink of the period.

6. Times for meals according to "classes"—influence exists to-day.

7. Fashions.

8. Buildings—material used; streets and houses; furniture.

9. Kinds of "poor," Elizabeth's Act, 1601.

10. The Navy: the Fleet, the Merchant Service, the fishermen and fish-days.

11. The philosophy running through the extract.

18. ENGLAND'S TRADING COMPANIES

ELIZABETH had given every possible encouragement to her sailors and traders, and so had helped to carry England along the path of commercial prosperity. But the early Stuart kings did not show the same desire for the welfare of their country, and were more concerned with increasing their own income than furthering trade. What interest they took in it arose out of their desire for money. They sold charters to various companies, giving them the power to trade in foreign lands.

One of the greatest evils of the time was the power of the King to grant monopolies—that is, to give the sole right to a person or body of persons to trade in one particular commodity. This, again, was done chiefly to raise money for the royal purse, but though it accomplished this object, it put great restrictions on business of all kinds, and prevented the expansion of trade.

The attitude of the early Stuart kings towards trade was one reason why it lagged behind, but there were others. Home affairs had kept England busy inside her own shores, and left her little time to develop her commerce overseas. The Reformation had occupied much of her attention, and when she started sea enterprises much of her effort was spent in vain, because

she wasted a good deal of energy and money on the possible discovery of north-east and north-west routes to India and the New World respectively.

The reason for this may seem strange, but in those days nations laid claim to portions of the high seas if they were the first to discover a route thereon. At the present time the ocean is everybody's highway, and home waters are confined to three miles from the shore. England, true to her spirit of independence, resolved to find, if possible, her own trade routes, but though strenuous efforts were made, they were not crowned with success. Indeed, they could not be, as the lands that had to be crossed were more or less dreary, icy wastes.

The stories of these efforts furnish a glorious page of hardihood and daring, but they were not profitable from a money point of view, as were the voyages of the Spanish and Portuguese. One of our ventures in northern waters did, however, meet with success. Sir Hugh Willoughby and Richard Chancellor sailed with three ships along Northern Europe to reach Cathay (i.e. China of the present day). Willoughby's two ships were unfortunately wrecked, and he and his men, after being tossed about in the Arctic waters, died from the cold. Chancellor's ship reached the White Sea, and the sailors found their way over to Moscow. Here they were well received by the Czar, who allowed them to form a company to trade with Russia. Thus the Russian, or Muscovy Company, was established, and the first ambassador from Russia appeared at the English Court.

The company flourished for some time, penetrating even to Persia and

rendering useful service to England by supplying her with furs, hemp, flax, tallow, pitch, tar and caviare (i.e. sturgeon's roe, which is considered a great delicacy in Russia) in exchange for cloth, sugar, lead and gunpowder.

Another of the early English companies was the Merchant Adventurers, founded in 1407 and consisting of a body of English merchants who were allowed to venture forth wherever they could find a market for English cloth. This company was the great rival of the Hanseatic League.

During the seventeenth century most of our trade flowed to the East. The Prussian or Eastland merchants were granted permission by Elizabeth to trade with Prussia, and to bring ship-building materials to England just at the time when our shipping was growing rapidly, and when ships were urgently needed. The Levant Company was also formed in the early part of James I's reign to trade with Turkey and the east of the Mediterranean. By means of this company England was supplied with currants, cotton and spices.

Two or three important companies sailed for the west. The London and Plymouth Companies were granted charters chiefly for the purpose of colonisation, and by their gallant efforts founded Virginia and New England. Failure dogged their footsteps for some time, but the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers and successive bands of Englishmen soon brought prosperity to the new settlements across the Atlantic, and laid the foundation of our American Colonies.

In 1670 a company, known as the Hudson Bay Company, was started to obtain furs from Canada, and this

met with general favour, as it made England largely independent of Russia. As the dwellers in these regions required woollen cloth, the benefit was mutual. The dashing Prince Rupert was at the head of the company, which made generally a profit of 50 per cent.

Another company was formed to trade with Africa, and was known as the African Company. Besides bringing gold to England for the manufacture of guineas, it traded in human lives, shipping negroes from the shores of West Africa to the plantations of America. Sir John Hawkins conducted this trade for many years. In defence of his action it should be pointed out that white men could not work in the plantations because of the tropical heat of the West Indies, whereas the negroes could work without discomfort.

At that time, it must be remembered, the African native was shipped as a slave and not a free man, and freedom has always been highly prized. The lot of the negro slave is vividly portrayed in Longfellow's poem "The Slave's Dream."

"Wide through the landscape of his dreams
The lordly Niger flowed."

But of all the companies formed during this period the greatest was the East India Company. It came into being on the last day of 1600, and though it encountered many hardships, success followed. The profits made by this company were enormous, reaching 100 per cent. for each of the first two voyages, and more than 200 per cent. for the third. Spices, calicoes, silks and porcelain were the chief cargoes brought to England.

The feature which makes the East India Company stand out so prominently above all other companies was that it was the direct means of adding to the British Empire the control of a vast country. That it was able to do this is a proof of its power and importance, and this power was due largely to the fact that the company was a joint-stock company, i.e., one in which the capital of all the members was put together and used as a common fund. From this fund all expenses were met, and the profits were divided amongst the shareholders in proportion to the amount of their share. This common fund led to a common aim and to that unity which is the root of strength.

The other companies were carried on differently from the East India Company. Each member of the former traded with his own capital, at his own risk and for his own profit. The only benefit he got from the company was the right to trade, because no one was supposed to sell in those days unless he belonged to a company. It will be readily seen that the members of a company of this description were not so closely bound together as those of the East India Company. Consequently these companies were not so flourishing and were less permanent.

The chief aims of the East India Company, when it was formed, were to further English trade in India ; to drive out the Portuguese ; to get from the Dutch a share of the spice trade ; to forbid unauthorised persons getting any trade and to make as large a profit as possible for the benefit of the shareholders.

There was one special privilege which this company enjoyed over all other

companies. It could sell its goods in England for money, which it could take out of the country, whilst the other companies were obliged to exchange their imports for goods. This circumstance alone led to a good deal of discontentment at home, because it was argued that since the company did not buy from England it was not of such benefit to the nation as the others. This was quite in keeping with the commercial theory that the more money there was in the country the better it would be for national safety and prosperity.

The East India Company declined somewhat during the Commonwealth, since its imports were chiefly luxuries, which found little favour among the Puritans. Cromwell at one time even took away its charter and made the company free. This, however, did not answer, and it was granted again by the Protector three years later.

When Charles II came to the throne England plunged into gaiety, and costly silks and spices were freely imported. Consequently the trade of the company greatly revived.

These early companies differed from those of the present day in many respects, but chiefly in being exclusive—that is to say, they shut out all persons from trading unless they were members of the company. This they succeeded in doing to a very large extent, though some people managed to trade on their own account, for which piece of impertinence they were styled “interlopers.” Whatever their drawbacks may have been, these old trading companies undoubtedly laid the foundation of England’s commercial greatness.

19. THE EARLY STUARTS AND THE CIVIL WAR

JAMES I came to the throne at a time when the nation was imbued with deep religious convictions. Evidence of this was furnished by the presentation of a petition signed by nearly 1,000 clergymen (hence called the Millenary Petition), asking for reforms in the book of Common Prayer, and a stricter observance of the Sabbath. But James was resolute against all changes in Church matters. His ideas about kingship, also, had been formed before he ascended the English throne. Of his learning there was no question, but it was of the theoretical and not the practical order.

The opinion he had expressed concerning monarchy in a work which he wrote, gives the keynote to his attitude whilst King. "Although a good King will form his actions to be according to law, yet he is not bound thereto, but of his own free will, and for example-giving to his subjects." This opinion soon crystallised itself into the formula of the "Divine Right of Kings." It meant that the monarch recognised no responsibility to anything but HIS OWN FREE WILL. The formula resolved itself into a definite doctrine, which bishops preached from the pulpit, and which was adopted by the Church.

Now the temper of the Puritans was one of obedience to law, temporal law and spiritual law, but they believed that the Divine Will was not reposed in any mortal, monarch or otherwise. The importance of this position cannot be overestimated, since it lay at the very foundation of the conflict between the Stuart kings and the people,

especially those of Puritan belief. It was clear that there was an impossible gulf between Puritan belief and the unquestioning devotion to the Crown which James demanded. His claim to rule according to his own will brought him into conflict with his people and his Parliaments; his claim that his power was of Divine origin brought him into conflict with the Puritans.

James accepted the Millenary Petition and summoned a conference of prelates and Puritan divines at Hampton Court, but the demands of the Puritans were viewed in a purely political light. When they ventured to dispute his infallibility he dismissed the conference with a threat which revealed his policy. "I will make them conform, or I will harry them out of the land." Emphasis must be laid on the attitude of James I towards the Puritans, because it produced the Pilgrim Fathers and laid the seeds of strife between the Stuart kings and a considerable section of the people, which brought forth the evil harvest of the Civil War.

On the political side it was evident from the commencement of his reign that James was preparing for a struggle with Parliament, rather than for a policy of tolerance and concession. The need for new sources of revenue soon became apparent. James was a prodigal king, and in his desire to get money, and also to free himself as much as possible from Parliamentary control, he imposed a system of customs on many articles of export and import.

England's commerce at this time was growing rapidly owing to the flourishing trade of the great commercial companies, but though the revenue

from these customs increased so rapidly, the royal debt outpaced them. The legality of these imposts was questioned by the Commons, who declared that "all impositions set upon goods and merchandise, save only by common consent in Parliament, are and shall be void."

The next step which the Commons took was to refuse to grant supplies except on promise of a redress of public grievances. This policy persisted through many parliaments and many reigns, and in this concise form it represented the issue between King and people, till the time when the position of the monarch in the constitution was clearly defined and decided upon.

Refusing to accept the terms imposed by Parliament, James ruled for seven years without check or restraint. "I will govern," he declared, "according to the common weal, but not according to the common will." How far he was able to accomplish the former seems doubtful, but it is certain that he opposed the will of the people.

In Charles I the truth of the adage "like father like son" became apparent, though the son was an intensified edition of the father. Charles did not hesitate to cast members of his Parliament into prison whenever he could do so, if they opposed his will. Thus the liberty of the subject was infringed in the highest degree. In addition to this the King imposed a forced loan on all landowners. All who refused were examined on oath; and many were flung into prison. But resistance to the loan grew stronger day by day, and in 1628 Charles was obliged to sign the Petition of Right,

which forbade the imposition of loans and taxes by the King.

The following year saw the dissolution of Parliament. James had ruled seven years without a Parliament, Charles now ruled eleven years without one. It is only fair to Charles to say that he was not a despot in the accepted sense of the word. He "hated the very name of Parliaments," it is true, but he hoped, as he phrased it, to bring Parliament to its senses. In the meantime he was resolved to put down any resistance to his absolute rule. Provided he could secure peace and obtain money he could rest satisfied. By restoring monopolies, by exacting fines and imposing customs, he hoped to raise all the revenue he needed.

For some time there was little sign of active discontent, but the imposition of Ship Money started the storm. As the term implies, it was a tax for the upkeep of the Navy which, up to that time, had been levied on ports and maritime counties only. Now it was to be converted into a general tax for the whole country. The opposition to it was voiced by John Hampden, who was tried for his default. There was no definite issue, except that the country was now aroused to the coming menace to her freedom.

Charles now went a step farther. Unable to subdue the Commons to his will, he made an attempt to arrest five of its leading members, Hampden and Pym amongst the number. This abuse of the royal prerogative roused the Commons, and they were determined to resist with all their power.

The courtiers supported the King; the people the Commons. It was at this stage that the nicknames "Cavalier" and "Roundhead" arose. Though

originally used in derision, the names were used afterwards quite seriously for those who were on the King's side, and those who supported Parliament respectively. Doubtless the Roundheads were in the first instance mostly Puritans, and were so styled because of the practice of cutting their hair short, whereas the Cavaliers wore it long. The name Cavaliers implied that the Royalist party were mostly horsed.

In spite of the strength of the opposition, Charles seems to have been blind to the danger of the course he was taking. In fact, he seemed determined on war to make the Commons submit to his will, and a force was actually collected in the North. The Commons at once made counter preparations. The Royal Standard was raised at Nottingham in 1642, but it was only a small force which the King could gather round him, so lacking was he in money and arms. Essex was sent to meet him at the head of the Parliamentary forces, and if the blow had been struck at once the Civil War might have been over. But to the credit of the Commons it must be said that they considered a show of force would be sufficient to teach the King the folly of his ways. But it was not so.

The first battle of any importance was fought at Edgehill, but the advantage could be claimed by neither side. Soon, however, the Royalist force grew larger and larger, and Charles favoured an attack on London. The moderate Royalists held him in check, for they saw that were Charles to gain a complete triumph it would be as bad for the country at large as a defeat. For some time the war was carried on

in the form of skirmishes, until at Marston Moor, and later at Naseby, the military genius of Cromwell came into play. With his famous Ironsides he completely routed the King's forces.

In the hour of his defeat Charles turned to the Scots, that is to say, he joined forces with the Presbyterians. The opposing party adopted the title of Independents. At this stage the Presbyterians were the stronger of the two forces, and they fondly hoped that Charles would be willing to accept peace on their lines. Both Houses laid down their conditions, the chief of which were that Parliament should command the Army and Fleet for twenty years, and that the Presbyterian Church should be established.

In spite of the request of his friends and of the Queen, with tears it is said, Charles refused. He was playing all the time for delay, hoping that the two parties would "extirpate one another, so that I shall be really King again." His chief aim was to put the Army against Parliament.

Hopeless of any satisfaction from Charles, the Scottish Army accepted a sum of money in discharge of its services and handed the King over to a Committee of the two Houses.

With the Scottish forces over the border, the New Model Army, fashioned by Cromwell and his son-in-law, Ireton, held supreme power. It turned itself, in fact, into a vast parliament. Ireton, like Cromwell, was a statesman and soldier. His plan for political reform was laid before Charles. It asked for belief and worship to be free for all; for triennial parliaments, and an adjustment of taxation.

Ireton believed that Charles could

be persuaded to conform to the general good of his people, after he could no longer exercise his violent will. But Charles was not susceptible to moderation. Civil war was renewed. It was of short duration. The Army now became desperate, and a council of officers, taking full power into their own hands, purged Parliament of all members opposed to their will. It was but a remnant of Parliament which remained, but it was powerful enough to will the trial and execution of the King. Charles denied its authority and refused to plead, and though a great deal of public indignation showed itself, it was not able to stay the decision of this remnant of Parliament, somewhat vulgarly known as the "Rump" Parliament.

Charles's faults and follies were doubtless many, but it has been said of him that "he nothing common did or mean." The validity of his execution has never failed to exercise the minds of the English people.

20. A LIMITED MONARCHY

FOR eleven years after the execution of Charles, England was without a king, for the Commons decreed that "government by a king is unnecessary and burdensome, dangerous, and ought to be abolished." A Council of State was appointed to carry on the work of the country. Cromwell was asked to take command of the Army, which had to be brought into use against Ireland and Scotland. Drogheda was successfully besieged and its defenders ruthlessly slain. In a few other places in Ireland there was some

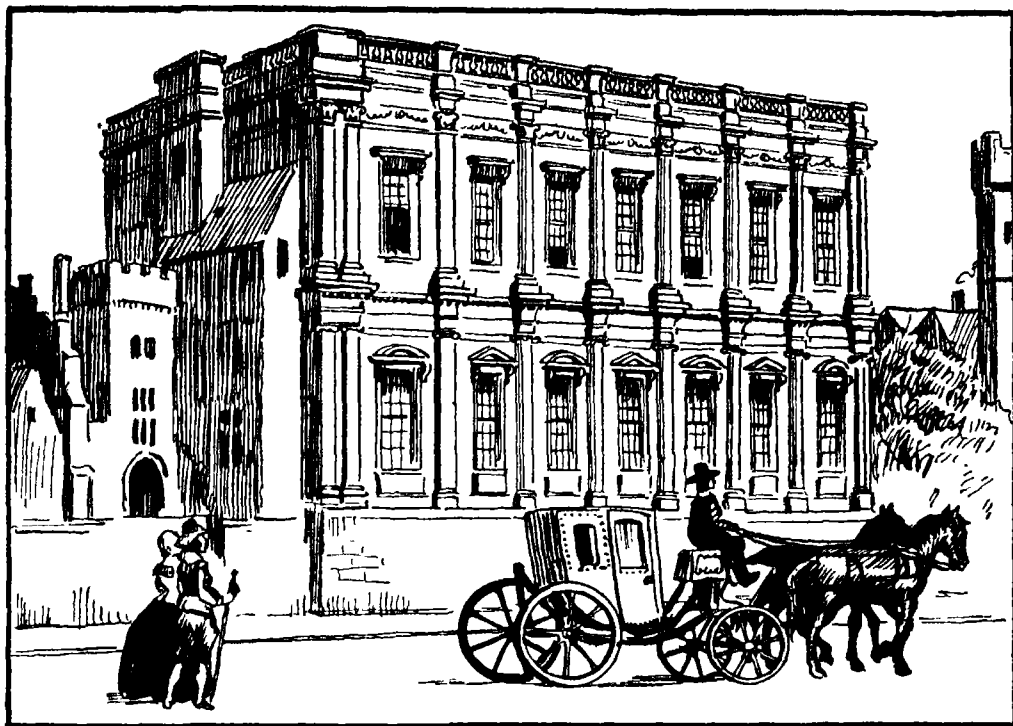
resistance, but there was little serious fighting after Drogheda had fallen.

In Scotland Cromwell met the Scottish forces at Dunbar and routed them, and when Prince Charles marched into England his forces were decisively defeated at Worcester. Charles managed to escape to France.

It speaks well for Cromwell and the Parliamentary forces that the Royalists were so quickly overcome. But it was not only at home that Cromwell had to wage war. Shortly it had to be undertaken against an outside rival. The Dutch at this time were our great commercial competitors, especially in the East Indies. They regarded the English as intruders in these eastern waters, and had massacred a number of English traders and seamen—an act which roused English resentment.

On their side the Dutch were offended by the passing of the Navigation Act, which forbade the importation of goods into England except in English ships, or in ships belonging to the nation sending the goods. The Act was passed with two objects: firstly, to strengthen the English Navy, which was essential, and secondly, to capture some of the Dutch carrying-trade. The Dutch at that time shared with us practically the whole of the carrying-trade of the world.

This trade rivalry and competition led the two countries into war. Blake was at the head of the English forces. In the early encounters neither side could claim much advantage, but Blake suffered a defeat at the hands of Van Tromp off Dungeness and was glad to escape under cover of night. It is said that the Dutch admiral was so elated at his success that he talked of blockading the Thames, and even



WHITEHALL PALACE.

