THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND.
THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND,
FROM THE INVASION OF JULIUS CAESAR TO THE REVOLUTION IN 1688.
IN SIX VOLUMES.

By DAVID HUME, Esq.

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THE
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OF
ENGLAND.

CHAP. I.

The BRITAINS.

The curiosity, entertained by all civilized nations, of enquiring into the exploits and adventures of their ancestors, commonly excites a regret that the history of remote ages should always be so much involved in obscurity, uncertainty, and contradiction. Ingenious men, possessed of leisure, are apt to push their researches beyond the period in which literary monuments are framed or preserved, without reflecting, that the history of past events is immediately lost or disfigured when intrusted to memory or oral tradition, and that the adventures of barbarous nations, even if they were preserved, could afford little or no entertainment to those born in a more cultivated age. The convulsions of a civilized state usually compose the most instructive and most interesting part of its history; but the sudden, violent, and unprepared revolutions, incident to Barbarians, are so much guided by caprice, and terminate so often in cruelty, that they disgust us by the uniformity of their appearance; and it is rather fortunate for letters that they are buried in silence and oblivion. The

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Chap. I.
only certain means, by which nations can indulge their curiosity in researches
concerning their remote origin, is to consider the language, manners and cus-
toms of their ancestors, and to compare them with those of the neighbouring
nations. The fables, which are commonly employed to supply the place of
true history, ought entirely to be disregarded; and if any exception be admitted
to this general rule, it can only be in favour of the antient Greek fictions, which
are so celebrated and so agreeable, that they will ever be the objects of the at-
tention of mankind. Neglecting therefore, all traditions or rather tales con-
cerning the more early history of Britain, we shall only consider the state of the
inhabitants, as it appeared to the Romans on their invasion of this country: We
shall briefly run over the events, which attended the conquest made by that em-
pire, as belonging more to Roman than British story: We shall hasten thro’ the
obscure and uninteresting period of Saxon annals: And shall reserve a more full
narration for those times, when the truth is both so well ascertained and so com-
plete as to promise some entertainment and instruction to the reader.

All antient writers agree in representing the first inhabitants of Britain as a
tribe of the Gauls or Cælæ, who peopled that island from the neighbouring con-
tenent. Their language was the same, their manners, their government, their
superstition; varied only by those small differences, which time or a commu-
nication with the bordering nations must necessarily introduce. The inhabitants
of Gaul, especially in those parts which lye contiguous to Italy, had acquired,
from a commerce with their southern neighbours, some refinement in the arts,
which gradually diffused themselves northwards, and spread but a very faint light
over this island. The Greek and Roman navigators or merchants (for there were
scarcely any other travellers in those ages) brought back the most shocking ac-
counts of the ferocity of the people; which they magnified, as usual, in order to
excite the admiration of their countrymen. The south east parts, however, of
Britain had already, before the age of Cæsar, made the first and most requisite
step towards a civil settlement; and the Britains, by tillage and agriculture, had
there encreased to a great multitude *. The other inhabitants of the island still
maintained themselves by pasturage: They were clothed with skins of beasts:
They dwelt in huts, which they reared in the forests and marshes, with which
the country was covered: They shifted easily their habitation, when actuated
either by the hopes of plunder or the fear of an enemy: The convenience of
feeding their cattle was even a sufficient motive for removing their feats: And
being ignorant of all the refinements of life, their wants and their properties were
equally scanty and limited.

* Cæsar. lib. 4.
The Britains were divided into many small nations or tribes; and being a military people, whose sole property was their sword and their cattle, it was impossible, after they had acquired a relish of liberty, for their princes or chieftains to establish any despotic authority over them. Their governments, tho' monarchical, were free, as well as those of all the Celtic nations; and the common people seem even to have enjoyed more liberty among them, than among the nations of Gaul, from whom they were descended. Each state was divided into factions within itself: It was agitated with emulation towards the neighbouring states: And while the arts of peace were yet unknown, wars were the chief occupation, and formed the chief object of ambition, among the people.