In front of the banquetting hall of the palace King Charles I was executed on January 20th, 1649. The execution was witnessed by Archbishop Usher from the roof of Wallingford House, which stood on the spot now occupied by the Admiralty.

had a broom fixed to the masthead of his vessel as a sign that he intended to sweep the English off the seas. The English rose to the occasion, and in the subsequent encounters they were more than a match for the Dutch. In the last engagement off Lowestoft, Van Tromp lost his life.

The need for a new constitution caused the election of Cromwell as Protector, with a Council of State to act with Parliament. But the Protector's lot was by no means a peaceful one. Opposition and plotting at home, and war abroad, caused him continual anxiety and this in conjunction with domestic trouble brought about his death in middle life.

For a short time his son Richard

controlled the nation's affairs, but the people at large were only awaiting their opportunity to restore the monarchy. General Monk, who had been in command of the Army in Scotland, marched into England and declared for a free parliament. With an army at his back he could not be denied. Parliament, which had lasted since 1640, and was called the Long Parliament in consequence, was dissolved, and in its place a Convention met. A Parliament it could not be called, as the writs for the elections were not issued by a monarch. The Convention requested Charles to return, and this he did with readiness, declaring that he was determined "never to set out on his travels again."

The stage was well set for the restoration of the Monarchy. The bulk of the people seemed to have grown tired of being compelled to conform to the rigid standard of life and morality imposed by the Puritans. Stage-plays had been abolished, maypoles removed from the village greens and strict observance of the Sabbath enforced. It seemed evident that at least the happiness of the people and the hope of settled and orderly government lay in the restoration of the Stuarts, and the invitation to Charles was the outcome.

In Charles II we see somewhat of a reversion to the autocracy of the earlier Stuarts. The King was a man of great ability, who concealed under the appearance of gaiety a talent for intrigue, which baffled the ablest statesmen of the day. He was little less than an absolute King, a tribute to his sagacity considering the stern opposition to his father's rule. On his death-bed he declared himself a Roman Catholic and received absolution from a Roman Catholic priest.

Though both Whigs and Tories accepted government by King and Parliament as the settled constitution of the country, religious opinion still played a great part in influencing public affairs. The Whigs were determined that the succession to the throne should be on Protestant lines, and the Prince of Orange and the Duke of Monmouth were considered as eligible claimants. The agitation of the Whigs, however, had been kept in subjection by Charles, but during the reign of James II Monmouth landed in England from Holland and boldly declared himself King. At the battle of Sedgemoor, which was the last battle fought

on English soil, he was defeated and compelled to flee. On being captured he was executed.

After this rising, James became over-indulgent to the Roman Catholics and gave them a large measure of political power. The conflict between the Protestant and Roman Catholic sections of the people became so acute that it led to a secret appeal to William Prince of Orange, who was known to be a staunch Protestant, to bring an army to England and declare for a free parliament. It was an alluring prospect to William and to Mary his consort (the daughter of James II). William accordingly landed, put James and his adherents to flight, and accepted the throne jointly with Queen Mary.

But the offer of the English people was by no means an unconditional one. They were determined that the actions of the monarchs of England must be according to a definite constitution, and not according to their own will and caprice.

In the so-called Bill of Rights of 1689 the following terms were laid down :

Laws were not to be suspended by the King ; money was not to be raised without consent of Parliament ; Parliament was to be free, and Roman Catholics were not allowed to possess the crown.

Thus the great struggle between King and Parliament, which had started with James I, came to a close. A revolution had been brought about with little bloodshed. The theory of the " Divine Right of Kings " had been challenged and defeated. Parliament became the chief ruling force in the country.

The reign of William and Mary was

disturbed by the landing of James in Ireland with French troops, to contest William's right to the throne. At the Battle of the Boyne James was routed, and sought refuge for the second time in France. This menace over, the new sovereign settled down to govern the country with the aid of Parliament, and William proved his greatness by achieving this feat with comparatively little discontent. It was not an easy task which confronted him, since this changed form of Government was more or less an experiment, and in bringing the country safely through a great crisis in its history, William has gained a place among the most successful of England's kings.

It must be remembered also that he was the first King of England, of the world it might be said, to rule conjointly with Parliament.

The reign of Queen Anne, the last of the Stuart sovereigns, was marked by the brilliant military exploits of the Duke of Marlborough. Though past middle age, he was full of vigour in mind and body, and proved himself a great man both in peace and war. The cause of the war which was to shed such lustre on Marlborough was Parliament's resolve that everything possible should be done to reduce the exorbitant power of France. As a member of the Grand Alliance, therefore, England declared war.

The Battle of Blenheim in 1704 was the greatest of all Marlborough's engagements, and resulted in the complete rout of the French. It is said that had Marlborough lost Blenheim, England might have been invaded and the line of James II restored. If this is so, it was indeed a great victory.

Southey, doubtless with poetic licence,

makes Caspar declare that "what they fought each other for, I could not well make out!" But contemporary historians did not share this view. They considered that national freedom was at stake, and that the issue of the war was French or English domination. That such a vital result was considered likely can be gathered from the gratitude of Parliament, which gave the General an estate and a pension for himself and his heirs. Blenheim House was erected and is still held by Marlborough's descendants.

Another great event of the reign was the Union of Scotland and England in the year 1707. By it the commercial advantages of England were granted to the Scots also. The united name was to be Great Britain; there was to be no separate parliament for Scotland, but the Scottish members were to sit in the House of Commons at Westminster; sixteen Scottish peers were to sit in the House of Lords.

21. NATIONAL PROGRESS DURING THE STUART PERIOD

IT has been shown that Elizabeth was practically an absolute monarch.

Parliament during her reign had very little power, a state of things which was easily tolerated, since the Queen was highly capable, and played the foremost part in all that concerned the good of the country. The claim of the early Stuarts, however, to rule by "divine right," without let or hindrance, brought matters between Parliament and King to a definite issue.

Within the comparatively brief

period of the reign of the Stuarts (1603-1714) the position was reversed. Parliament became all-powerful; the monarch's authority was limited by statute.

Foremost among the agreements between monarch and people were the Habeas Corpus Act and the Bill of Rights. The former made it illegal for a person to be detained in prison without trial, *habeas corpus* being the Latin phrase for "thou must have the body." The importance of this Act will be seen when it is realised that it had not been an uncommon practice for the sovereign to put people into prison quite arbitrarily, a direct denial of that freedom and justice which are the chief privileges of the British citizen. The Bill of Rights forbade the king to keep up a standing army in time of peace, so that there was no danger of its being used to coerce Parliament or oppress the people.

It was during this period that the idea originated that a small inner body of members should be chosen to shape the policy of Parliament, and so our "Cabinet" sprang into being. The principle was laid down that it was the sovereign's duty to be guided by his ministers in all that he undertook. It was stated in the following clear terms: "It is the duty of the king or queen to rule only with the advice of his or her ministers. As long as the sovereign follows the advice of ministers, the ministers and not the crown shall be responsible for all that is done."

Thus arose the axiom, "The king can do no wrong," which has held ever since. It signifies, of course, that the king's ministers are responsible for the acts of the king, and not

the king himself, since he is merely carrying out the advice of his ministers.

Even Charles II was wily enough to lay the blame for his misdeeds on the shoulders of his ministers. The story goes that the following mock epitaph to the King was composed by the Earl of Rochester:

"Here lies our Sovereign Lord and King,
Whose word no man relies on,
Who never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one."

Charles retorted that the epitaph was true because his words were his own, but his acts were those of his ministers. The King's answer was more in the nature of a prophecy than of actual fact at the time.

From the foregoing it will be seen that the Stuart period was one of great constitutional progress. It was also an age rich in literature. The times were very stirring, and calculated to produce prominent men.

The outstanding name is that of Milton, the Puritan poet, provided of course we leave out the immortal Shakespeare from this period, and give him his exalted place among the Elizabethans. It should be observed, however, that Shakespeare lived till 1616, and that the "Tempest," "Macbeth" and "King Lear" appeared in the Stuart period. Bacon, too, was essentially of the Tudor period, as his thoughts and writings chiefly belong to that particular age, though "The Advancement of Learning" and "Novum Organum" were written during the reign of James I.

John Milton filled several public offices during the time of the Common-

wealth, one of which was that of Secretary of the Council. This body was appointed to carry on the Government during the first year of the Commonwealth. At the Restoration Milton was one of those who were denied the King's pardon, and he was cast into prison. The loss of his sight added to his trials, and though towards the end of his life he was released from prison, his closing years were those of poverty and hardship.

Milton, however, will not be remembered as a politician so much as a poet, and as such he was one of England's greatest. His Puritan mind is evidenced in his work. Religion is the theme of most of his writings, and his diction often follows that of the Bible. His "Paradise Lost" tells of man's creation, of his sin in the Garden of Eden and his punishment. The story follows closely that in the Book of Genesis, and for majesty of thought and language it has seldom been surpassed.

"Thy soul was like a star, and dwelt apart ;
Thou hadst a voice whose sound was like
the sea,"

was Wordsworth's eulogy of Milton.

The place in Puritan England occupied by Milton as a poet had its counterpart in prose in the person of John Bunyan. Imprisoned in Bedford gaol for his simple, straightforward preaching, he produced in his confinement "The Pilgrim's Progress," one of the most eminent works in the English tongue. The story, in the form of an allegory, describes the life of Christian, his struggle against evil, his trust in the Almighty and his passage through death to everlasting life.

The English of "The Pilgrim's Progress" is marked by its simplicity, its purity and its beauty, and few books have been more widely read.

Dryden, also, is among the great writers of the Stuart period. His poems vary in their quality, and are generally of a political nature. For this latter reason they were of greater interest at the time than they are now. Some of the passages in his poems are of singular force and beauty, and contain much wit.

The two famous diarists John Evelyn and Samuel Pepys lived during this period. Their descriptions of the life of the time are read with interest to this day, such is their vividness and reality. Pepys has earned the greater fame of the two. His records are always delightful, amusing and accurate. This entry concerning the Fire of London is not only highly informative but illustrates Pepys' buoyant style :

September 2, 1666. (Lord's Day.)

"So I down to the water-side, and there got a boat, and through bridge, and there saw a lamentable fire. Poor Mitchell's house, as far as the Old Swan, already burned that way, and the fire running further, that, in a very little time, it got as far as the Steele-Yard while I was there. Everybody endeavouring to remove their goods, and flinging into the river, or bringing them into lighters that lay off ; poor people staying in their houses as long as till the very fire touched them, and then running into boats, or clambering from one pair of stairs by the water-side to another.

"Having stayed, and in an hour's time seen the fire rage every way, and nobody, to my sight, endeavouring to quench it, but to remove their goods, and leave all to the fire, and having seen it get as far as the Steele-Yard, and the wind mighty high, and driving it into the City : and everything, after so long a drought, proving combustible,

even the very stones of churches; I to Whitehall, and there up to the King's Chapel, where people came about me, and I did give them an account which dismayed them all, and word was carried in to the King. So I was called for, and did tell the King and the Duke of York what I saw, and that, unless His Majesty did command houses to be pulled down, nothing could stop the fire. They seemed much troubled, and the King commanded me to go to my Lord Mayor with him, and command him to spare no houses, but to pull down before the fire every way. . . .

"We to a little alehouse on the bankside; saw the fire grow, and in corners and upon steeples and between churches and houses as far as we could see up the hill of the City in a most horrid, malicious red flame, not like the fine flame of an ordinary fire. We saw the fire as only one entire arch of fire from this to the other side the bridge and in a bow up the hill for an arch of above a mile long; it made me weep to see it. The churches, houses, and all on fire, and flaming at once; and a horrid noise the flames made, and the cracking of houses at their ruin."

The great essayists Joseph Addison, Sir Richard Steele and Jonathan Swift belong to the latter part of the Stuart period. Their essays constituted the everyday literature of the period. At a time when newspapers were scarcely known, essays on current topics were an important medium of information. In the journals known as the "Tatler" and the "Spectator," Addison and Steele gave full scope to their clear, attractive and elegant diction.

Jonathan Swift will always be remembered for his famous "Gulliver's Travels." The book serves a two-fold purpose. First of all it is an amusing story, and secondly it was a political satire of the time. Swift was a staunch Tory and a bitter enemy of the Whigs, and wit in Swift's hand,

became an even more potent weapon than it usually is. Equally remarkable was the work of Daniel Defoe. Children are grateful to him as the author of "Robinson Crusoe," but Defoe was also a busy politician.

But the greatest name, at least among the writers of the later Stuart period, is Alexander Pope. All his work was of a uniformly high standard, and in his "Essay on Man" Pope reached his zenith.

Poetry does not seem to be in great vogue at the present day. Material progress hardly creates the calm atmosphere and the leisurely spirit necessary for the full appreciation of the work of the master-minds in poetry. But though our great poems may not be read with the same intensity as formerly, the most beautiful and pregnant passages are still eagerly sought by educated people for use in conversations, speeches and writings. The "Essay on Man" is probably drawn upon for these purposes as much as any poem in the English language. It will be as well for those teachers who link history and literature, to read a striking passage or two from the essay, to show Pope's sound wisdom and vigorous style.

The following lines may serve as an example of Pope's hopeful philosophy:

"All nature is but art, unknown to thee;
All chance, direction which thou canst not
see;
All discord, harmony not understood;
All partial evil, universal good;
And spite of pride, in erring reason's spite,
One truth is clear, Whatever is, is right."

But it was not only in literature that this particular epoch was famous. In



A reproduction of the painting by the artist, showing the central figure lying down, surrounded by other figures in a dark, dramatic setting.

other forms of the arts it is equally notable. Sir Isaac Newton and Sir Christopher Wren, though they both outlived Queen Anne, did their chief work during the latter part of the period.

Newton was one of our greatest mathematicians and scientists. His discovery of the laws of gravity was an invaluable contribution to science, and the story of how he lay under the apple tree, saw an apple fall to the ground, and so investigated the reason for the fall, is an interesting and stimulating narrative to young minds. Starting with the apple, Newton was able to show that the same force of gravity keeps the earth in its place and in its pathway round the sun; and that all planets and even the most distant stars obey the same great law of gravity.

Sir Christopher Wren ranks as one of the greatest of the world's architects, and St. Paul's Cathedral alone would entitle him to his place of eminence. The Fire of London gave him the opportunity for showing his skill. Eighty-nine churches were destroyed by the fire, and Wren was entrusted with the planning of many new churches to take their place.

In addition to churches, of which the spires were often a distinctive feature, Wren built the Monument (which stands near London Bridge, and was erected in memory of the fire) and Greenwich and Chelsea Hospitals.

In view of the constant political troubles of the time and the continual state of war, it is remarkable that science and the arts were able to make such headway. In literature, physical science and architecture the

progress made can compare with that of most ages.

Trade also showed great increase, as English merchants were wresting control from foreigners. The roads were bad, it is true, but efforts were made to improve them, and the use of the coach became much more general than formerly. It is interesting to note that the sedan chair, generally carried by two men, was a favourite means of travel with the ladies of the period.

22. THE HOUSE OF HANOVER

GEORGE I came to the throne in accordance with an Act of Parliament prescribing that the successor to the throne must be a Protestant. He was the son of Sophia of Hanover, who was descended from James I. Though as Elector of Hanover he seems to have made that province his first consideration, his reign in England was not unsuccessful.

Whatever his defects as an English monarch may have been, he certainly had one great merit, and that was that he trusted his ministers. This had considerable weight with the English people, and under his quiet rule the system of *party government*, which had been steadily growing for some time, took firm root and became a recognised principle of the English constitution. George gave his support to the Whig party. As the policy of this party, generally speaking, was to regard Parliament as more powerful than the King, this support was all to the good of the country.

It is not to be wondered at that attempts were made during the reign

to re-establish the Stuarts, in the person of James, the son of James II, who became known as the Old Pretender. There is little doubt that Jacobinism was still widely spread, and the movement was encouraged by the Tories, whose chief aim was to support the power of the King.

Rebellions in favour of the Old Royalist cause took place in various parts of the country, but proved of no effect. The Battle of Sheriffmuir in 1715 turned out a failure for the Jacobite cause, and the Old Pretender fled to France.

But this was not the last of the efforts on behalf of the Jacobites which confronted the Government, since Spain threatened the invasion of England in their cause. Fortunately the idea came to nothing, but the unsettled state of affairs had a political result, in that it lengthened the period of Parliament. Under the Triennial Act a new parliament had to be elected every three years. It had been pointed out that under this arrangement the first year was taken up in trying election petitions, the second in discussing measures and the third year in getting ready for dissolution. The Septennial Act made the duration of Parliament seven years, and so the dissolution of Parliament was saved at a very critical time.

This Act remained in operation till recent years, when a half-way measure was resolved on, changing the life of any one Parliament to five years.

The outstanding man of the reign was Robert Walpole, who helped to save the nation from the ruinous effects of the South Sea Bubble. Briefly it may be said that an era of wild speculation had set in, and people were gulled into subscribing to companies which

sprang up like mushrooms for all sorts of fantastic purposes, one being for "a wheel of perpetual motion." Of course the bubble burst, and many people were ruined. It was then that Walpole became Chancellor of the Exchequer, and came to the aid of the speculators.

Later he became First Lord of the Treasury and Prime Minister of England. His is the distinction of being the first to hold the title, but circumstances had arisen which made it necessary for the position of leading minister to be more definite than before. George I could not speak English, and he was not always in England. It had been the practice for the sovereign to preside over the meetings of the Cabinet, but George found the task irksome, and so the position of Chairman devolved on the first minister. Walpole's long tenure of office associated the Premiership with that of the First Lord of the Treasury, and the two offices have generally been united since.

It is a curious fact, however, that the office of Prime Minister is not to be found in English law. It is merely a title of courtesy given to the minister who is asked by the sovereign to form a Cabinet. As George I made it a practice to choose all his ministers from one political party, the ministers became a united body. The same practice has been followed right through till the present day. Walpole as a Prime Minister was very successful. In foreign affairs he believed in maintaining peace as the best means of keeping off Jacobite rebellions. At home he always acted on the principle of leaving well alone.

It might be pointed out at this stage

that in addition to the Tories being associated with the power of the King, and the Whigs with the power of Parliament, there was also another distinction in that the Tories were associated with the authority of the Church, whilst the Whigs stood for freedom of religion to all Protestants. Now the close association of the Tory Party with the fortunes of the Established Church, and the connection of the Tories with the Jacobites, diminished considerably the influence of the clergy as ministers of religion.

There was still, however, a good deal of religious enthusiasm in the country as the establishment of the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge at this time showed. It was this enthusiasm that called forth John Wesley.

Possessing great religious fervour, and with a talent for management and organisation, he instituted a band of itinerant preachers. At this time Wesley and his fellow-preachers were working under the banner of the Church of England, but their manner of preaching and their outspoken criticism aroused opposition in the ranks of the established clergy, and Wesley felt compelled to form an independent organisation. His adherents became known henceforth as Methodists, a term used at first in derision, but which sprang from the desire of the Wesley family for "method" in all their doings.

In 1741 Walpole resigned office. He had served the country with ability and success for a period of twenty years. Shortly after his resignation we became involved in a continental crisis, which brought about the War of the Austrian Succession.

The cause of the war is of some moment, because it throws light upon two important questions—the attitude towards women as rulers, and the military designs of Germany.

Charles VI of Austria, having no male issue, had endeavoured to ensure the accession of his daughter Maria Theresa to the whole of his dominions, and to this end had secured the assent of most of the European sovereigns. On the death of Charles, Frederick II of Prussia, afterwards known as Frederick the Great, laid claim to Silesia. He had succeeded to a well-drilled army, and a full treasury from his father Frederick William I, who had spent his life in making up for the military drawbacks of Prussia's geographical position, by perfecting her military equipments.

Frederick II seemed anxious to employ his highly efficient organisation, and on the Austrian Emperor's death he marched into Silesia and defeated the Austrian troops. The invasion encouraged others to do likewise.

The Elector of Bavaria set up a claim as Emperor of his province, and France, seeing an opportunity for interfering in German affairs, entered into an alliance with both Prussia and Bavaria, and planned a general attack on the Austrian dominions. Maria Theresa thought it expedient to buy off Frederick by surrendering Silesia, which left her free to make headway against her other usurping enemies.

The English King, George II, felt that Hanover, his German State, could not long be kept neutral, and fearing the result of the interference of France in German affairs, he entered into an alliance with Maria Theresa. The arrival of British troops on the Con-

continent in support of the Queen's cause was very opportune, for the French were already advancing by the valleys of the Main and Danube against Austria.

The Battle of Dettingen followed; the French were outmanœuvred and lost the day. The battle is memorable for the part which George II and his son played in person. The strategy and valour which they showed on this occasion won for them a reputation which made a strong appeal to the English people. It is worthy of note that Dettingen was the last battle which an English king personally conducted.

The next battle, that of Fontenoy, was won by the French. But it was only after a great struggle, which did credit to both sides. The result was uncertain until the famous Irish Brigade was brought into action on the side of the French. The French, it will be remembered, were supporters of the Jacobites, and so Ireland and France were often allies.

After this the French were subsequently so successful in the campaign that most of the fortresses in the Austrian Netherlands fell into their hands. Their conquests were of little avail, however, for in a year or two both Britain and France became weary of war, and peace was signed. By the terms of the peace all conquests were to be restored on both sides; Silesia was guaranteed to Frederick, and Maria Theresa's husband was recognised as Emperor.

In the latter part of the campaign the British were too much occupied at home to enter and pursue continental struggles. Prince Charles Edward, son of the Old Pretender, had made his way to Scotland while the French

were busy in Europe. Not being able to count on French aid he placed his trust in the Highlanders.

The attractive personality of the "Young Pretender" caused the Scots to flock to his standard. At the battle of Prestonpans, a village near Dunbar, the Highlanders, charging sword in hand, swept all before them. The defeat of the English caused a sensation in England, and so heartened the Highlanders that most of Scotland supported the cause of the Prince.

The next step was a matter of some doubt. Many of his followers were anxious that Charles should declare Scotland independent, consolidate his position there, and then wait for French aid. But Charles was bent on the invasion of England, and up to a point his plans were highly successful. At first the approach of the rebel army excited little fear, but when it reached Derby a panic ensued. So great was the run on the Bank of England that it is said the directors adopted the ruse of paying in sixpences to gain time.

Though the country had enjoyed peace and plenty under Walpole's long administration, and had to a large extent lost the sense of personal grievance at the displacement of the Stuarts, the mass of the people seemed indifferent to royal partisanship. That this was the case is evidenced by the fact that, though King George had collected an army at Finchley to check the march on London, he had also placed most of his valuables on his yacht in case it was necessary to take refuge in Hanover.

The situation was certainly serious, because had Prince Charles advanced to Finchley and defeated George, as

was not improbable, the whole English dynasty might have been changed once again. But this contingency was averted since Charles, against his own wish, was bidden to retreat. The retreat was a masterly one, but it set the seal of failure on the Young Pretender's hopes.

The Battle of Culloden, gallantly contested by the Highlanders, was the final blow to the Jacobite cause. Prince Charles managed to escape to France after many stirring adventures and narrow escapes. A reward of £30,000 was offered for his capture; and it is a great tribute to the fidelity of his friends that the reward was never claimed.

The devotion of Flora Macdonald, who effected his escape from a perilous position by taking him with her disguised as a woman, will always be a tradition in the land across the border.

23. THE SEVEN YEARS WAR, 1756-63

IN LESSON FORM

1. *Immediate Cause*

THE Seven Years War is one of the most important and memorable in English history. It was really the sequel to the war between Frederick the Great of Prussia and Queen Maria Theresa of Austria. Peace had been made between these two countries, and the Emperor Frederick had secured Silesia for Prussia. The Empress Maria, however, could not reconcile herself to the loss of this province, so she sought the help of France against Prussia.

It must be borne in mind that King George II of England was also King of Hanover. This alliance of Austria with France against Prussia, made King George very anxious about the safety of Hanover. Hence he joined Prussia against France and Austria "to keep the balance of power," and so began the Seven Years War (in 1756).

2. *Procedure*

The next year William Pitt became Prime Minister. He was the greatest War Minister of all time, and it was due to his brilliant planning of our war against France that we eventually gained Canada and India. He determined that England should be a great colonial power and, to that end, he sought to make her mistress of the seas.

His mode of procedure was to send men and money to Frederick of Prussia to help the Prussians against the French and keep them busy on the Continent while we attacked the latter in Canada and India. He then reorganised the commands in the Navy and Army and removed the admirals and generals whom he thought incompetent, replacing them by men whom he deemed worthy of promotion. Among those who came under his special notice for competency was a young officer, Colonel Charles Wolfe. He was but thirty years old when Pitt chose him from a number of more experienced officers, to take command of our troops in Canada against the French.

3. *Canada*

During the century immediately preceding George II's reign, England had

established thirteen colonies in North America between the seaboard and the Alleghany Mountains. The population was over a million, and was being rapidly increased by emigrants from England, Ireland and Scotland, as well as Protestant refugees from Germany and Austria.

The French colonies were much more vast. They included the immense basins of the St. Lawrence and Mississippi rivers. The French hoped to prevent the spread of the English colonies westward to the prairies in the basins of the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, so they made a chain of small trading posts and forts. When the Seven Years War broke out, General Montcalm took command of the French troops and captured two British forts.

This was a severe setback to the English, and it was at this depressing time that Pitt came into power, and Wolfe, in spite of being called "mad," was given command. "Mad, is he," said George II in reproving a duke; "then I hope he will bite some of my generals." Under Pitt's reorganisation the tables were speedily turned. Admiral Boscawen and Wolfe captured the French fortress of Louisburg on Cape Breton Island, which commanded the entrance to the River St. Lawrence. Other French forts fell, including Fort Duquesne, which was renamed *Pittsburg*, after the famous statesman. The power of the French in Ohio was broken; if Quebec could be captured, Canada was ours.

Quebec is built on a steep hill; on one side lie the Heights of Abraham, on the other flows the River St. Lawrence. Its position was considered well-nigh impregnable, but not so to the dauntless Wolfe. His orders were, to

take it at all costs. His first attack was a failure, and he had to retreat, sick in body and mind.

Meanwhile Montcalm strongly entrenched himself. At last, after some weary and disappointing months, Wolfe managed to lead part of the English fleet to a cove, where, under cover of night, the troops were able to land. Then they traversed a narrow, steep, zig-zag path to the top of the Heights. "The paths of glory lead but to the grave," muttered Wolfe as he led his men, and in the morning Montcalm discovered he had been outgeneralled.

Montcalm gave battle, and a fierce encounter took place between him and the Highlanders led by Wolfe. In less than half an hour the British were victorious, but both generals were mortally wounded. By this victory (1759), England gained the whole of America from the Gulf of Mexico to the Arctic Ocean. It must be remembered that the British Navy was the powerful force behind this success, for it was due to the Navy that men and supplies were sent to America. The capture of Quebec prevented, too, an invasion of Great Britain which was being planned by the French in that same year.

4. *India*

While Wolfe was winning laurels for the British in North America, Clive was doing equally well in India. For many years previously, the French had been trying to drive the British trade from India. Dupleix became Governor-General of the French possessions in India in 1741. His headquarters were at Pondicherry. He immediately began to make himself very influential among the native

princes with the sole object of reducing the power and prestige of the British.

This, to some extent, he managed to do, and no doubt he would have entirely succeeded but for the genius of Robert Clive. Clive had been a clerk in the East India Company's offices at Madras, but, hating the work, he joined the Army and at twenty-six was an officer.

Dupleix, the crafty French Governor-General, had laid siege to Trichinopoly; if he succeeded in his attack, the whole of Southern India would come under French influence and British chances would be lost.

It was at this juncture that Clive came into prominence. He proposed attacking Arcot in order to detract the French from Trichinopoly, and, with a tiny band of 8 officers, 200 European soldiers and 300 sepoys, he easily captured Arcot from the terrified garrison, who had heard that he was advancing with tremendous forces.

The garrison fled; the ill news reached Trichinopoly, where panic seized the attacking party, who looked upon Clive as a wizard. The French gave in and Clive, worn out with hard work, and thinking British interests in India quite safe, returned home for a rest.

Dupleix seized this opportunity to resume attacks on the British, but suddenly, just as he saw his opportunity of developing a powerful French empire in India, he was recalled to France and died of grief and disappointment. The British East India Company was now left in peace, and considerably developed its trade, especially at Fort William in Calcutta (Bengal).

This was partly due to the wealth of that region and partly to the kind-

ness of the native ruler towards the British. When this ruler died he was succeeded by Surajah Dowlah, a weakly youth of about twenty years of age. He hated the English and, from the day of his accession to power, the attitude towards the British company changed entirely. He sought an opportunity to quarrel and soon found one. A native prince, whom he tried to plunder, asked for and was given British protection. In revenge, Surajah Dowlah marched against the British fort with an immense force.

The attack was quite unexpected, and the Governor, finding himself with but small and inadequate defence, fled, leaving the fort and its inhabitants to their fate. The Surajah ordered the imprisonment of 145 inoffensive merchants and one woman. They were driven into a dungeon about 20 feet square, with only one small barred window for ventilation. The atmosphere was terrifically hot, and a night of horror ensued. In the morning only twenty-three dazed persons staggered from the foul "Black Hole of Calcutta."

The news caused a wave of horror to spread throughout the land. Clive had returned to India as Governor of Madras that very day, and he immediately organised a punitive expedition to Bengal. Soon he advanced to Calcutta and faced the armies of Surajah Dowlah, and after a desperate struggle, retook the city, and Surajah sued for peace.

But Clive did not trust him. "He is a villain and cannot be trusted," he said, "he must be overthrown or we must fall." So Clive advanced to Plassey and with one English regiment (the old 39th), about 2,000 sepoys and

eight pieces of cannon he met the immense forces of Surajah. After about six hours' fighting the Nabob was in flight, for his principal Commander, Meer Jaffir, turned traitor and refused to fight the British. The French fought on, however, for a time, but in the end followed the example of their allies and fled. So Bengal was won by the British; Meer Jaffir was made Viceroy of Bengal and ruled as a vassal of the East India Company.

5. Results

By this battle the beginnings of our Indian Empire were firmly established; the French were allowed to keep their factories, but not to fortify them; and Clive returned to England, where he was created a peer (1757).

He went to India once more, however, for the native Viceroy was not proving a success; so he substituted British for native rule and then finally returned to England. The Seven Years War which was being fought in Canada, India and Europe, did not end till 1763. When peace was made, Great Britain received Canada, some West Indian Islands and Minorca. But although Quebec passed to the British, French influence did not die in the province. To this day the people speak French, and the architecture of their buildings and houses is French. The French-Canadians, however, play their part as valuable citizens in the great self-governing Dominion.

"We shall win Canada on the banks of the Elbe," said Pitt, and he was right; for by assisting Prussia to keep France hopelessly fighting in Germany, Pitt prevented the French from sending men and money to Canada and India. No wonder Frederick the Great

said, somewhat bitterly, that he was the victor but Britain the prize-winner.

TEACHING NOTES

1. The object of this section should be to teach:

- (a) the founding of the Dominion of Canada;
- (b) the beginnings of our immense Indian Empire;
- (c) the increase of the power of Frederick the Great in Europe.

2. Use large maps, atlases, diagrams and blackboard very freely. Pictures of Pitt, (Earl of Chatham), Wolfe, Montcalm, Clive, Surajah Dowlah and other personages will be found very useful and interesting.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. The quarrel between Prussia and Austria; the allies of each and the reasons for such alliance.

2. How the war in Europe affected the English and French cause in (a) Canada; (b) India.

3. The immediate causes of the outbreak of war in Canada—Pitt, Wolfe, Montcalm.

4. The immediate causes of the outbreak of war in India—Pitt, Clive, Duplex, Surajah Dowlah.

5. The results in (a) Canada; (b) India; (c) Europe.

24. THE BIRTH OF THE UNITED STATES

THE Seven Years War, it has been pointed out, must be regarded as one of the most memorable in English history. It marked Clive's great success in India over the French and native forces at the battle of Plassey, and with it the certainty that English rule had extended to the East; also the conquest of Canada by Wolfe at the battle of Quebec, besides

Other English victories in Europe. With these successes our colonial greatness was securely laid. But a few years later it was to receive a serious check.

Lining the American sea-board was a number of States, founded by Englishmen and regarded as English. They were all in a more or less flourishing condition, and held a population of one and a quarter million whites and a quarter of a million negroes. These oversea possessions enjoyed a large measure of self-government. All internal affairs, including taxation, were left in the hands of each particular province.

Up to a certain stage the States anxiously desired the protection of the Mother-country. The French were on their borders in Canada and the western territory, and were making strenuous attempts, by building a chain of forts, to keep the New England States from expanding beyond the Alleghanies. But Wolfe's success at Quebec gave the English the supremacy in Canada, and removed the fear of the French from the minds of the English colonists.

In spite of this, matters might have gone on as they were, had not a king ascended the throne in 1760 who felt himself fitted to take the lead in English politics. It cannot be said that George III ruled contrary to statute, but he made it his one aim to secure all the power possible in the government of the country, and to pack Parliament with people who would do his will.

Now the Seven Years War against the French had been a very expensive undertaking, and as the American colonies had benefited by the campaign in the security it gave them, it

was considered only right that they should bear a part of the expense. But the form in which the money was to be raised was offensive to the colonists, and regarded by them as an attack on their liberties.

It was decided by the English Parliament that a Stamp Duty should be imposed in each province, that is to say, that all legal documents used in the dominion should carry an English stamp. The colonists regarded this as an interference in their internal affairs, and it did certainly mark a change in the attitude of the home government to the English States, which up to that time had been allowed a free hand. The States met the imposition of the Stamp Duty by asserting that it was illegal unless it carried with it representation in the English Parliament.

Benjamin Franklin, formerly a printer, but afterwards famous as a scientist, was sent as an ambassador to the English Parliament to protest against the proposed taxation. He was met with the answer that it could only be withdrawn provided the colonies joined together in a union and agreed to tax themselves for this purpose. Franklin had no orders to agree to this, and having failed in his petition, he returned home.

It should be noted in passing that he himself was in favour of submitting to the will of England, but his fellow-colonists were not in the same mood, and sent a protest to the Mother-country to the effect that "the prohibition of trade was neither equitable nor just, but the power of taxing is the grand barrier of English liberty. If that is once broken down, all is lost."

The interference with trade consisted in these stipulations: (1) all

imports into America were to be British ; (2) the placing of duties on goods imported at American seaports ; (3) the prohibition of manufactures in the colonies ; (4) a law that all exports from America were to be shipped to England first.

A striking instance of the hardship of discouraging manufactures in the colonies was furnished by the prohibition of beaver hat-making. Fur was plentiful in America, and the colonists could have made hats at one-third the price at which they could import them. But since their manufacture in the colonies would injure the same industry at home, it was forbidden by the Mother-country.

But it must be borne in mind that the idea common among the English statesmen at one time was, that the colonies existed solely for the benefit of the Mother-country, to furnish it with raw material and take its manufactures in exchange. The idea of self-development was kept quite in the background. Though this motion had been considerably modified by the time of the Stamp Act, it had not by any means died out.

The great orator, Burke, certainly did declare in those days, with reference to her colonies, that England "guides and controls them all without annihilating any." This was true, but the restrictions imposed were too many to satisfy the colonists, though they by no means crushed them.

It must also be realised who and what the colonists were, and why they had sought American soil. They were the descendants of the best of English stock—independent, self-reliant lovers of freedom, pious, just, simple in their habits, serious in their outlook on life.

They belonged to a race of men who had left their native land, not because they had failed to get a livelihood in it, and were anxious to seek a land of greater promise across the sea, but because of their religious views. The Puritans of *The Mayflower* were the men from whom the colonists had sprung.

It was little to be wondered at if men of this kind, with the story of their forefathers ringing in their ears, were unduly sensitive in the matter of restrictions from home, and jealous of their liberty and freedom. Thus the atmosphere was "electric." It needed merely a tiny spark to produce a mighty blaze. The Stamp Duty would have done it, but the English Parliament in its wisdom repealed it, much to the regret of George III.

But there was a sting in the repeal. The condition accompanying it was that the home Parliament was to be supreme in all cases whatsoever. It was plain from this that the feeling still existed that the dependence of the colonies on England was to be insisted upon. And there still remained the import duties which dissatisfied the colonists. Hence, after a good deal of discussion and conflict between the Assemblies and the Governors, it was resolved not to import anything from the Mother-country.

In spite of this, goods were sent from England, and amongst them a ship-load of tea to Boston. On reaching the harbour it was boarded by a band of men disguised as Red Indians, and the cargo thrown overboard. It was a regrettable incident in a great conflict where important principles were at stake, and was regarded by the

• leaders of the colonial movement as a lawless act. Indeed, there was willingness to make amends for the mistake. But the colonists were looked upon by George III and his supporters as rebels, and the crisis became so acute that war was declared by England.

The King blindly believed that the war would soon be over, that four regiments would be enough to bring the colonists to their senses, as he expressed it. But the organisation of the colonial troops, the courage of the men, the skill of the leaders, and particularly of George Washington, ensured success over an army which had to be transported across the sea to a battle against fellow-countrymen, fighting, as they believed, for freedom and liberty.