The religion of the Britains was one of the most considerable parts of their government; and the Druids, who were their priests, possessed great authority among them. Besides ministering at the altar, and directing all religious duties, they presided over the education of youth; they were endowed with an immunity from wars and taxes; they enjoyed both the civil and criminal jurisdiction; they decided all controversies among states as well as private persons, and whoever refused to submit to their decree was exposed to the most severe penalties. The sentence of excommunication was denounced against him: He was forbid access to the sacrifices or public worship: He was debarred all intercourse with his fellow-citizens, even in the common affairs of life: His company was universally shunned as profane and dangerous: He was refused the protection of law: And death itself became to him an acceptable relief from the misery and infamy to which he was exposed. Thus, the bands of government, which were naturally loose among that rude and turbulent people, were happily corroborated by the terrors of their superstition.

No species of superstition was ever more terrible than that of the Druids. Besides the severe penalties, which it was in the power of the ecclesiastics to inflict in this world, they inculcated the eternal transmigration of souls; and thereby extended their authority as far as the fears of their timorous votaries. They practised their rites in dark groves or other secret recesses: and in order to throw a greater mystery on their religion, they communicated their doctrines only to the initiated, and strictly forbade the committing them to writing; lest they should at any time be exposed to the examination of the profane vulgar. Human sacrifices were practised among them: The spoils of war were often devoted to their di-
vinities; and they punished with the severest tortures whoever dared to secrete any part of the consecrated offering: These treasures they preserved in woods and forests, secured by no other guard than the terrors of their religion; and this continued conquest over human avidity may be regarded as more signal than their prompting men to the most extraordinary and most violent efforts. No idolatrous worship ever attained such an ascendant over mankind as that of the antient Gauls and Britains; and the Romans, after their conquest, finding it impossible to reconcile these nations to the laws and institutions of their masters, while it maintained its authority, were at last obliged to abolish it by penal statutes; a violence, which had never in any other instance been practised by these tolerating conquerors.

The Romans.

The Britains had long remained in this rude but independant state, when Cæsar, having over-run all Gaul by his victories, first cast his eye on their island. He was not allured either by its riches or its renown; but being ambitious of carrying the Roman arms into a new world, then wholly unknown, he took advantage of a short interval in his Gaulic wars, and made an invasion on Britain. The natives, informed of his intention, were sensible of the unequal contest, and endeavoured to appease him by submissions, which, however, retarded not the execution of his design. After some resistance, he landed, as is supposed, at Deal; and having obtained several advantages over the Britains, and obliged them to prome hostages for their future dutiful behaviour, he was constrained, by the necessity of his affairs, and the approach of winter, to withdraw his forces into Gaul. The Britains, relieved from the terror of his arms, neglected the performance of their stipulations; and that haughty conqueror resolved next summer to chastise them for this breach of treaty. He landed with a greater force; and tho' he found a more regular resistance from the Britains, who had united under Cæsivelaunus, one of their petty princes; he discomfited them in every action. He advanced into the country; pass'd the Thames in the face of the enemy; took and burned the capital of Cæsivelaunus; established his allies, Mandubratius, in the sovereignty of the Trinobantes; and having obliged the inhabitants to make him new submissions, he again returned with his army into Gaul, and left the authority of the Romans more nominal than real in this island.

* Cæsar. lib. 6.  
† Sueton. in vita Claudi.
THE ROMANS.

The civil wars, which ensued, and which prepared the way for the establishment of monarchy in Rome, saved the Britains from that yoke, which was ready to be imposed upon them. Augustus, the successor of Cæsar, content with the victory obtained over the liberties of his own country, was little ambitious of acquiring fame by foreign wars; and being apprehensive left the same unlimited extent of dominion, which had subverted the republic, might also overwhelm the empire, he recommended to his successors never to enlarge the territories of the Romans. Tiberius, jealous of the fame, which might be acquired by his generals, made this advice of Augustus a pretence for his inactivity. The mad follies of Caligula, in which he menaced Britain with an invasion, served only to expose himself and the empire to ridicule: And the Britains had now, during almost a century, enjoyed their liberty unmolested; when the Romans, in the reign of Claudius, began to think seriously of reducing them under their dominion. Without seeking any more justifiable reasons of hostility than were employed by the latter Europeans in subduing the Africans and Americans, they sent over an army under the command of Plautius, an able general, who gained some victories, and made a considerable progress in subduing the inhabitants. Claudius himself, finding affairs sufficiently prepared for his reception, made a journey into Britain; and received the submission of several Britith states, the Cantii, Atrebaties, Regni, and Trinobantes, who inhabited the south-east parts of the island, and whom their possessions and cultivated manner of life rendered willing to purchase peace at the expense of their liberty. The other Britains, under the command of Caractacus, still maintained an obstinate resistance, and the Romans made little progress against them; till Ostorius Scapula was sent over to command their armies. This general advanced the Roman conquests over the Britains; pierced into the country of the Silures, a warlike nation, who inhabited the banks of the Severne; defeated Caractacus in a great battle; took him prisoner; and sent him to Rome, where his magnanimous behaviour procured him better treatment than those conquerors usually bestowed on captive princes. 

Notwithstanding these misfortunes, the Britains were not subdued; and this island was regarded by the ambitious Romans as a field in which military honour might still be acquired. Under the reign of Nero, Suetonius Paullinus was invested with the command, and prepared to signalize his name by victories over these barbarians. Finding that the island of Mona, now Anglesey, was the chief seat of the Druids, he resolved to attack it, and to subject a place.

* Tacit. Agr.  
which was the center of their superstition, and which afforded protection to all their baffled forces. The Britains endeavoured to obstruct his landing on this sacred island, both by the force of their arms and the terrors of their religion. The women and priests were intermingled with the soldiers upon the shore; and running about with flaming torches in their hands, and tossing their dishevelled hair, they struck greater terror into the astonished Romans by their howlings, cries, and execrations, than the real danger from the armed forces was able to inspire. But Suetonius, exhorting his troops to despise the menaces of a superstition, which they despised, impelled them to the attack, drove the Britains off the field, burned the Druids in the same fires which they had prepared for their captive enemies, destroyed all the consecrated groves and altars; and having thus triumphed over the religion of the Britains, he thought his future progress would be easy in reducing the people to subjection. But he was disappointed in his expectations. The Britains, taking advantage of his absence, were all in arms; and being headed by Boadicea, Queen of the Iceni, who had been treated in the most ignominious manner by the Roman tribunes, had already attacked with success several settlements of their insulting conquerors. Suetonius hastened to the protection of London, which was already a flourishing Roman colony; but found on his arrival, that it would be requisite for the general safety to abandon that place to the merciless fury of the enemy. London was reduced to ashes; such of the inhabitants, as remained in it, cruelly massacred; the Romans and all strangers, to the number of 70,000, put to the sword without distinction; and the Britains, by rendering the war thus bloody, seemed determined to cut off all hopes of peace or composition with the enemy. But this cruelty was revenged by Suetonius in a great and decisive battle, where 80,000 of the Britains are said to have perished; and Boadicea herself, rather than fall into the hands of the enraged victor, put an end to her own life by poison *.

Nero soon after recalled Suetonius from a government; where by suffering and inflicting so many severities he was judged improper for composing the angry and alarmed minds of the inhabitants. After some interval, Cerealis received the command from Vespasian, and by his bravery propounded the terror of the Roman arms. Julius Frontinus succeeded Cerealis both in authority and reputation: But the general, who finally established the dominion of the Romans in this island, was Julius Agricola, who governed it in the reigns of Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian, and distinguished himself in that scene of action.

This great commander formed a regular plan for subduing Britain, and rendering the acquisition useful to the conquerors. He carried his victorious arms

northwards, defeated the Britains in every encounter, pierced into the inaccessible forests and mountains of Caledonia, reduced every thing to subjection in the southern parts of the island, and chaced before him all the men of fiercer and more intractable spirits, who deemed war and death itself less intolerable than servitude under the victors. He even defeated them in a decisive action, which they fought under Galcacus, their leader; and having drawn a rampart, and fixed a train of garrisons between the friths of Clyde and Forth, he thereby cut off the ruder and more barren parts of the island, and secured the Roman province from the invasion of the barbarous inhabitants.

During these military enterprizes, he neglected not the arts of peace. He introduced laws and civility among the Britains, taught them to desire and raise all the conveniencies of life, reconciled them to the Roman language and manners, instructed them in letters and science, and employed every expedient to render those chains, which he had forged, both easy and agreeable to them.