Pitt, one of the greatest of English statesmen, was strongly opposed to war. "You will never conquer America," he said. He was right. Burke took much the same view. The colonists were successful, and in 1783 a treaty of peace was signed by which the independence of the United States was completely recognised, and all that was left to England in America was Canada, with the Island of Newfoundland.

In the Naval Museum at Portsmouth may be seen an exact copy of the original Document of Independence, setting forth in full the reasons for claiming it, together with the signatures of the chief colonists who participated. No one can read it without a thrill, without the reflection that a country which now ranks as one of the three greatest in the world was once a dominion of Great Britain, but was lost largely through the want of wis-

dom on the part of those who controlled the destinies of England in the latter part of the eighteenth century.

25. THE STORY OF BRITISH AGRICULTURE

OWING to the invention of machinery, chiefly for the textile trades, the last half of the eighteenth century was a period of great industrial prosperity. At this time the population was growing rapidly, and the demand for wheat was therefore great; so agriculture, too, became prosperous. It must be remembered, however, that the Corn Laws were still in operation, and as the effect of these was to prohibit imported corn, the price of English wheat was kept high.

But while it is quite true that farming as a whole was prosperous, practically the whole benefit was reaped by the large farmers, most of the small ones being ruined. The reason for this was that farmers were beginning to see that to make agriculture pay well in England, it must be undertaken on a large scale, and the most modern methods and the latest machinery used. The old system of farming on the open-field plan was seen to be out of date, and though it was reckoned that at the beginning of the eighteenth century three-fifths of the arable land was tilled in this way, most of it had been hedged or fenced by the end of the century.

The open-field system had served a useful purpose when each farmer was so poor that he could not afford to keep his own oxen, and only a small

amount of produce was required. But now more capital was available for agriculture, and the amount of wheat required was out of all proportion to what it had been.

In the eighteenth century there was a great improvement in the method of tillage, due to scientific devices, and attention was next turned to the rearing of sheep. Up till the eighteenth century, sheep had been reared chiefly for their wool, and the quality of the meat was regarded as of little importance. But now the demand for meat had greatly increased, and farmers saw that it would pay them to produce a weightier sheep. The old type of sheep was so thin that it was said his ribs rattled under his skin like a skeleton encased in parchment.

As a result of more careful and scientific breeding, a sheep three times as heavy was obtained, and the average weight of a sheep gradually increased from 28 lb. to 80 lb. Rearing cattle next claimed attention. When oxen had been used principally for ploughing and drawing carts, and when they had to walk through fields of scant pasture, it was essential that they should be big-boned and long-legged. They were never fat, nor could they be, since they could not get sufficient food except in summer, winter crops for cattle being unknown.

But now that winter crops were available, it was possible to produce plump, fleshy animals, which gave to the "Roast Beef of Old England" the great name it has always maintained. The average weight of an ox, selling at Smithfield in 1700, was 370 lb.; in 1800 it was 800 lb.

It is obvious that old methods could not pay against the new and improved

ones, and the small farmer was bound to suffer.

But there were even greater troubles in store for him. The profit he got from his land was not sufficient to keep him and his family in comfort; some addition to his income was necessary, and this had been obtained by spinning in his spare time. Every member of the family, from seven years upwards, was able to help in this, and as much as ten shillings a week was thus added to the farmer's income, and a good deal more than this if there were several grown-up sons to help. Spinning could always be obtained in early days, for much yarn was required to keep the weavers constantly employed.

After machinery was introduced in the cotton and woollen industries, this extra employment of the small farmer vanished, and he was no longer able to make ends meet. So what with the expense of fencing, high rents, competition with the well-to-do farmer, and loss of extra employment, the small farmer stood no chance. Even if the farm were his own freehold, he could not hold out against the change. Hence most of the small farmers became wage-earners under the large ones, or migrated to the towns and entered the cotton or woollen factories.

This in one way was a great loss to England. The small freehold farmer, or yeoman as he was called, had been the backbone of England for many centuries, and it was from his ranks that our soldiers had been drawn. They were bold enough in the old days to withstand the oppression of kings, and particularly of the Stuarts. At the beginning of the eighteenth century they were 180,000 strong. At the

beginning of the nineteenth they were practically extinct.

But regrettable as the change was in this respect, it was a necessary one if English agriculture was to hold its own. The old system answered no longer; production on a large scale is always more economical than on a small one; and as capital was plentiful in England owing to our successes in manufactures, farming could be undertaken on a much greater scale.

Again, the wealthy manufacturers and merchants were anxious to buy land. First, they saw that it was likely to be a profitable speculation, and secondly, it gave them a better social standing and more power in the country. Landowners were still the governing class, and a man was debarred from sitting in Parliament unless he were a freeholder. Hence the wealthy people were anxious to own land, although they did not always attend to the farming of it themselves, but often let it out to a farmer who employed labour. So there rose up three classes of landmen—the owner, the tenant farmer and the labourer.

By the twentieth century, agriculture had very much declined in England; and no doubt the reason for this is to be found in the absence of a close connection between the owner of the soil and those who raised the produce. The complaint is common that farm lands were bought as a speculation, rents were higher in many cases than they should have been, and changing conditions of agriculture were not taken into account by the landlords, because they were either ignorant of the business itself or too many miles away to know what was going on.

There is a saying that "there is

nothing new under the sun," and this is largely true with regard to agriculture in England, for Parliament has come to the conclusion that if agriculture is to hold up its head again, its future can be aided by the small tenant or freehold farmer, particularly the latter. The plan of "small holdings" is at present in its infancy, and it is too early yet to see whether it is likely to bring about the revival of English agriculture.

There are some classes of farming, it should be pointed out, which are more profitable for the small man, such as the production of fruit and vegetables, and the rearing of poultry and pigs. A good deal of the work in this case is done by hand; few and inexpensive implements are necessary, and a small acreage only is required, as the work is compact. But even in this class of farming, the best knowledge will bring about the best results, and it is necessary that those who earn their living on the land should know the science of their business as thoroughly as those engaged in other forms of work.

Holland and Denmark recognise this more than we do, and in those countries people who are going to be farmers are taught at an early age the scientific principles underlying farming; hence model farms and model dairies are very common.

26. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION—BEFORE AND AFTER

ENGLAND was now reaping the benefits brought about by the introduction of machinery into the textile trades, and profiting by the displacement of water power for

that of steam. Her looms were busy in different parts of the country, and the nation's wealth was increasing rapidly as a result of the quick production of manufactured goods.

As far as the daily life of our people was concerned, a spirit of content prevailed. A hundred years before, England had passed through a revolution. A despotic king had been driven off the throne, and another invited to take his place who consented to rule through the representatives of the people in Parliament. Privileges to particular classes of people had been largely swept away, and there was now one law for rich and poor alike.

But on the Continent things were in a very troubled state. Great distinctions between the two classes prevailed, due to the fact that the worst features of Feudalism still remained. In France particularly, abuses lingered; here the people were roughly divided into two classes, those who had privileges given them by the State and those who had not. The privileged upper class, consisting of the nobles and clergy, was considerably in the minority, and but one-thirtieth of the whole population; yet it wielded all the power, since it possessed nearly the whole of the land.

Though this was the case, the upper class paid scarcely any taxes, and so the burden of taxation fell almost entirely on the lower and poorer class. The lords of the manor still rendered service for the land they held, instead of paying rent as the English farmer did. The state of things which existed was similar to that which prevailed in the time of Edward III in this country, that is to say, in the fourteenth century.

In the towns of France all trades were in the hands of guilds.

In the army, only the nobles could become officers; in the church, the poorer members could never rise higher than parish priests, and the best places were kept for the nobles. Hence in town and country most of the people were prevented from doing their best because, at every turn, they were shut out by the privileged class.

Things might have gone on for some time in this unsatisfactory condition had not the finances of the country sunk into a wretched state. The taxes were sold to speculators, who gave the Government a lump sum for them, and gathered in what they could extort. In consequence, there was no definite system of collection. Each province, too, levied its own customs and dues, which were sometimes so heavy that it did not pay to carry goods from one province to another. The result was that internal trade became disorganised and decreased considerably.

France lost, also, most of her colonies, and so her foreign trade suffered a great check. Useless wars had been fought by Louis XIV and Louis XV, in which a great deal of money had been spent and little result achieved. The Court was one of the most extravagant in Europe, and its luxury was all the more evident, because of the misery which existed outside.

At last, in 1789, when France was nearly bankrupt, oppression burst its bonds, and a revolution broke out in the name of "Liberty, Equality and Fraternity."

The condition of things in France could not be fully realised by the English people, but the immediate effect here of the French Revolution

was one of sympathy with the cause of freedom. However, Burke's book, "Reflections on the French Revolution," coupled with the excesses which the revolutionists committed, caused a complete change of opinion.

"The French have pulled to the ground," Burke said, "their army, their navy, their commerce, their arts and their manufactures." If this were true, a man was soon to arise who would pull them up again.

At the siege of Toulon a young Corsican officer, Napoleon Bonaparte, became conspicuous for his ability, and brought about the surrender of the city. Later he became the sole ruler of the country, and the French Revolution expanded into an invasion of most of the countries of Europe in the name of freedom. That was its object in *name* only; Napoleon's object was conquest. In the space of a few years he succeeded in defeating most of the European countries; the only one of importance unconquered was Britain. By concluding a temporary treaty of peace on the Continent, he was able to give all his attention to the task of trying to lay England at his feet.

Realising that the surest way to attack England was through her trade, he made attempts to close the ports of Europe against English ships, and with this object in view called in the northern countries of Europe to combine with him.

The English, however, were able to frustrate this design, and, by a defeat of the Danes at Copenhagen, kept the Baltic open for British ships. A temporary truce was brought about by the Peace of Amiens, but shortly after, war broke out in a more violent

form. The great battle of Trafalgar followed, when the gallant Nelson lost his life, and Napoleon's triumphs were checked for a space. But though Napoleon's navy was beaten at Trafalgar, his army was very successful in Europe, for Austria and Russia combined were defeated by it at the battle of Austerlitz, and the Germans at Jena.

England, by a violent stretch of her rights, now declared the coasts of France and her allies to be in a state of blockade, which meant that all ships calling at their ports were liable to be seized by the British. Napoleon replied by declaring a blockade of England, thus forbidding continental ships to trade with England or in English goods.

These restrictions were too severe to be carried out entirely by either country. Goods were smuggled in, in spite of decrees to the contrary, and special licences to trade were granted; Napoleon found that he himself could not do without the goods he tried to exclude; the French soldiers were clad in coats made at Leeds, and shod with shoes made at Northampton. But though this policy of shutting out one another's trade was not entirely successful, it did a serious injury to both countries; and much of the French and English shipping passed to "neutrals," especially to the Americans.

But we in England suffered most of all, because we were the chief manufacturers and greatest carriers of the world. Large stores of goods had to be kept in the country, because they could not find a market on the Continent. But out of the evil of these restrictions came good for France. Having excluded English goods, Napo-

leon set about establishing manufactures at home, and the cloth trade and beet-sugar industry owe their origin to him. Still England did not give in; neither did France, and finally both chains of restrictions broke of their own strain. The orders were evaded by smugglers, and Russia and other countries refused to keep up the blockade.

Several battles were fought on land and sea before the final overthrow of Napoleon at Waterloo in 1815. With this battle the war between England and Napoleon was at an end; but it left us exhausted. Our National Debt had risen to over £800,000,000; manufacturers had been heavily drawn upon for money to keep up the war; and this in spite of the fact that markets for their produce had been cut down. Employment fell off considerably; taxation increased. Then came a bad harvest. The great demand for wheat and the scarcity of it caused its price to rise enormously high, and this price, strange to say, was kept up by the Corn Laws of 1811 and 1812.

It is said that the years 1811 and 1812 are the blackest known in English history, for they were years when the condition of the working classes was pitiable in the extreme, owing particularly to the high price of bread.

The Corn Law of 1815 prohibited the importation of wheat into England unless the price of English wheat reached the high figure of 80s. per quarter. Thus it will be seen that all foreign wheat was shut out, and this law was kept in force in face of the fact that our own corn was being freely exported.

After the war was over, things did not improve rapidly. The huge quanti-

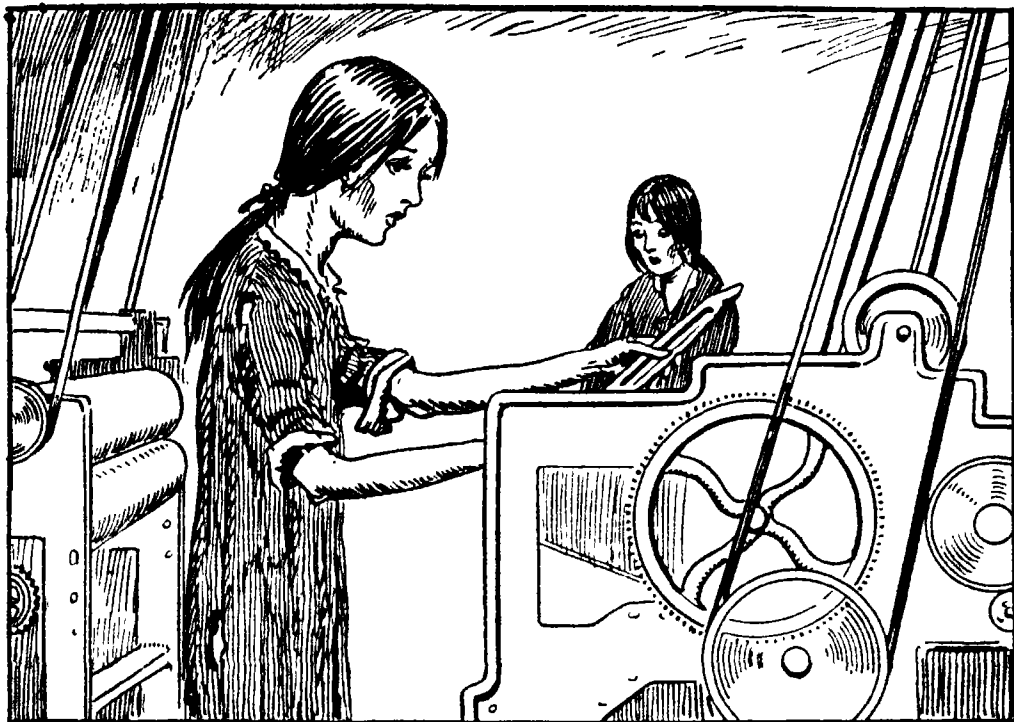
ties of goods which had been stored up during the blockades now flooded the markets and had to be sold off very cheaply, and at a loss. The temporary employment which the war provided came to an end, and the services of thousands of soldiers and sailors were no longer required. Some help was given them, and small batches were sent to South Africa to get a living on an unknown soil; but thousands were workless and hungry. Hence agitations were set on foot for the removal of trade restrictions, and during the century they were being continually removed.

27. CHILD-LIFE AND LABOUR

AT the close of the eighteenth century a great expansion of trade took place, and in consequence employers began to look round for cheap labour. So an attempt was made to take children from school as early as possible and put them to work in the mills and factories.

It seems hardly possible that children of five, six or seven years of age were sent into these places. Yet this was the case in Lancashire, the centre of the cotton industry, and in Yorkshire, the home of the woollen manufacture. Many parents were even anxious to *apprentice* their children at this early age if employers were willing to receive them. The average number of hours which the children worked was from twelve to fourteen daily, but frequently sixteen or eighteen hours was the period.

The effect of hard labour for many hours in the unhealthy air of the factory, and of poor and insufficient



CHILD-LABOUR.

Until 1802, when the first Factory Act was passed, children were working daily in the cotton factories of Lancashire, and the woollen factories of Yorkshire, from the tender age of five upward. The average number of hours worked was from 12-14 daily.

food, was that the apprentice often developed into a weak and deformed man. But this state of things could not go on, and in 1802 the first Factory Act was passed.

Its chief instructions are enlightening. They were :

1. That the interior of the mills should be whitewashed at least twice a year, and that all rooms should be properly ventilated.

2. That proper clothing should be provided for the child-workers.

3. That no child should work more than twelve hours a day, and not at all at night.

4. That every child working in the

factory should be given elementary education and religious instruction.

5. That proper sleeping accommodation should be provided.

This was followed by the Act of 1819, which legislated for two classes of children—those under nine years of age, whose employment in cotton spinning was prohibited, and those from nine to sixteen, who were not allowed to be employed for more than twelve hours a day. Sir Robert Peel and Robert Owen were chiefly concerned in bringing about this improvement.

The Factory Act which was most effective was that of 1844. By this Act, a factory-office was established in London to which a notice had to be

sent of the opening of any new factory. Certificates had to be obtained which permitted children to work only between the ages of eight and sixteen. Factories were to be properly inspected; they were to be made healthy; accidents were to be carefully inquired into, and children of school age were compelled to attend school. No child under thirteen was allowed to work on an average more than eight hours a day.

The next question to engage the attention of Members of Parliament was that of child-labour in coal mines. Lord Shaftesbury caused an official inquiry to be made in 1842, and this showed a deplorable state of things.

Children, even girls, were found to be employed down coal mines, filling the wagons and dragging the coal. Dreadful to state, some children never saw daylight except on Sundays. But these conditions were improved year by year, until in 1887 the Coal Mines Regulation Act stated that "no boy under the age of twelve years, and no girl or any woman of any age, shall be employed in, or allowed to be, for the purpose of employment, in any mine underground." Legislation followed later for the lace, hosiery and wearing-apparel trades, and before the end of the nineteenth century the conditions of child-labour were improved beyond recognition.

The case of the poor little chimney sweep is well put by Charles Lamb in his famous "Essays of Elia." He says:

"I like to meet a sweep—understand me—not a grown sweeper—old chimney-sweepers are by no means attractive—but one of those tender novices blooming through their first nigritude (blackness), the maternal washings not yet effaced from

the cheek—such as come forth with the dawn, or somewhat earlier, with their little professional notes like the peep! peep! of a young sparrow; their aerial accents not seldom anticipating the sunrise.

"I have a kinder yearning towards these dim specks—poor blots—innocent blacknesses. I reverence these young Africans of our own growth—these almost clergy imps, who from their little pulpits (the tops of the chimneys), in the nipping air of a December morning, preach a lesson of patience to mankind.

"Reader, if thou meetest one of these small gentry in thy early rambles, it is good to give him a penny. It is better to give him twopence. If it be starving weather the demand on thy humanity will surely rise to a tester" (sixpence).

Nevertheless, it was an easy step after so many years of legislation to do away with the infantile chimney sweeps, who had been employed to crawl up and sweep house chimneys.

Yet even as recently as 1911, "half-timers" of thirteen years of age were found in many of the primary schools outside London. It was usual for these children to work in the factories for four or five hours each day—one week in the morning and the next week in the afternoon—spending the other half-day at school. It is easily understood that troops of tired children went to school or factory, as the case might be. Many middle-aged men now living went to work as "half-timers" at eleven years of age. Cheap child-labour meant cheap production and high profits for the employer.

Improvements in the matter of the employment of children have proceeded apace within recent years. The half-time attendance practice has gone altogether, and no child is allowed to leave school till the end of the term in which he or she reaches the age of

fourteen. The Education Act of 1921 also provides :

1. That a child under the age of twelve shall not be employed.

2. A child under the age of fourteen shall not be employed to lift, carry or move anything so heavy as to be likely to cause injury to the child.

3. A child under the age of fourteen shall not be employed in any occupation likely to be injurious to his life, limb, health or education, regard being had to his physical condition.

In this connection also it is interesting to notice that some of the local education authorities go further, and are very precise in the conditions of employment. The following clause, taken from the by-laws of a London Education authority, is of special significance to teachers, and similar by-laws are doubtless to be found under most education authorities.

" A child shall not be employed in the delivery of milk ; in the delivery of newspapers ; in carrying or delivering goods or parcels, on, or in connection with, any shop ; in any coal yard ; in housework away from home ; or as a messenger, unless notice shall first have been given by the employer to the *head teacher of the school* at which the child attends."

28. GREAT INVENTIONS

THE French Protestants, driven out of their own country by religious persecution, began to settle in England towards the end of the sixteenth century. Here they made earnest attempts to establish the cotton manufacture as a distinct industry,

but such was the shortsightedness of those engaged in the older textile manufactures of wool, linen and silk, that their attempts were strongly opposed, for it was felt that these industries would be ruined if the cheaper cotton article gained a footing. Wherever the Huguenots set up the manufacture, riots broke out, and their stock and plant were sometimes destroyed.

An appeal was even made to Parliament to prohibit the manufacture of cotton goods, and in order to try to stifle the growth of the industry, a duty of threepence a yard (afterwards sixpence) was put on all calico made in England. As this did not have the required effect, the making or selling of cotton goods was forbidden. These stringent laws checked considerably the growth of the cotton industry, but they did not kill it altogether. It still flickered in a few centres in the north, and after a time revived considerably.

It was not until the year 1736 that the law permitted cotton materials of any description to be made ; even then they had to be a mixture of cotton and linen, i.e. the threads of the material one way had to be of linen, and the cross threads of cotton.

After being pitilessly driven away from the old manufacturing centres one after another, the cotton industry found a resting-place in Lancashire. At that time, this county was one of the most thinly populated in England, and contained only three towns of importance—Liverpool, Manchester and Preston.

Thence onwards, the cotton manufacture forged ahead, and to-day provides employment for hundreds of

thousands of people. The reason for its rapid growth was due to the invention of machinery, which increased the rate of production a thousand-fold.

The first invention which affected the industry in the weaving part of the manufacture was Kay's *flying shuttle*. Previous to this, the shuttle carrying the weft (i.e. the cross threads) had to be run through the warp (i.e. the first row of threads) by hand. This was a slow and tedious process; moreover, cloth could only be woven the width of the man's arm reach, i.e. about three-quarters of a yard. If cloth of double width were required, two men were employed, and they had to pass the shuttle across to each other.

Kay's shuttle was driven by mechanical power. Hence it not only enabled the weaver to produce double, as well as single cloth, but doubled the rate of weaving. The result was, that more yarn was required than before to keep pace with the weaving. But under the existing conditions it was impossible to produce it. It was no uncommon thing for a weaver to walk many miles in order to visit several spinners, and gather from them enough yarn to give him a full day's work.

"Necessity is the mother of invention," however, and intelligent men set to work to discover how yarn might be produced by mechanical means. The discovery was made by accident. The spinning wheel of a workman named Hargreaves overturned on the floor. He found, however, that he could still go on working it.

This gave him the idea that spinning might be carried on by a number of wheels revolving at the same time in

a row. Thus the *spinning jenny* was conceived, and Arkwright improved upon it with his *water-frame*. This machine consisted of a number of rollers worked by water power, and it produced a much harder and stronger yarn, known as "water-twist."

Then Crompton combined the principles of the two jennies and invented a machine which he called the *mule*. By this, he could produce a finer thread than was made before in this country.

So each invention had its particular advantage. Hargreaves' jenny enabled spinning to keep pace with weaving; Arkwright's improvements, by producing a much stronger yarn, made it possible to make goods entirely of cotton; and Crompton's fine yarn enabled muslins to be produced. The jenny, water-frame and the mule, all being worked by water power, led to the rise of mills in Lancashire and Yorkshire, where streams were plentiful.

But the loom, the instrument for weaving, was still worked by hand. This was a great drawback to weaving, and until Cartwright brought out his *power-loom* it was impossible for weaving to make headway. In a few years, however, when Cartwright's invention had been improved upon by other men, weaving was able to keep pace with spinning.

The inventions introduced into the cotton industry soon came to be applied to the weaving of wool, worsted and flax. In consequence, machine labour rapidly took the place of hand labour all over the country.

Now that machines were multiplying so fast, some greater force than the old water-wheel had to be found to

drive them, and it was James Watt who solved this problem.

Watt first invented his steam-engine for use in mines, but it was soon adapted to driving the machinery in the textile trades. This was the crowning-point of a series of inventions which made England the most important manufacturing country in the world. "I sell, Sir, what all the world desires—power," said Boulton, Watt's partner, to George III.

The great benefit which England was to derive from machine power was not fully realised, however, for some time, especially by the industrial classes. When the change from hand to mechanical power was first brought about, large numbers of work-people were thrown out of employment, because the number of men required for the same work under the new conditions was much less than formerly. But as soon as the new machines were fairly going, the trade of England increased rapidly, and markets for our goods were easily found abroad. The great demand for English goods caused the discharged workmen to be employed once more. Hence, though at first there was some displacement of labour, there was an increase later.

The temporary hardship to the hand-worker, added to a dislike for change, accounts for the riots that broke out in different parts of the country at this time, and in which a good deal of the new and expensive machinery was destroyed. Of these the Luddite riots are the most notorious. Gradually, however, matters settled themselves.

Now that machine-made goods were being turned out so rapidly, other things were speeded up in order to

keep pace with the increased output. The roads of England had to be considerably improved, so that quicker transport might be possible. Owing to the bad state of the roads the average pace of a coach was not more than six miles per hour. Often, too, a wagon got stuck in the muddy ruts and was a fixture till a team of horses, even thirty or forty strong, could be brought to extricate it. In 1815 Macadam showed that the best roads could be made with angular flints, instead of with pebbles and stones of various sizes.

But road carriage, even if the roads had been good, would not have been sufficient, and easier and cheaper methods of transport had to be found. As a consequence *canals* were made for the first time in England, although they had been in use in France and Holland for some years.

The first canal was constructed under the direction and at the expense of the Duke of Bridgewater, after whom it was named. This proved a success; so others were made, and in the next quarter of a century the greater part of England was intersected by canals which covered a total distance of 3,000 miles. Many of these canals are little used at the present day, but a century ago they rendered invaluable service to the trade of this country.

The invention of machinery for the cotton industry spread not only to other textiles, but to other industries as well. Successful inventions were introduced into the iron trade, and the *blast furnace* came into being, which made it possible to use coal for smelting iron, instead of using charcoal as formerly.

The demand for coal being thus considerably increased, it was necessary to get a greater supply, and machinery was invented for the hauling of coal to the surface at a greater speed, and also for pumping water from the mines. So the coal and iron industries were worked hand in hand, and this factor contributed, in a large measure, to England's industrial greatness.

The next step in the development of steam power was its application to ships. In the year 1812 Henry Bell's little steamer, the *Comet*, appeared on the Clyde, and in 1819 the first attempt was made to cross the ocean in the *Savannah*, a vessel of 350 tons, from America to Liverpool. Sails were still kept in use for ocean travel, and it was a common sight to see large vessels fitted with steam and sail, so that either could be used when necessary.

In the nineteenth century, England, thanks to her inventions, was rapidly reaching the summit of her industrial fame, and one of the most serviceable inventions of this period was an important discovery by Henry Bessemer, an English engineer. He invented a new and cheap process of making steel from pig iron, and as a result, steel became plentiful and cheap.

In the year 1837, the first of the reign of Queen Victoria, the *electric telegraph* was developed in England by Cooke and Wheatstone, and in America by the brothers Morse. A few years later the first *telegraph cable* was laid between England and Ireland, and a little later, under the Atlantic Ocean. By this wonderful device a message can be conveyed from continent to continent in an incredibly short time.

29. BRITISH GOVERNMENT

I. HOW IT IS CARRIED ON

IN this country the *King* is the head of the government, which consists of two Houses of Parliament—the *Lords and the Commons*. The King acts, however, through his *Ministers*, who are charged with the duty of conveying to him the wishes of the people.

The people elect the members of the House of Commons, and from these the Ministers are chosen who form the committee known as the *Cabinet*. It is obvious, therefore, that the Commons is the more important of the two Houses.

The King rules in accordance with the laws and charters of the country. He signs every new law before it is put into practice, and his signature is never withheld if both Houses are in agreement. Hence we are said to be governed by a *Limited Monarchy*.

As head of the Government, the King must be consulted in all great crises, such as making war or signing treaties; even then he is largely guided by the advice of his Ministers. The country must not be without a King; if the monarch dies, the heir immediately succeeds him, hence the proclamation "The King is dead, long live the King."

The House of Commons consists of 615 members, who represent England, Wales, Scotland and Ulster. The remaining part of Ireland is a Free State, and has its own Government.

The Chairman of Parliament is called the *Speaker*. He is chosen by the House, and the King approves the choice. He is chosen from any party, but he must not belong to a party

when he accepts office, for he must be impartial and fair to all. One of the duties of the Speaker is to see that a member, when speaking, keeps to the point. He can stop a member if he speaks at too great length, and can order any member to withdraw either his words or his person if he offends the dignity of the House by word or deed.

The Mace is the sign of the Speaker's office. It is carried before him when he enters the House, and remains there while the business is proceeding.

When the Speaker leaves the chair the business for the day is over and the mace is removed.

When a member wishes to bring forward a new law he gets permission from the House to do so. He then writes down the name of the *Bill*, signs his own name, and adds the names of those members who wish to support his proposal. The Clerk of the House reads it to the members; this is called the *First Reading*.

Later on the bill comes before the House a second time. It is discussed by the members, who are then asked to vote for or against it. If the majority are in favour of it, it is said to have passed the *Second Reading*.

Later it goes before a *select committee*, who discuss it in detail and alter it where necessary. It is then considered again by the House of Commons. If the majority are in favour, it is said to have passed the *Third Reading*.

Next it goes before the House of Lords. If they agree to it, the King adds his signature and the Bill becomes law.

When members are asked to vote on a Bill, all who agree say "aye," those who oppose say "no." If the

"ayes" and "noes" appear to be equal, the members file out, the "ayes" to the right, and the "noes" to the left. They are allowed two minutes in which to do this. They are then counted by *tellers* as they pass into the lobbies, and the correct numbers "for and against" obtained.

Every member of the House of Commons is elected by the votes of the people in the Parliamentary Borough, i.e., the *Constituency* he represents. If a member dies, his place is filled by election in the constituency.

When a *General Election* is about to take place, each party—Conservative, Liberal and Labour—calls a meeting of its chief supporters in the constituency. The party pledges itself to take up some particular points which affect the people of the division. Women are sometimes chosen to be candidates.

When the election day arrives, the voters—men and women—go to the polling station nearest their homes, concerning which each has had previous notice. The voters are given a ballot paper, and this they take to a screened desk. There they make their mark in secret, against the candidate whom they desire to choose for Parliament, fold their papers, and drop them into the ballot-boxes.

At the end of the day the ballot-boxes are taken to the Town Hall, and the votes are carefully counted. The candidate with the largest number of votes is declared elected by his constituents. The cost of the election is paid by the candidate; his supporters can subscribe to help to pay for printing and for holding meetings. Secret balloting was introduced in 1872. Before that time candidates could bribe or even frighten people to vote

for them. Now bribery is a corrupt practice.

Every Member of Parliament is now paid a salary of £400 per annum and given a railway season-ticket between the Houses of Parliament and his home.

A Parliament can last for a maximum period of five years, but it can be dissolved before that period by the party in power.

The party in power is the one which has the majority at the general election, e.g. if the Conservatives have the most members returned at the general election, then we have a Conservative Government; if the Liberals, a Liberal Government; if the Socialists, a Labour Government.

The leader of the government is called the *Prime Minister*. He chooses the Ministers from the members of the House of Commons, and they form the *Cabinet*. Each Minister holds a very important office. There are, for instance, the Minister of Education, who looks after the education of the country; the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who fixes the taxes, and who arranges how the country's money shall be spent; the Postmaster-General, who is the head of the Post Office business; and others. The appointment of each must be approved by the King, and the post is held, as a rule, till the next general election.

The population of our country is vast and, in round numbers, about 50,000,000. It is therefore impossible to govern it from one central body. So the country is divided into a number of districts, and these govern their own affairs in certain directions. The power which the local committees of districts exercise is called *Local Government*. The Saxons had a very good system of

Local Government. There were the Village Moot, the Town Moot, the Hundred Moot and the Shire Moot, according to the size of the area governed (moot, a *meeting*).

The Normans built up the Feudal System, which included a strong central governing body with the King at the head. For some centuries the control did not come back to the local bodies, but with the passing of the Reform Bill in 1832, local government again became active.

In 1888 the Local Government Act was passed. By this Act County and Borough Councils could be formed. In 1894 District and Parish Councils came into being. The work of these Local Councils is in accordance with directions sent to them by Parliament. The departments of Parliament which are chiefly concerned in controlling the actions of the local committees are the Local Government Board and the Ministry of Health. (See notices to parents of school children *re* doctors' visits, clinics, etc.)

Local Councils consist of bodies of men and women chosen by the people of the locality to carry on certain work. They are unpaid, but the staffs employed to carry out their instructions are paid for their services.

With a few exceptions, there is a Council for every geographical county in England. Such a body is called a *County Council* and is the largest local governing body. Its members are elected every three years, and the election is carried out in the same way as the parliamentary elections.

The County Councils control very largely the sanitary work of the county, keep bridges and main roads in repair, make arrangements for

primary, secondary and technical education, control the police and establish and maintain tramways.

Counties are divided into boroughs, and each borough has a *Borough Council*. Such local matters as those relating to public libraries, baths and wash-houses, parks and open spaces, street cleaning and lighting and sewerage come under the authority of the Borough Councils.

The work of the County and Borough Councils is most important. Every citizen, therefore, should use his vote to ensure that the best representative men and women are elected to serve on these Councils.

The District and Parish Councils are similar bodies, but their control is over a smaller area.

30. BRITISH GOVERNMENT

2. HOW IT IS PAID FOR

(a) *Taxes*

ONE of the chief Cabinet Ministers is the Chancellor of the Exchequer. Certainly he is the best-known, and some say the least liked. It is he who finds ways and means to fill the public purse, and it is he who says how it shall be emptied.

Once a year he asks all the heads of the various departments to say how much money each will require to carry on efficiently and economically his special branch of the country's work.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer holds many meetings with these heads, and debates with them the "whys and the wherefores" of their estimates. Then when he has estimated the needs of the Government for the ensuing

year, he fixes the taxes to meet these needs, and so he produces *the Budget*.

Every tax-payer eagerly looks forward to Budget day. The estimates, and plans for meeting them, are read to the House of Commons. The greatest excitement is when the chief tax—"the *Income Tax*"—is announced, for this is the tax that affects most people directly. It is a *direct* tax, and is paid by all men and women on every pound they receive over a certain net income. There are other direct taxes, such as those on motor-cars, carriages, men-servants, dogs, amusements and inherited money.

Indirect taxes are those paid on luxuries, such as silk, tea, lace, watches, scent, wine, spirits, beer and tobacco. These goods are taxed before coming into the country to be sold, and so people pay for them a price which includes the tax paid by the importer.

All the money obtained by taxation is called the *Revenue* of the country, and when collected it is deposited in the Bank of England for later use.

Every year Parliament votes a certain sum of money from the taxes, called grants, to assist local governing bodies to carry on their work. But this is not by any means sufficient, so the remainder is raised locally.

(b) *Rates*

Local Governments must have sufficient money to carry on the work of the district over which they have control.

The money is obtained from four sources :

1. *Grants* from the Government, which in the case of Education, is 50 per cent. of the approved amount to be spent.

2. Local taxes called *Rates*, which are levied on five-sixths of the rent of the house in which the rate-payer lives. A lodger generally pays to the householder an inclusive rent, i.e., a proportion of the total rents and rates respectively.

3. *Profits* from public services such as gas, electricity and tramways. If these are run at a profit, the tax-payer benefits by a lower local tax; if not, he has to help to pay the loss.

4. *Loans* on which interest must be paid out of the local taxes.

Rates are fixed every half-year by the Borough Councils, in much the same way as the Chancellor of the Exchequer prepares the Budget. People can if they wish, however, pay quarterly. A "demand note" is sent to the householder to tell him the amount of the rates, and to inform him that it is due. Then the collector calls on a specified date. The ratepayers of better districts have now to pay a certain amount of money in rates to help to reduce the rates of the poorer districts. This is called the "Equalisation of Rates."

The money raised locally by rates is divided between the County Council and the Borough Councils within the county, according to the needs of their special purposes.

31. EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

"**S**OME knowledge of European history on the part of the teacher becomes necessary at this stage."
—"Suggestions."

The first fifteen years of the nine-

teenth century were occupied principally with England's opposition to Napoleon. That opposition ended with the French Emperor's defeat at Waterloo and his banishment to St. Helena.

The Congress of Vienna, which met in 1814-15, set about reshaping the political system of Europe. The four great powers, Austria, Russia, Prussia and England, combined to restore the property to the pre-revolution rulers, and to bring this about they were compelled to impose their will on the smaller states.

After 1815 there are two distinct parties to be found in the States of Europe :

1. Those who advocated rule by a monarch and nobles, and who believed to a large extent in the Union of Church and State, and the censorship of the Press.

2. Those who believed in more liberal principles, and were in favour of the sovereignty of the people. They advocated constitutional government on the lines of the English Parliamentary system, and also demanded progress, and liberty of speech and the Press. Gradually during the nineteenth century the latter principles gained ground. They reached their climax in the year 1848, which marks a great revolutionary movement in the principal countries of Europe.

The results of Napoleon's influence on Germany were highly beneficial to her as a nation. When the French Revolution broke out there were upwards of three hundred small states in Germany; by 1815 the number had been reduced to just over thirty. In addition to this, she was able to shake

off the states where the population consisted of non-German races. Thus she was becoming much more united than Austria. The desire of the German patriots was to see all states which spoke German united into one nation.