The inhabitants, having experienced how unequal their own force was to resist that of the Romans, acquiesced in the dominion of their masters, and were gradually incorporated as a part of that mighty empire.

This was the last durable conquest made by the Romans; and Britain, once subdued, gave no farther inquietude to the victor. Caledonia alone, defended by its barren mountains, and by the contempt which the Romans entertained of it, sometimes infested the more cultivated parts of the island by the incursions of its inhabitants. The better to secure the frontiers of the empire, Adrian, who visited this island, built a strong rampart between Tyne and the frith of Solway: Lollius Urbicus, under Antoninus Pius, repaired that of Agricola: Severus, who made an expedition into Britain, and carried his arms into the most northern extremity of it, added new fortifications to the wall of Adrian; and during all the reigns of the Roman emperors, such a profound tranquillity prevailed in Britain, that little mention is made of the affairs of that island by any historian.

The only incidents which occur, are some seditions or rebellions of the Roman legions quartered there, and some usurpations of the imperial dignity by the Roman governors. The natives, disarmed, dispirited, and submissive, had lost all desire, and even idea of their former liberty and independance.

But the period was now come, when that enormous fabric of the Roman empire, which had diffused slavery and oppression, together with peace and civility, over so considerable a part of the globe, was approaching towards its final dissolution. Italy, and the center of the empire, removed, during so many ages,
from all concern in the wars, had entirely loft the military spirit, and were peo-
pled by an enervated race, equally disposed to submit to a foreign yoke, or to
the tyranny of their own rulers. The emperors found themselves obliged to re-
cruit their legions from the frontier provinces, where the genius of war, though
languishing, was not totally extinct; and these mercenary forces, careless of laws
and civil institutions, established a military government, no less dangerous to the
sovereign than to the people. The farther progress of the same disorders intro-
duced the bordering barbarians into the service of the Romans; and those fierce
nations, having now added discipline and skill to their native bravery, could no
longer be restrained by the impotent policy of the emperors, who were accustomed
to employ the one in the destruction of the other. Senfible of their own
and allured by the prospect of so rich a prize, the northern barbarians, in the
reign of Arcadius and Honorius, affailed at once all the frontiers of the Roman
empire; and having first fatigue their avidity by plunder, began to think of fix-
ing a settlement in the wafted provinces. The more distant barbarians, who oc-
cupied the deferted habitations of the former, advanced in their acquisitions, and
prefted with their incumbent weight the Roman state, already unequal to the load
which it sustained. Instead of arming the people in their own defence, the em-
perors recalled all the distant legions, in whom alone they could repofe confi-
dence; and collected the whole military force for the defence of the capital and
center of the empire. The necessity of self-prefervation had superseded the am-
bition of power; and the antient point of honour, of never conftenting the limits
of the empire, could no longer be attended to in this desperate extremity.

Britain by its situation was removed from the fury of these barbarous incur-
sions; and being also a remote province, not much valued by the Romans, the
legions, which defended it, were carried over to the protection of Italy and Gaul.
But that province, though fccured by the sea against the inroads of the greater
tribes of barbarians, found enemies on its frontiers, who took advantage of its
prefent defenceless situation. The Picts and Scots, who dwelt in the northern
parts, beyond the wall of Antoninus, made incursions upon their peaceable and
tiny neighbours; and besides the temporary depredations which they com-
mited, threatened the whole province with subjeftion, or, what the inhabitants
more dreaded, with plunder and deftitution. The former nation feem to have
been a tribe of the native British race, who, having been chased into the north-
ern parts by the conquests of Agricula, had there intermingled with the antient
inhabitants: The other were derived from the fame Celtic origin, had ftill been
ftablifhed in Ireland, had fent over a colony to the north-west coasts of this ifland,
and had long been accustomed, as well from their old as their new feats, to infelt
the Roman province by their pyracy and rapine. These two tribes, finding their more opulent neighbours exposed to invasion, soon broke over the Roman wall, no longer defended by the Roman arms; and though a contemptible enemy in themselves, met with no resistance from the unwarlike inhabitants. The Britains, accustomed to have recourse to the emperors for defence as well as government, made supplications to Rome; and one legion was sent over for their protection. This force was an over-match for the barbarians, repelled their invasion, routed them in every engagement, and having chased them into their antient limits, returned in triumph to the defence of the southern provinces of the empire. Their retreat brought on a new invasion of the enemy. The Britains made again an application to Rome, and obtained again the assistance of a legion, which proved effectual for their relief: But the Romans, reduced to extremities at home, and fatigued with these distant expeditions, informed the Britains that they must no longer look to them for succour, exhorting them to arm in their own defence, and urged, that as they were now their own masters, it became them to protect by their valour that independance which their antient lords had conferred upon them. That they might leave the island with the better grace, the Romans assisted them in erecting anew the wall of Severus, which was built entirely of stone, and which the Britains had not at that time artizans skilful enough to repair. And having done this last good office to the inhabitants, they bid a final adieu to Britain, about the year 448; after being masters of the most considerable part of it during the course of near four centuries.