A Customs Union was formed in 1833 with Prussia at its head, and all other states were forced by Prussia into this tariff union. Austria was excluded.

To make Prussia strong enough to hold dominion over all the other German states, and to shut out Austria, was the work of the great German minister, Bismarck. "Germany must be merged into Prussia," he said. At the same time he foresaw that Austria would not withdraw from the German confederation except through force. To bring about his design, he reorganised the Prussian army at this period, and conciliated the chief European powers. To Napoleon III of France "compensation" was offered.

The Austro-Prussian War of 1866 was a formidable one, and ended in Prussia's favour. As a result Austria withdrew from the Confederation, and Prussia became the mistress of Germany.

But with the war against Austria at an end, Bismarck seemed unwilling to compensate France adequately. The cession of the left bank of the Rhine was the price demanded by France. This Bismarck refused.

He considered also that a war against France was necessary in order to complete the work of German unity. The great Franco-Prussian war of 1870-1 was the result. Through her victory, Germany was able to create her empire. In 1890 Bismarck was displaced, and France felt herself free

to build up alliances with the chief European countries. In 1904 the "Entente Cordiale" was formed through the agency of King Edward VII; in 1907 the "Triple Entente" between France, Russia and Great Britain was cemented.

At the same time that German aspirations were being fixed on a united State, Italy was feeling its way in a similar direction. "Young Italy," organised by Mazzini, was striving to "unite all Italy in a single State under Republican Government."

But national unity was not to come through Mazzini. It was rather to come through Cavour, who became Premier of Sardinia in 1852. His belief in parliamentary government, and his liberal policy, made Sardinia the home of liberty, and attracted to her the other states of Italy. The Austrians were occupying Lombardy at the time, and Cavour's aim was to drive them out in order to bring about a united Italy. In this he was not altogether successful, however, and Austria still held possession of Venice. Unable to unite Italy in the North, Cavour turned to the South, and here he was aided by Garibaldi and his "red shirts." In 1861 Victor Emmanuel assumed the title of King of Italy, and this marked the power of the king in Italy over that of the Pope.

The Papacy, however, refused all alliance with Liberalism. In 1866 Venice was handed over to Victor Emmanuel as a reward for his help to Prussia in the Austro-Prussian War. In 1870 France withdrew her troops from Rome for her war against Germany, and Rome came under the dominion of the King of Italy. In addition to this, Trieste and the Trentino

were ceded to Italy in 1919 by the Treaty of Versailles.

The condition of Austria was in direct contrast to that of Germany and Italy, for she was a collection of a dozen nationalities, divided by language, religion, hatred and rivalries. In such a state of things any change seemed dangerous. This explains, doubtless to some extent, the policy of Metternich, one of the most famous of Austrian ministers, who for thirty years was the foe of Liberalism. He has been referred to as the "incarnation of reaction."

The Holy Alliance, conceived by Alexander I of Russia, became converted by Metternich into the Quadruple Alliance of Austria, Prussia, Russia and France, a League of the four big powers to protect rulers against Liberalism and Nationality.

Metternich's interference with the policy of the other European States was later resented by England and France, and his influence was considerably weakened by the formation of the Kingdom of Greece in 1829, the French Revolution of 1830, and the creation of the Kingdom of Belgium in 1831. It received its final blow in the Revolution of 1848.

After the Austrian defeat by Germany in 1866, the Hungarians secured the Dual Constitution. By this the realm of the Hapsburgs, who had ruled Austria for a period of nearly 650 years, was divided into the Empire of Austria and the Kingdom of Hungary, each with its own constitution, legislation and administration, and with a common policy for such matters as foreign affairs and war.

The world-war led to the break-up of the Dual Monarchy, and the end of

the Hapsburgs. Of these the Emperor Francis Joseph, who ruled from 1848-1916, was the last reigning representative.

Russia, in 1815, consisted of many peoples besides Russians, including Letts, Poles, Finns, etc. Her urban population was less than 5 per cent. of the whole. The nation was composed mostly of illiterate serfs, bound to the soil, and liable to be sold with the estates they tilled. They were less enlightened than our own agricultural labourers of the Middle Ages.

All land, except the crown domains, was held by the nobles. The Czar controlled both Church and State. The autocracy of the Czars continued more or less unbroken till after the defeat of Russia by Japan in 1905. Popular agitation then led to some measure of Parliamentary Government. An advisory "Duma" was appointed, which was a form of a Lower Chamber, but its power was short-lived. From this time onwards, however, the principles of Liberalism were spreading, and they broke out in an extreme form in the Revolution of 1917. The causes of the Revolution were briefly as follow :

1. The condition of the peasants.
2. The repression exercised by the nobles and the employment of the Church (which was a form of the Greek Church) for the purpose of this repression. Two phases of the repression were the activities of the secret police, with wholesale deportations to Siberia, and the denial of education to the peasant classes.
3. The propaganda of the great Russian writers, Dostoievsky, Turgenyev, Tolstoy and Gorky, who painted such vivid pictures of the hopeless state of the peasantry.

* 4. The rise of the Social Democrats who adopted the teachings of Karl Marx.

In view of the European upheaval in 1914-18, the history of the chief continental powers prior to the war assumes greater significance.

32. THE CHIEF EVENTS OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

WHEN the century opened the *Boer War* was still being waged, but its happy termination soon followed in the Union of South Africa. A still greater upheaval, however, took place in 1914, when the *Great European War* began. The books on the subject are many, therefore it will only be necessary here to enumerate briefly the causes and effects.

During the latter part of the nineteenth century frantic attempts had been made by the most important European nations to annex the unappropriated parts of the world's territory. An outlet for the surplus population of these countries, and also fresh sources for the supply of raw materials for industry, had to be found. Such being the case, armies were strengthened and navies increased. Alliances were the only safety valve. Bismarck had built up the Triple Alliance between Prussia, Austria and Italy. The Triple Entente between England, France and Russia followed.

Hand in hand with these alliances, which naturally ranged themselves on opposite sides in a crisis, came the desire for political and commercial supremacy. By the year 1914, the material for war was in a highly combustible state, and needed only a spark to set it aflame.

The spark appeared in the murder of the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria at Serajevo. Serbia, it appeared, was anxious to bring under her rule the Jugo-Slav subjects of Austria, which would have meant the probable break-up of the Austrian Empire. With the assassination of Ferdinand, Serbia and Russia were ranged on one side, against Germany and Austria on the other. It was as a member of the Balkan League that Serbia had Russia's support.

When war between these nations was declared, France was bound to support Russia by the Dual Alliance; and when Germany attempted to march through Belgium to attack France, England was forced to declare war against Germany as a member of the Triple Entente, and to oppose her violation of the neutrality of Belgium.

The Great European War pursued its violent course till November 1918, when an armistice was concluded. By this time nearly the whole world had been involved.

The results were very far-reaching: France regained Alsace-Lorraine—her dream since 1871; the Austrian Empire was split into several portions; Russia passed through the throes of a terrific revolution and became a Republic under the Bolsheviks; Germany became a Republic; and Poland had her independence restored. In addition to this, autocracy largely disappeared from Europe.

A notable exception, however, was the rise of a rigid nationalism in Italy under the Dictator Mussolini. The formation of the society of the Fascists arose, to counter a tendency to revolution at one stage, in Italy. But perhaps the greatest result of the war has been

the attempt to reduce the occasions for war in the future, by the establishment of the League of Nations. Practically all the nations of the world are now members of the League. Its work is only begun, and the years to come will determine its powers and its usefulness.

The position of *India* as a member of the British Empire has always been distinct from that of the self-governing dominions. In the case of the latter, the population consists mostly of English-speaking people. In India this is not so. There are as many as 150 different languages spoken in the country, and as many different divisions of race, caste and creed. In these circumstances, it is difficult to see how India can ever be regarded as a single unit, with self-governing powers. At present, at any rate, the only unity is that imposed by the British Empire itself.

For some time a minority with strong nationalist instincts and possessing intelligence, education, training and experience much above the average has been at work in India to bring about self-government in the country. To deal with the situation the Simon Commission (so-called because Sir John Simon was at the head of it) went to India on behalf of the British Government in the year 1928. The outcome of the work of this Commission must be looked for in the years which follow.

On his return to England after a two months' tour of India, Sir John Simon said that the purpose of this preliminary tour was "to interpret to the British Legislature the feelings and hopes of India, and to suggest the lines on which a solution will have to proceed."

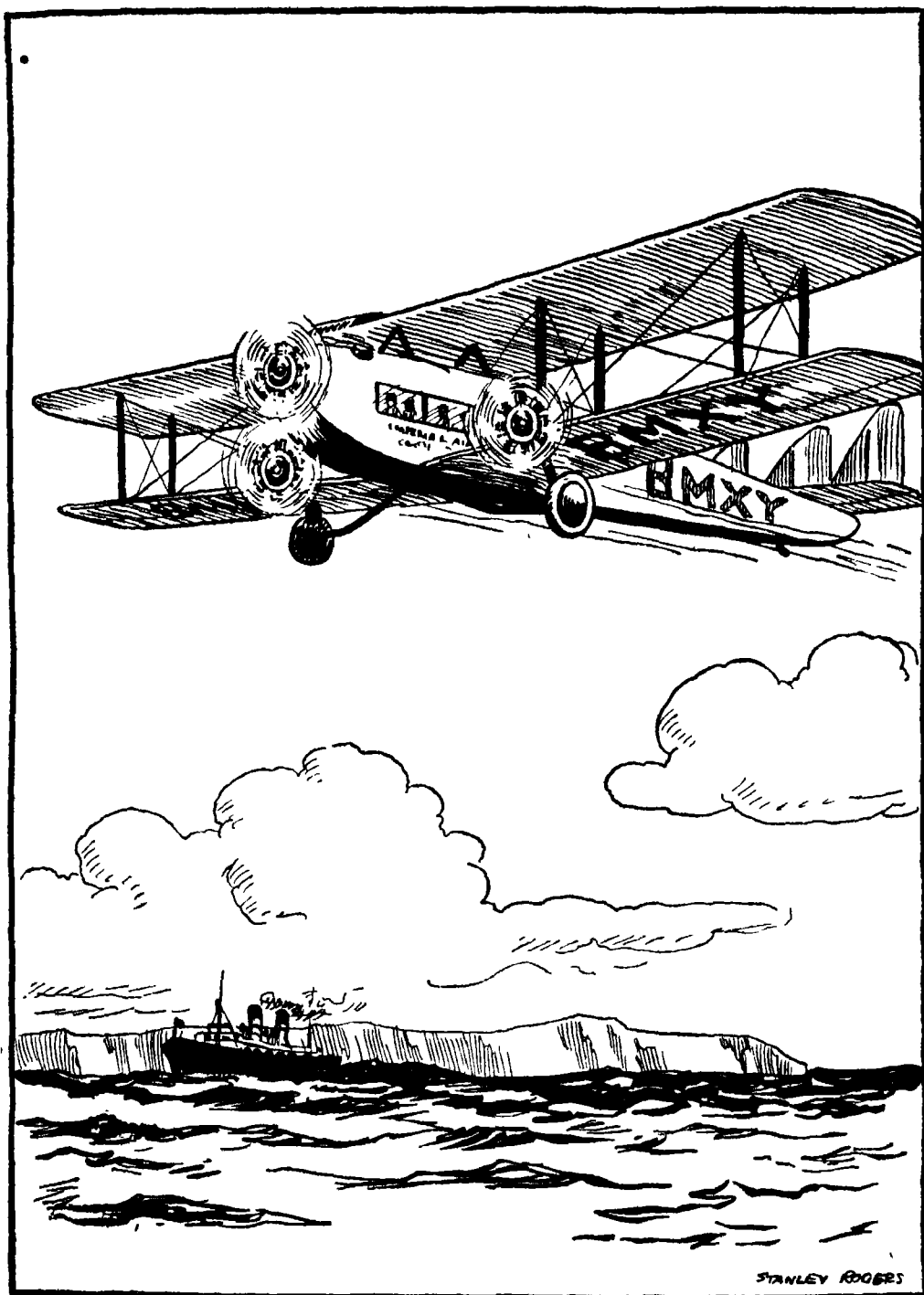
The great *inventiveness* which marked the close of the nineteenth century, when heavier-than-air *Flying Machines* occupied serious attention in England and America, continued into the twentieth.

In July 1909 the English Channel was crossed for the first time by Blériot. Thence, till the present day, improvements have been continually taking place in flying machines, and their speed and safety have been enormously increased.

In the autumn of 1926 Alan Cobham flew to Australia and back in the incredibly short time of thirteen days of actual flying. Mr. Cobham's wonderful flight is important because it marks a step towards the time when air lines will link up the Dominions with this country. In 1927 the Atlantic was "flown" from the American side, and in 1928 from this side.

But of all the inventions of the century which have contributed to man's benefit the most wonderful is that of *Wireless Telegraphy*. Messages are now flashed through the air, to every part of the globe. The news of the day can be sent to every ship fitted with wireless apparatus, wherever it may be. Moreover, many a ship has been saved from wreck by a wireless call for help, picked up perchance by a ship hundreds of miles away. The name of Signor Marconi, the Italian inventor of wireless telegraphy, is famous the world over. Wireless telegraphy also brings untold pleasure to people who "listen in" in their private homes, and is the means of freeing villages from their former isolation and ignorance.

The development of the *Motor-Car* has kept pace with that of the air-



AIRPLANE.

Sir Hiram Maxim in England, and the brothers Wright in America, made important experiments in "heavier-than-air" machines in the opening years of the twentieth century. In 1908 Wilbur Wright was awarded the Deutsche prize of £20,000 for exhibition flights in Paris. Marvellous developments have followed.

plane. The motor is rapidly superseding all other forms of transit, and a large proportion of the people, in England and the United States, own cars for the purpose of business or pleasure.

The close of the first quarter of the twentieth century and the opening of the second have seen the establishment of an efficient system of "old-age" and widows' pensions, and insurance against unemployment and sickness.

33. A CENTURY TABLE

A CENTURY will be found a convenient and useful period for a summary covering the chief events of history. It is long enough to include the working out of important changes, and not too long a period for children to assimilate. A century table can easily be made too full, and so become of little practical value. Hence the matter it contains should be of such importance that it is worth retaining. It should embrace also the most important dates. Only salient events should find a place as far as the pupil's purpose is concerned.

The importance of a Century Table need hardly be emphasised. Unless the great events of history can be put into their periods, the conception of the whole range of the subject in a continuous form and in chronological order would be extremely difficult. It is hoped that the following Century Table will help pupils in their grasp of the subject; will imbue in them a desire for orderly arrangement of facts, and ensure in their minds chronological sequence.

A second table might with advantage be compiled for reference only. This could be much fuller, and would be found of great service for teachers and scholars, particularly the former. The authors feel it would be as well for individual history teachers to compile a chart of this nature for themselves. The chart which is given, it will be noticed, includes other than English History, but only the outstanding events of imperial and foreign history have been included.

4000 B.C.—2000 B.C.

The Stone Ages. The Great Egyptian pyramids built.
Abraham settled in Palestine.

2000 B.C.—1000 B.C.

The Celts inhabit Britain. The Iron Age begins.
The Phenician Merchants.

1000 B.C. TO THE BIRTH OF CHRIST

King David of Israel.
Homer lived.
Rome founded 750 B.C. The glorious days of Greece began 500 B.C.
Alexander the Great.
Hannibal makes war on the Romans.
Cæsar visits Britain 55 B.C.

A.D. 1—A.D. 500

Roman legions land and settle in Britain
A.D. 43.
Romans leave Britain A.D. 407.

A.D. 500—A.D. 1000

Augustine arrives in Britain.
Bede, the learned monk.
Charlemagne becomes Emperor.
Times of Alfred the Great and the Danes.

A.D. 1000—A.D. 1200

Battle of Hastings, 1066, in which William the Norman defeats Harold the Saxon.
The Normans settle in England.
Richard I and the Third Crusade.

A.D. 1200-A.D. 1300

Magna Charta signed by King John, 1215.
The first representative Parliament summoned by Simon de Montfort, 1265.
Conquest of Wales by Edward I.
St. Francis of Assisi.
The poet Dante (Italy).
Roger Bacon, scientist. Marco Polo, traveller.

A.D. 1300-A.D. 1400

Battle of Bannockburn.
The Black Death.
Time of Chaucer.
Peasants' Revolt.
Wyclif and Lollards.

A.D. 1400-A.D. 1500

Joan of Arc saves France.
Invention of Printing. The Renaissance.
Raphael the painter lived.
Turks take Constantinople. End of Hundred Years War.
Wars of the Roses.
Columbus discovers America, 1492.
Vasco da Gama.

A.D. 1500-A.D. 1600

Henry VIII and the Reformation.
Elizabeth, 1558-1603.
Shakespeare, 1564-1616, and Spenser.
War against Huguenots in France.
The Armada.
The East India Company formed.

A.D. 1600-A.D. 1700

Colony of Virginia founded.
Authorised Version of the Bible.
The *Mayflower* sails for America.
The Petition of Right, 1628.
The Civil War.
1649-60, the Commonwealth; War with the Dutch.
Jamaica discovered. Bunyan; Wren;
Milton · Newton.

The Revolution against James II, 1688.
William of Orange becomes King.
Louis XIV reigns in France.

A.D. 1700-A.D. 1800

Union of England and Scotland under title of Great Britain, 1707.
John Wesley.
Clive in India; Wolfe in Canada.
Great Inventions in the textile trades:
Kay's flying shuttle. Hargreave's spinning jenny. Crompton's mule
Watt's steam-engine.
Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations."
Cook's first voyage to Australia.
American Independence, 1776.
French Revolution, 1789.

A.D. 1800-A.D. 1900

Union with Ireland, 1800.
Trafalgar, 1805.
Waterloo, 1815.
Macadam roads.
First Reform Bill, 1832.
New Zealand becomes a part of the British Empire.
Repeal of Corn Laws.
The Crimean War.
The Indian Mutiny, 1857.
Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States.
Garibaldi and Italy.
Bismarck, leading Prussian Minister.
Dominion of Canada formed 1867.
Franco-German War.
Elementary Education Act, 1871.
The telephone.
County Councils, 1888.

A.D. 1900-A.D. 1927

Commonwealth of Australia, 1900.
The Boer War.
Union of South Africa, 1909.
National Insurance Act.
Great World War, 1914-18.
Votes for Women.
The League of Nations.
Irish Free State.

34. A CHRONOLOGICAL LIST OF ENGLISH SOVEREIGNS

THE part which English Kings and Queens have played in the history of our own country has varied greatly from time to time, but no one can question that at different periods many of them have not only shown a keen interest in the affairs of their people, but have helped to shape the national policy. Formerly the history book confined its attention to the doings of "courts and camps," to use Carlyle's phrase, but latterly the pendulum has swung to the other extreme, and there has been a tendency to ignore such material altogether.

As compromise is generally the wisest and fairest course in human affairs, so the happy mean in history teaching will serve the best interests of the subject. In this handbook for teachers an attempt has been made to extract the best from the lives and actions of those who have occupied the throne, and also the salient features in the slow but sure development of the people's freedom in thought, word and deed.

The names of the English sovereigns and the times of their reigns will be found to set a definite period to many of the important events of English history, and to bridge the gap to some extent between the old form of history and the new.

NORMAN KINGS

William I	1066-1087
William II	1087-1100
Henry I	1100-1135
Stephen	1135-1154

THE PLANTAGENETS

Henry II	1154-1189
Richard I	1189-1199
John	1199-1216
Henry III	1216-1272
Edward I	1272-1307
Edward II	1307-1327
Edward III	1327-1377
Richard II	1377-1399

LANCASTRIANS AND YORKISTS

Henry IV	1399-1413
Henry V	1413-1422
Henry VI	1422-1461
Edward IV	1461-1483
Edward V	1483
Richard III	1483-1485

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR

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

THE STUARTS

James I	1603-1625
Charles I	1625-1649
Commonwealth	1649-1660
Charles II	1660-1685
James II	1685-1689
William and Mary	1689-1702
Anne	1702-1714

THE HANOVERIAN SOVEREIGNS

George I	1714-1727
George II	1727-1760
George III	1760-1820
George IV	1820-1830
William IV	1830-1837
Victoria	1837-1901
Edward VII	1901-1910
George V	1910-

SPECIMEN LESSONS

THE ARCHITECTURE OF THE GREEKS

APPARATUS

1. Wall map of Europe, atlases for pupils.
2. Diagrams and pictures of "early, middle and late" Grecian columns.
3. Pictures of famous buildings in Europe, the designs of which have been influenced by Greek architecture.
4. Pencils and chequered (or plain) paper for use of teacher and pupils.

Subject-matter.

Method of Presentation.

Refer to text.

1. *The column and colonnade.*

- (a) Refer to atlases for position of Greece.
- (b) Show pictures of buildings of ancient Greece; then pictures of other buildings without columns. Elicit by contrast, characteristics of the buildings of ancient Greece. Refer to Egyptians; the form and ideas were theirs; Greeks improved on them. Show pictures of Egyptian buildings. Educe differences.
- (c) Show pictures of famous Roman, Italian, French, and English buildings; some with, some without, columns and colonnades. Let pupils learn, by comparison and contrast, the great æsthetic influence of the Greeks on ancient and modern buildings.
- (d) Educe that these Grecian buildings were temples and theatres. Compare and contrast our theatres with the latter.

2. *The Doric, Ionic and Corinthian columns.*

- (a) Lead pupils by pictures to discern chief differences in the various columns, really in the "head"; London the "head" city of England; Paris the "head" city of France, and so on. Teach the word "capital," from Latin *caput*, the head or chief.
- (b) *Doric*.—Notice column, crowned by flat slab. Show diagram; sketch column on blackboard. Let children quickly copy into notebook or on chequered paper; or correlate with art lesson. Show pictures of Parthenon, in Greece. Give other examples.
- (c) *Ionic*.—Treat in the same way; show picture of British Museum; compare with pictures and diagrams already shown. Teach word "volute," merely to add to vocabulary, hence educe words; revolve, evolution, etc.
- (d) *Corinthian*.—Treat as above; draw outline of acanthus leaf on blackboard; fill in a diagram of Ionic head, and thus trace evolution from one to the other.

3. *Influence on other nations.*

- (a) Follow up (at an early date) with lessons on Roman and Gothic architecture and trace simply, by means of pictures, diagrams and co-ordination with art lessons, the æsthetic influence of Greek architecture.
- (b) Take pupils for "observation walks" if possible.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. Influence of Egyptian architecture on Greeks.
2. Chief kinds of Greek architecture :
 - (a) Doric—distinctive points and examples.
 - (b) Ionic—distinctive points and examples.
 - (c) Corinthian—distinctive points and examples.
3. Influence of Greek architecture on : (1) Roman, (2) English.

AN ENGLISH FARM

APPARATUS

1. History pictures, e.g. a Saxon Village (Adam Black, Soho, London; and other publishers), a Modern Farm, etc.
2. Diagrams to explain "rotation of crops."
3. Map of England and Wales.

Subject-matter.

Method of Presentation.

*See text.*1. *The lord of the manor.*

Explain, by amplifying knowledge gained as juniors, how the "lord of the manor" came into being; his duties, his privileges; are there lords of the manor now? If so, where and why?

2. *Tenants.*

Explain carefully the duties and privileges of tenants; cf. with pupils' parents, as tenants. What are their duties and privileges? People used to pay rent in money, kind and service; now in money only.

3. *Grades of tenants.*

(a) Freeman, villeins, "cottars"; outline simply the distinctions. "Cottar," term used still in Scotland; read a verse or two of Burns' "The Cottar's Saturday Night."

Note interesting derivation of "villein" and "serf." Word-paint the rights of the "serf"—his wood, hay, swine, cattle, meadowland. Use many coloured pictures if possible; note serf not a *slave*.

(b) Slaves, their duties; where used; when the custom died out. Refer to abolition of slavery in British Empire.

4. *Cultivation of the land.*

(a) Explain by diagram: (1) "strips"; (2) rotation of crops; (3) balks.

(i) Refer to allotments, especially during war-time, 1914-18, of 10 square rods, etc.

(ii) Explain reasons for "rotation of crops"; more scientific knowledge of cultivation now renders this method less and less necessary.

(iii) Balks and fences—no law on fences even now, although many next-door neighbours think so.

(b) Terms: "three-field," "open field," "fallow," should be dealt with in an interesting manner by frequent reference to the country-side.

(c) The pictures referred to under "Apparatus" will be useful, or any others available.

5. *The Saxon village—the home of the farm-workers.*

(a) Use pictures freely.

(b) Refer to map for districts where the ancient salt and iron industries were, and are, carried on.

(c) Cf. cattle of Saxon times with those of the present day. Refer to present methods of rearing cattle at home and in our Dominions.

(d) Picture rural Saxon England and cf. with rural and industrial England of to-day.

(e) Villagers interdependent, why? Graphically describe how they would live.

(f) Some remote villages even now where people are interdependent. Note gradual influence of the coming of the motor-car on these and the whole country.

(g) Cf. the advantages and the disadvantages of the Saxon village.

Subject-matter.

Method of Presentation.

5. *The Saxon village—the home of the farm-workers—(continued).*

- (h) Picture the homesteads, the wives and children helping; the labourers coming home to the evening meal (read the first verse of Gray's "Elegy" to town-children, to get the atmosphere); their garments; the domestic animals; the oxen and the plough; the village church; many Saxon churches in Sussex; note architecture. Use picture of Saxon village.
(i) Show pictures of village life then and now.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. The lord of the manor, his rights and duties.
2. The tenants; their grades; their rights and duties.
3. Slavery in England.
4. Strips, rotation of crops, balks, fences.
5. A short description of a Saxon village.

QUEEN ELIZABETH AND THE POOR

APPARATUS

1. Blackboard.
2. Several copies of Rates "demand note."
3. Pictures of various mendicants of the time.
4. A Bible.

Subject-matter.

Method of Presentation.

See text.

(The flourishing times of Queen Elizabeth.)

1. *Revision.*

1. (a) Refer to charity, misplaced and otherwise; also to mendicants of Elizabeth's time, of to-day; in England, on the Continent.
(b) Refer also to charities—money given in life-time of donor or left by will for others' benefit.
(c) Explain that to be given fairly there must be a system of distribution. Elicit evils of promiscuous giving.

2. *The Poor Rate.*

2. (a) Explain need for differentiation between the needy, infirm people and the professional beggar.
(b) Explain why in 1536 licences were taken from beggars. Educe that someone, therefore, must look after the sick and helpless, who? The Church; hence alms-giving to the clergy for such purposes. Refer to Church collections to this day—certain Sundays set aside on which collections are made for "the poor and needy" of the parish.
(c) Revise—suppression of the monasteries by Henry VIII and educe results.
(d) Revise—pasturage took the place of corn-growing in some parts; results.

Subject-matter.	Method of Presentation.
2. <i>The Poor Rate—</i> <i>(continued).</i>	(e) Educe, if large sums of money are needed for the poor, it must be met by other means besides charities; fairest way for all who can afford to give something, to do so; hence <i>Poor Rate</i> instituted, a most important innovation. Refer to system of its collection now. Show a rates "demand." Hand copies round. Explain in very simple outline the "Poor Rate."
3. <i>The Poor Law.</i>	(a) Explain that now the means of providing "relief" had been evolved, a system for distributing it was necessary, hence <i>Poor Law</i> . (b) Elicit, laws are necessary to regulate action. Emphasise Elizabeth's practical sympathy and sound common sense, and give illustrations of such. (c) Explain simply the tenets of the <i>Poor Law</i> and show the justice of them. Draw moral lessons. (d) Read from Bible "If any would not work, neither should he eat" (2 Thessalonians, chap. III, ver. 10). Draw moral lesson. (e) Educe obvious results of the <i>Poor Law</i> —refer to our present-day system, which is the outcome of the legislation of 1601.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. The reasons for increase of beggars in Tudor times. Elizabeth's feelings in the matter; the levying of the *Poor Rate*; who paid it then, who pays it now, and how.
2. *The Poor Law*, 1601; why made. Its chief principles; who administered it; the results.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

APPARATUS

1. Large maps of Europe and the World, for the teacher.
2. Atlases for the pupils.
3. Copy of "Reflections on the French Revolution" (Burke).

Subject-matter.	Method of Presentation.
<i>See text.</i> 1. <i>Conditions in England.</i>	(a) Revise: introduction of machinery in the textile trades and the effect on England's industrial life. (b) Note disappearance of Feudal system—same laws now for everyone; revise some which were obtained by various Charters.
2. <i>Conditions in France.</i>	(a) Note members of privileged and lower classes; the power of the former, the misery of the latter. (b) Explain practice of farming out taxes and its evil results. Cf. Wat Tyler in England.

- | Subject-matter. | Method of Presentation. |
|---|--|
| 2. <i>Conditions in France</i>
—(continued). | (c) Explain the levying of Customs, and show the evil of no definite and uniform system and no scale of charges. Refer to Tolls and Customs now. Tolls for passing through gates nearly extinct, but tolls for passing over bridges and through certain roads still paid, e.g. Scarborough passenger bridge is an example of the former; and its sea parade, for passing along which vehicles pay a toll, is an example of the latter.
(d) Explain duties paid now, why? Show that all the payments are according to a scale prepared by Government. |
| 3. <i>The French Revolution.</i> | 3. (a) Refer to past history of the French, hence lead up to the bursting-point of her misery, in 1789.
(b) Explain how the motto of the French Republic "Liberté, Égalité, Fraternité" arose.
(c) Educe the immediate feelings in England regarding the Revolution in France.
(d) Read suitable portions of Burke's book "The Reflections on the French Revolution," and show how they caused opinion to change in England. |
| 4. <i>Rise of Napoleon.</i> | 4. (a) Revise early history of Napoleon and his rapid rise to power.
(b) Point out his real and greatest ambition. |
| 5. <i>The blockades.</i> | 5. (a) Explain meaning of "blockade" and educe harmful results. Recall any other blockades in (i) period of history already covered, (ii) present century.
(b) Explain, by means of maps, what "keeping open" the Baltic meant to British shipping.
(c) Show how Napoleon balanced his defeat at the Battle of Trafalgar (1805) by victories against Austria, Russia and Germany, thus making himself master of nearly all Europe.
(d) Explain (using maps or sketches freely) Britain's blockade of France; France's blockade of England; the partial failure of both.
Mention origin of sugar-beet industry in France; still flourishing.
Explain "neutral country."
(e) Show how America was affected by these blockades and how she dealt with the matter. Use map of the world. |
| 6. <i>The effects on England of the wars with Napoleon.</i> | 6. (a) Explain "National Debt," how heaped up, how reduced. Mention present national debt. Educe, duty of every citizen to get it reduced.
(b) Educe effects of war on industry: unemployment rife, why? Emigration, why? |
| 7. <i>The Corn Laws.</i> | 7. (a) Why they were made in 1811 and 1812. Why again in 1815; the justice or injustice of them.
(b) Elicit the effect of dear bread, especially on the poorer classes.
(c) Let pupils suggest some remedies, such as removal of trade restrictions. |

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. Conditions in England just prior to the French Revolution: peace and contentment the result of Charters.

2. Conditions of France at same epoch ; upper and lower classes ; taxes, how raised ; customs, how demanded.
3. The Revolution of 1789 ; the motto of the French, its meaning ; feeling in England, why changed.
4. Napoleon, his rise, his ambitions.
5. The blockades—their effect on French, English and American trade ; how dealt with in each case.
6. Napoleon's fall.
7. Conditions in England after 1815.
8. The Corn Law of 1815. Its effects, especially with regard to the poorer classes.

GREAT INVENTIONS IN THE COTTON INDUSTRY

APPARATUS

1. Maps of the World, Europe and England ; atlases for pupils.
2. Pictures of Huguenots, Kay's shuttle, spinning-wheel, waterframe, mule.
3. A simple wooden frame to demonstrate hand weaving (or blackboard sketch in coloured chalks will answer the same purpose).

Subject-matter.

Method of Presentation.

See text.

1. *The cotton industry.*

1. (a) Refer to the Huguenots ; who they were, why they came to England, why Elizabeth helped them ; show picture ; dress of Huguenots very interesting. Refer to maps of France and England. Show whence the Huguenots came and where they tried to settle.
- (b) Note jealousy of those engaged in the older textile industries—wool, linen, silk—fear of a rival, quite legitimate and often a spur to renewed energies.
- (c) Note, tax on calico ; cf. with present taxes on imported silk, etc., made in order to stimulate the home industries. Is such a tax always successful ? Educe reasons for and against.

2. *Its progress.*

2. (a) Emphasise the law of 1736 ; (there is no need to teach the date) ; sketch weft and warp on blackboard, to help describe new mixture of cotton and linen ; show specimen of a sheet (say) of mixture. Linen often mixed with cotton now to produce better finish and feel cooler to the touch in summer. Contrast with reason for mixture then.
- (b) Note the growth of the " cotton towns " in Lancashire, use map of England ; use also map of the world, and elicit why these towns were convenient for the cotton industry, and hence its forging ahead.

3. *Inventions : Shuttle, Spinning-wheel, Water-frame, Mule.*

3. (a) Elicit, hand labour very slow, machinery makes for rapidity. Demonstrate how a shuttle carrying the weft was passed through the warp by hand. Explain the limitations of a uniform width for any kind of cloth. Explain Kay's *shuttle* in simple outline only, but note carefully the *results*.
- (b) Explain Hargreave's *spinning-wheel* in the same way, also Arkwright's *waterframe* and Crompton's *mule*. The object should be, not so much to go into details of mechanism as to educe the important results of inventions on : (i) manufactures ; (ii) workers ; (iii) towns.

Subject-matter.	Method of Presentation.
3. <i>Inventions: Shuttle, Spinning-wheel, Water-frame, Mule</i> —(continued).	(c) Simple models of the machines can be made in the handicraft centres if necessary, or sketches can be shown or drawn in Art lesson. (d) Dyeing, designing, printing of designs, should all be mentioned, and specimens of materials shown, to interest the pupils in the great progress made in the cotton industry, due to the introduction of machinery. Educe that the above-named operations make employment in several directions.

NOTES FOR AMPLIFICATION BY PUPILS

1. The Huguenots; their work and influence in England.
2. The growth of the cotton industry; laws which hindered it; machinery which assisted it.
3. (a) Unemployment; (b) employment engendered by introduction of machinery.
4. Chief centres of the cotton industry; the reasons for their establishment and growth.
N.B.—This lesson should be followed by similar ones, e.g. (1) steam-power and ships; (2) electric telegraph; (3) airplanes; (4) wireless, etc.

A GENERAL ELECTION

APPARATUS

1. Ballot-box; a table.
2. Voting papers; lists of voters; pens, ink, etc.
3. Two screened benches, supplied with ink, pens, blotting-paper.

Subject-matter.

Method of Presentation.

See text.

(British Government; how it is carried on.)

1. *Preparation for the Election. The Polling Station.*

1. (a) Lessons should be given on the whole section before giving one on a general election by means of an experiment in the classroom.
(b) Choose two rival candidates. In order to eliminate politics from the school, it may be as well to apply the principles of a parliamentary election to the choosing of the head prefect (say) by the top class.
(c) Fit up the polling station. Have a simple ballot-box made beforehand. A deep, strong cardboard box will do, provided the lid is a fixture. A narrow slit, sufficiently wide to allow for easy ingress of the ballot-papers, should be made in the top. This box should be placed on a table, behind which will be the two presiding officers. Each will be supplied with a list, prepared beforehand, containing the full names and addresses of the voters.
(d) Screen off two window-sills or benches so that the voters are hidden from each other, but are in full view of the presiding officers.

2. *The Election. Polling Day.*

2. (a) Keep the pupils in the hall or corridor, into which their classroom opens.
(b) Let them arrange their own order of entry to the polling station.
(c) As each pupil enters, he presents himself to the presiding officer or his assistant and gives his name and address. The officer finds it on the voters' list and marks it off, then he hands out the ballot-paper.

Subject-matter.	Method of Presentation.
2. <i>The Election. Polling Day—(continued).</i>	(d) The voter goes to one of the screened benches and puts a "X" against the name of the candidate he chooses. He must vote silently and <i>secretly</i> . He folds the paper before he leaves the bench. Then he proceeds to the table, drops the paper into the ballot-box, and leaves the polling station at once, without speaking. If more than two enter the station together, they must silently wait at the door, remote from the benches, for their turn.
3. <i>The result.</i>	(a) When all have voted, the presiding officers should take the box to another room, which can represent the town hall. During the arithmetic lesson the box can be opened and the papers counted. A system should be devised for totalling correctly the votes cast, and any erasures or spoilt papers must be counted as lost votes. (b) The result is then declared, the figures given, the majority in favour quoted, and congratulations accorded to the successful candidate.
<i>Lessons learned, and summing-up.</i>	(a) How to vote. (b) The fairness of British methods: no bribery, no intimidation. (c) Explain that before 1872 there was no secret ballot. Workers often had to vote for the employer for fear of dismissal; now freedom of thought and action. (d) Explain that, in olden times, people voted by show of hands; often much cheating and corruption. (e) Emphasise; a vote is an honour and a privilege; hence educate: duty of everyone to exercise his vote in order to obtain the best representatives of the people in Parliament.