The Britains.

The abject Britains regarded this present of liberty as fatal to them; and were in no condition to put in practice the prudent advice given them by the Romans, of arming in their own defence. Unaccustomed both to the perils of war, and to the cares of civil government, they found themselves incapable of forming or executing any measures for resisting the incursions of the barbarians. Gratian also and Constantine, two Romans who had a little before assumed the purple in Britain, had carried over into the continent the flower of the British youth; and having perished in their unsuccessful attempts on the imperial throne, had deploired the island of those, who, in this desperate extremity, were best able

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Chap. I.

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to defend it. The Picts and Scots, finding that the Romans had finally relinquished Britain, now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacked the northern wall with redoubled forces. The Britains, already subdued by their own fears; found the ramparts but a weak defence for them; and deserting their station, left the country entirely open to the inroads of the barbarous enemy. The invaders carried devastation and ruin along with them; and exerted to the utmost their native ferocity, which was not mitigated by the helpless condition and submissive behaviour of the inhabitants*. The unhappy Britains had a third time recourse to Rome, which had declared its resolution for ever to abandon them. Aetius, the patrician, sustained, at that time, by his valour and magnanimity, the tottering ruins of the empire, and revived for a moment among the degenerate Romans, the spirit, as well as discipline of their ancestors. The British ambassadors carried to him the letter of their countrymen, which was inscribed, _The Groans of the Britains_. The tenor of the epistle was suitable to its superscription. 

A.D. 448. The barbarians, say they, on one hand, chase us into the sea; the sea, on the other, throws us back upon the barbarians; and we have only the hard choice left us, of perishing by the sword or by the waves. But Aetius, pressed by the arms of Attila, the most terrible enemy that ever afflicted the empire, had no leisure to attend to the complaints of allies, whom generosity alone could induce him to assist. The Britains, thus rejected, were reduced to despair, deserted their habitations, abandoned tillage, and flying for protection to the forests and mountains, suffered equally from hunger and from the enemy. The barbarians themselves began to feel the pressures of famine in a country which they had ravaged; and being harassed by the dispersed Britains, who had not dared to resist them in a body, they retreated with their spoils into their own country. 

The Britains, taking advantage of this interval, returned to their usual occupations; and the favourable seasons, which succeeded, seconding their industry, made them soon forget all their past miseries, and restored to them great plenty of all the necessaries of life. No more can be imagined to have been possessed by a people so rude, who had not, without the assistance of the Romans, art of masonry sufficient to raise a stone rampart for their own defence: Yet the Monkish historians, who treat of those events, complain of the luxury of the Britains during this period, and ascribe to this vice, not to their cowardice or improvident councils, all their subsequent calamities.

The Britains, entirely occupied in the enjoyment of the present interval of peace, made no provisions for resisting the enemy, who, invited by their former timid behaviour, soon threatened them with a new invasion. We are not exactly informed what species of civil government the Romans on their departure had left among them; but it appears probable, that the great men in the different districts assumed a kind of regal, tho' precarious authority; and lived in a great measure independant of each other. To this disunion of councils were also added the disputes of theology; and the disciples of Pelagius, who was himself a native of Britain, having increased to a great multitude, gave alarm to the clergy, who seem to have been more intent on resisting them, than in opposing the public enemy. Labouring under these domestic evils, and menaced with a foreign invasion, the Britains attended only to the suggestions of their present fears; and following the councils of Vortigern, prince of Dumnonium, who, though stained with every vice, possessed the chief authority among them, they sent into Germany a deputation to invite over the Saxons for their protection and assistance.