NOTE-TAKING AND NOTE-MAKING

THE taking of notes is of great importance in the history lesson. Long experience of history teaching has convinced the authors that the writing of notes *while a lesson is being delivered* causes the pupils to lose much of its value. On the other hand exhaustive notes given by the teacher leave too little exercise for the pupil, and are always tedious.

Those who have made a study of memory know the value of key-facts, and it is in order to supply these key-facts that the notes are given at the end of many of the chapters in the

Junior Section of this book for amplification by pupils.

As a variant to note-taking there should also be *note-making*. It is highly desirable that certain portions of history should be read by the pupils silently from their history books and that they should make their own notes therefrom. With instructions on the point by the teacher, and the practice of amplifying the key-facts of previous lessons, they will learn the art of condensation. It would be as well if a note-book of many pages could be provided, so that the pupil may carry on his notes from one year to another.

LITERATURE TO SUPPLEMENT THE HISTORY LESSON

JUNIOR SECTION

- "Mid Clash of Swords," Surrey (Sack of Rome).
 "In the New Forest," Strang (William I).
 "Lion Heart," Strang (Crusades).
 "With the Black Prince," Strang (Edward III).
 "For the White Rose," Strang (Edward IV).
 "With Drake," Strang (Spanish Main).
 "One of Rupert's Horse," Strang (Charles I).
 "Friends though Divided," Henty (Royalists and Roundheads).
 "In the Fifteen," Adams (Insurrection of 1715).
 "The Young Buglers," Henty (Peninsular War).
 "The Lost Empire," Gilson (Napoleon's Campaigns).
 "From Powder Monkey to Admiral," Kingston (Napoleonic Wars).
 "In Times of Peril," Henty (Indian Mutiny).
 "The Young Franc-Tireurs," Henty (Franco-Prussian War).

SENIOR SECTION

B.C.

- "Beric the Briton," Henty (Coming of the Romans).

Roman Occupation

- "Count of the Saxon Shore," Church (Departure of the Romans).
 "A Duke of Britain," Maxwell (Romans and Picts).

Eleventh Century

- "Harold," Lord Lytton (Norman Conquest).
 "Hereward the Wake," Charles Kingsley.

Twelfth Century

- "The Betrothed," Scott (Henry II).
 "Ivanhoe," Scott (Richard I).
 "The 'falisman," Scott (Richard I).

Fourteenth Century

- "The Fair Maid of Perth," Scott (1396-1402).
 "The Lances of Lynwood," Yonge (Hundred Years War).
 "The White Company," Conan Doyle (Hundred Years War).

Fifteenth Century

- "Caged Lion," Yonge (Henry V).
 "Black Arrow," Stevenson (Wars of the Roses).
 "The Last of the Barons," Lytton (Wars of the Roses).

Sixteenth Century

- "Windsor Castle," Ainsworth (Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn).
 "The Tower of London," Ainsworth (Lady Jane Grey).
 "Francis Cludde," Weyman (Protestants and Mary).
 "Come Rock, Come Rope," Benson (Catholics and Elizabeth).
 "Kenilworth," Scott (The Court of Elizabeth).
 "Westward Ho!" Kingsley (Great Seamen of Elizabethan Times).
 "The Queen's Mairies," Whyte Melville (Mary Queen of Scots).

Seventeenth Century

- "Old Mortality," Scott (Bothwell Bridge and Killiecrankie).
 "The Fortunes of Nigel," Scott (James I).
 "A Legend of Montrose," Scott (Civil Wars).
 "Holmby House," Whyte Melville (Civil Wars).
 "Old St. Paul's," Ainsworth (Plague and Fire of London).
 "Woodstock," Scott (Cromwell).
 "Lorna Doone," Blackmore (Monmouth's Rebellion).
 "Micah Clarke," Conan Doyle (Monmouth's Rebellion).

Eighteenth Century

- "Henry Esmond," Thackeray (Queen Anne).
 "The Bride of Lammermoor," Scott (Queen Anne).
 "Rob Roy," Scott (The Jacobites).
 "Dorothy Forster," Besant (The Jacobites).
 "Waverley," Scott (Rebellion of 1745).
 "Barnaby Rudge," Dickens (Gordon Riots).
 "The Wild Geese," Staniey Weyman (Ireland).
 "Absentee," Edgeworth (Union of Ireland with England and Scotland).

- "The Virginians," Thackeray (The American War).
 "Shirley," Brontë (Effects of the American War).
 "Trumpet Major," Hardy (England and France).

Nineteenth Century

- "Chippinge," Weyman (Reform Bill, 1832).
 "Hard Times," Dickens (Factories).
 "John Halifax," Craik (Luddite Riots, 1811).
 "Mary Barton," Gaskell (Capital and Labour).
 "Little Dorrit," "Pickwick Papers," Dickens (Prison Life).
 "Oliver Twist," Dickens (Workhouse Problems).
 "Nicholas Nickleby," Dickens (Education).

EUROPEAN HISTORY

Fifth Century

- "Hypatia," Kingsley (Christianity versus Paganism).

Tenth Century

- "The Little Duke," Yonge.

Fourteenth Century

- "Rienzi," Lord Lytton (Roman Republic).

Fifteenth Century

- "The Cloister and the Hearth," Reade (Renaissance).

Sixteenth Century and onwards

- "Romola," George Eliot (Italy).
 "The Dove in the Eagle's Nest," Yonge (Germany).
 "Count Hannibal," Weyman (St. Bartholomew's Day).
 "Gentleman of France," Weyman (Siege of Paris).
 "Under the Red Robe," Weyman (Cardinal Richelieu).
 "My Lady Rotha," Weyman (Germany and the Thirty Years War).
 "Tom Burke of Ours," Lever (Irish Volunteer in the Napoleonic Wars).
 "Barlasch of the Guard," Merriman (French Exiles in Dantzic, 1813).
 "Tale of Two Cities," Dickens (French Revolution).
 "War and Peace," Tolstoy (Napoleon's Russian Campaign).

SUGGESTED SYLLABUSES

THE main purpose of a syllabus is to indicate the amount of subject-matter which can probably be taught during a definite period. But if it is too long, too detailed and too comprehensive, it leaves no scope for the teacher. If it is too short it allows of no choice. The syllabus should be "selective rather than complete and exhaustive" ("Suggestions," Board of Education).

I. HISTORY SYLLABUS FOR A SCHOOL WHERE THERE IS NO HISTORY SPECIALIST ON THE STAFF

LOWER CLASSES

Some Simple Bible Stories.
 Tales of Ancient Heroes.

The Legends of King Arthur and his Knights.
 Life of the Early Britons.
 Julius Cæsar and the Romans.
 How Christianity Came.
 The Danes in England; King Alfred.
 The Battle of Hastings.
 What the Normans did for England.
 The Life and Death of Thomas à Becket.
 The Crusades.
 King and Barons; King John. The Charter.
 The Story of the Scottish Wars.
 Edward the Black Prince.
 Joan of Arc.
 Caxton and the Printing Press.
 Life in the Middle Ages; Fairs and Markets.
 The Life of Thomas Wolsey.
 Queen Elizabeth and her Great Sailors.
 The Story of *The Mayflower*.
 Charles I and Cromwell.
 The Plague and the Fire of London.

The Life of Lord Clive.
How Quebec was Won.
George Washington.
Napoleon, Nelson and Wellington.
How Children worked a Century Ago.
Queen Victoria and her Times.
How the Slaves were Freed.
The Crimean War and Florence Nightingale.
The Indian Mutiny.
How the Railway Came.
King Edward and his Work.
Britain and the Great War.

UPPER CLASSES

Some Account of Ancient Civilisations.
 Britain before the Romans came.
 Britain when the Romans left.
 The Saxons and their Farms.
 The Danes in England.
 The Norman Invasion.
 England under the Plantagenets.
 The Three Edwards and what they did for England.
 The Life of the People of the Time.
 Trade in the Middle Ages ; the Gilds.
 The Church and its Relation to the State.
 Queen Elizabeth and her Times ; Famous Seamen ; the Poor Law ; Statute of Apprentices.
 England's Great Dramatists.
 Our Trading Companies in the Middle Ages.
 The Reign of the Stuart Kings ; Struggles with Parliament.
 A Limited Monarchy ; William III.
 National Life during the Stuart Period.
 The Four Georges ; Increase in the Power of Parliament.
 The Seven Years War and its Results.
 The American War of Independence.
 Agriculture in England ; Changes in Method.
 Napoleon and Europe.
 Child Labour and the Factory Acts.
 The Age of Invention.
 Great Writers of the Victorian Age.
 How we are governed ; Nationally and Locally.
 The Revenue ; Rates and Taxes.
 Brief History of the Chief European Countries in the Nineteenth Century.
 Modern Times ; the Effects of the Great War.
 Developments in Transport : Telegraphy and Airplanes.

2. HISTORY SYLLABUS FOR A SCHOOL WHERE SPECIALISATION OBTAINS

AGE 7 TO 8

Stories from the Bible.
 The Wooden Horse of Troy.
 Cave-dwellers, etc., in Britain.
 Julius Cæsar ; his Life in Rome ; his Arrival in Britain.
 King Caractacus and Boadicea.
 The Roman Walls, Roads and Buildings.
 Pope Gregory and the "Angles."
 Stories of King Alfred.
 Canute the Dane, and the Waves on the Seashore.
 Drake and a Game of Bowls.
 Nelson at Trafalgar.
 General Gordon in Egypt.
 Captain Scott and the North Pole.

AGE 8 TO 9

The Venerable Bede and the Monasteries.
 The Story of Hereward, showing the attitude of Saxon and Norman to one another.
 Farming under the Saxons ; the Saxon Village.
 Harold at Hastings.
 William and his Barons.
 Thomas à Becket ; the Norman Church.
 The Story of the White Ship.
 Richard Lion-Heart.
 Bruce and the Spider.
 The Burghers of Calais.
 Dick Whittington and the Story of Apprenticeship.
 Cardinal Wolsey.
 The Spanish Armada.
 Blake and Van Tromp.
 The Plague ; Cause and Remedy.
 The Great Fire.
 Wolfe at Quebec.
 Robert Clive in India.
 Wellington at Waterloo.
 Napoleon and his Conquest of Europe.
 George Stephenson and the Steam Engine.

AGE 9 TO 10

Early British Life and Customs ; the Druids.
 The Roman ; the Roman cities in Britain.
 The Saxon as Farmer ; the Dane as Seaman ; the Norman as Ruler.
 Alfred and the Navy.

The Battle of Hastings.

John and his Nobles ; Magna Charta,
Edward I in Scotland.

Caxton and the Printing Press.

Columbus and the New World,

The Story of Raleigh and his Voyages.

The Pilgrim Fathers.

Captain Cook and Australia.

George Washington and America.

In subsequent lessons for the various age groups, the subject-matter previously treated will necessarily be recapitulated, and this is all to the good. It can be dealt with in greater detail and in a chronological and continuous form.

AGE 10 TO 11

Early History

The Story of Ancient Greece.

Ulysses and his Wanderings.

Alexander the Great and his Conquests.

The Story of Romulus and Remus.

Hannibal and Carthage.

Period 55 B.C.-A.D. 1066

How the Britons lived before the Coming of the Romans.

The Effects of the Roman Occupation ; the Four Main Roads ; the Style of Roman Building ; Cultivation of the Soil.

The Romans in Rome ; their Colonisation and its Methods.

The Roman City and the Saxon Village contrasted.

The Lord of the Manor and the Farm-worker ; the Saxon Method of Agriculture.

England under Alfred ; his Conflict with the Danes ; Place Names as Evidence of the Danish Settlement.

Edward the Confessor.

Harold and the Battle of Hastings.

AGE 11 TO 12

Early History

The Reign of Augustus ; the First Roman Emperor ; the Dawn of Christianity.

The Dark Ages ; the Story of Attila ; the Barbarians in Britain.

The Story of King Arthur and the Round Table ; the Life of Charlemagne ; the Holy Roman Empire.

Period 1066-1485

William the Norman ; the Barons and the Raising of our Army.

Doomsday Book ; Henry I and his Quarrel with the Church ; the Crusaders.

The Growth of English Freedom ; King John and Simon de Montfort ; the Magna Charta ; the first British Parliament and its Constitution.

The Conquest of Wales ; the Struggle between England and Scotland.

The Black Death and the Statute of Labourers ; a Fourteenth Century Fair.

The War between England and France ; Joan of Arc ; the Loss of Normandy.

The Peasants' Revolt and its effect on Industrial Conditions ; Cade's Insurrection.

The Wars of the Roses.

Increase in the Power of the Church ; Growth of Parliament.

Caxton in England.

POETRY

" The Norman Baron," by Longfellow.

" Before Bannockburn," by Burns.

" Wat Tyler's Song," by Southey.

" The Curfew," by Longfellow.

" The White Ship," by Rossetti.

AGE 12 TO 13

Period 1485-1760

" Important facts of contemporary European history should be treated in relation to particular events of English history with which they are connected " (" Suggestions," Board of Education).

Tudor England

Henry VII ; Decline of the Power of the Barons.

Voyages of Discovery.

Henry VIII and Wolsey.

The Reformation : (i) In Europe ; (ii) in England.

The Catholic Reaction ; Mary.

Elizabethan Settlement of Religion.

Mary Queen of Scots.

France ; Catholics and Huguenots.

The Great Armada.

The " New World."

Literature of the Tudor Period.

• *The Stuarts and Early Hanoverians*

The Reign of James I, King of England, Ireland and Scotland.
 The Struggle of Charles I and Parliament.
 The Commonwealth; Cromwell.
 The Restoration.
 The end of Absolute Monarchy (James II).
 William III and Mary; the Revolution and Limited Monarchy.
 The Wars of Louis XIV.
 The Union with Scotland.
 The Literature of the Stuart Period.
 Beginnings of the Cabinet System.
 The Jacobite Rebellion.

Revision

Rapid Capitulation of previous Lessons with Special Reference to the Effects of the Roman, Saxon, Danish and Norman Invasions.
 Struggle between Royal and Ecclesiastical Powers.
 The Great Charter and the beginning of Parliament.
 The Peasants' Revolt.
 The Middle Ages; Discoveries; Elizabethan England.
 The Renaissance and the Reformation.
 The Stuarts and the Commons.
 Accession of William.

AGE 13 TO 14

Period from 1760 to Present Day

The Industrial Revolution.
 Inventions; Development of Means of Communication; the Factory System; England and the French Revolution; Pitt, Burke and Fox; the Napoleonic Wars.
 Political Reform; Acts 1832, 1865, 1884 and 1928.
 Special Reform; Abolition of Slavery; Prison Reform.
 Factory Acts.
 Corn Laws.
 The Eastern Question.
 The Union of Italy; Garibaldi and Cavour, Struggle of Austria and Prussia for Supremacy of Central Europe.
 Franco-German War.
 Bismarck and the Union of German States.
 The Great European War.

Greater Britain

Beginnings of our Colonial Empire: The East India Company; the Virginia Company; the Pilgrim Fathers; the English and the Dutch; Conquest of India and Canada; Loss of American Colonies; the Exploration of Australia; New Zealand; Egypt and the Sudan; the African Discoveries; South Africa.

Civics

The Work of Parliament; the Monarchy; House of Commons and House of Lords; General Election; the Chief Officials of Justice; the Public Services; the Navy; the Army; the Police; the Post Office; the Ministry of Labour; the Story of Education in England; Local Government; the League of Nations.

3. SPECIALISED SYLLABUS FOR SENIOR SCHOOLS

This syllabus is to supplement the General History, and is recommended for use during the last year at school.

COMMERCE

Trade in Early Times.
 The Mercantile System.
 The Old English Gilds.
 Tudor Times; Growth of Industry and Towns.
 England's Trading Companies.
 Acquisition of Canada and India; Loss of America.
 The Age of Invention.
 Juvenile Labour; Factory Acts.
 Farming in the Eighteenth Century.
 Progress of Manufactures.
 Railways and Steamships.
 The Anti-Corn Law League and its Work.
 The "Sweating System."
 The Commerce of Europe.
 Growth of British Shipping.
 Trade Position in the Twentieth Century.
 Uses of Trade; Advantages of Foreign Trade.

GOVERNMENT

The Rise of Parliament.
 The Work of Parliament.
 The Monarchy.

The House of Commons.

A General Election.

Some Chief Officials.

The Budget.

The House of Lords.

The Law.

Public Services :

(a) The Navy.

(b) The Army.

(c) The Police.

(d) The Post Office.

(e) The Ministry of Labour.

The Story of Education.

The Local Government.

Funds for Local Government.

The British Empire.

(a) India.

(b) Canada.

(c) Australia.

(d) Africa.

(e) Ireland.

The League of Nations.

SIMPLE ECONOMICS

What is Wealth ?

Man's Work and its Scope.

Specialisation and its Effects.

What is Capital ?

Business Efficiency.

Value and Price.

Competition.

Wages.

Unemployment.

Thrift.

Trade Unions.

The Distribution of Wealth.

Money.

Rates and Taxes.

A SHORT BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR THE TEACHER

"Of making many books there is no end," but the teacher's time is limited, and only a selection of the most important books of reference has therefore been included.

GENERAL

'History of England,' Ransome (Rivingtons).

'History of England,' Trevelyan (Longman).

'History of England,' Oman (Arnold).

'Short History of the English People,' Green (Macmillan).

'History of England,' Pollard (Home University Library: Thornton Butterworth).

'Short History of Great Britain,' Townsend Warner (Blackie).

'History of Everyday Things in England,' Quennell (Batsford).

'Teacher's Story Book' (For Juniors). Piers Plowman Series. (Philip.)

'Anglo-Saxon Chronicle' (Everyman's Library: Dent).

'School Economic History of England,' Waters (Oxford Press).

'Industrial and Commercial Revolutions in Great Britain during the Nineteenth Century,' Knowles (Routledge).

'Story of British Government,' H. and L. Court (Sampson Low).

'Story of British Trade and Commerce,' H. and L. Court (Sampson Low).

'Story of Britain's Wealth,' H. and L. Court (Sampson Low). (A Book of the Economics of Everyday Life.)

IMPERIAL

'Economic Development of the Overseas Empire,' Knowles (Longman).

'Origin and Growth of Greater Britain,' Egerton (Oxford Press).

'Expansion of England,' Seeley (Macmillan).

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC

'Industrial History of England,' Gibbins. (Methuen).

'Landmarks in English Industrial History,' Townsend Warner (Blackie).

'Outlines of English Industrial History,' Cunningham and McArthur (Cambridge Press).

WORLD HISTORY

'Ancient times,' Breasted (Ginn & Co.).

'Note Book of European History (1400-1920),' McGrady (Methuen).

'First Book of World History,' Hearnshaw (Macmillan).

'Short History of Mankind,' H. G. Wells and E. H. Carter (Blackwell).

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