The Saxons.

Of all the barbarous nations, known either in antient or modern times, the Germans seem to have been the most distinguished both by their manners and political inquisitions, and to have carried to the highest pitch the virtues of valour, and love of liberty; the only virtues which can have place among an uncivilized people, where justice and humanity are commonly neglected. Kingly government, even when established among the Germans, (for it was not universal) possessed a very limited authority; and though the sovereign was usually chosen from amongst the royal family, he was obliged to be directed in every measure by the common consent of the nation, over whom he presided. When any important affairs were transacted, all the warriors of the nation met in arms; the men of greatest authority employed persuasion to engage their consent; the people expressed their approbation by rattling their armour, or their dissent by murmurs; there was no necessity for a nice scrutiny of votes among a multitude, who were usually carried with a strong current to one side or the other; and the measure, thus suddenly chosen by general agreement, was executed with alacrity, and prosecuted with vigour. Even in war, their princes governed more by ex-

ample than by authority: But in peace, the civil union was in a great measure dissolved, and the inferior leaders administered justice, after an independant manner, each in his particular district. These were elected by the votes of the people in their great councils; and though regard was paid to nobility in the choice, their personal qualities, chiefly their valour, procured them from the suffrages of their fellow-citizens that honourable but dangerous distinction. The warriors of each tribe attached themselves to their leader, with the most devoted affection and most unhaken conftancy. They attended him as his ornament in peace, as his defence in war, as his council in the administration of justice. Their constant emulation in military renown dissolved not that inviolable friendship which they professed to their chieftain and to each other. To die for the honour of their band was their chief ambition: To survive its disgrace, or the death of their leader, was infamous. They even carried into the field their women and children, who adopted all the martial sentiments of the men: And being thus impelled by every human motive, they were invincible; where they were not opposed, either by the similar manners and institutions of the neighbouring Germans, or by the superior discipline, arms, and numbers of the Romans.

The leaders and their military companions were maintained by the labour of their slaves, or by that of the weaker and less warlike part of the society, whom they defended. The contributions, which they levied, went not beyond a bare subsistence; and the honours, acquired by a superior rank, were the only reward of their superior dangers and fatigues. All the refined arts of life were unknown among the Germans: Tillage itself was almost wholly neglected: They seem to have been even anxious to prevent any improvements of that nature; and the leaders, by annually distributing anew all the land among the inhabitants of each village, prevented them from attaching themselves to particular possessions, or making any such progress in agriculture as might divert their attention from military expeditions, the chief occupation of the community.

The Saxons had been for some time regarded as one of the most warlike tribes of this fierce people, and had become the terror of all the neighbouring nations. They had spread themselves from the northern parts of Germany and the Cimbrian Chersonesus, and had taken possession of all the sea-coast from the mouth of the Rhine to Jutland; whence they had long infested by their piracies all the eastern parts of Britain, and northern of Gaul. In order to oppose their inroads, the Romans had established an officer, whom they called Count of the

* Cæsar, lib. 6. Tacit. de Mor. Germ.  † Cæsar, lib. 6. Tacit. ibid.
‡ Amm. Marcell. lib. 28. Orosius.  ‖ Amm. Marcell. lib. 27. cap. 7. lib. 22. cap. 7.
Saxon shores; and as the naval arts can flourish only among a civilized people, they seem to have been more successful in repelling the Saxons than any of the other barbarians, by whom they were invaded. The dissolution of the Roman power invited them to renew their inroads; and it was an acceptable circumstance, that the deputies of the Britains appeared among them, and prompted them to undertake an enterprise, to which they were of themselves sufficiently inclined.

Hengist and Horfa were two brothers, who possessed great credit among the Saxons, and were much celebrated both for their valour and nobility. They were believed, as most of the Saxon princes, to be sprung from Woden, who was worshipped as a God among those nations, and they are said to be his great grandsons; a circumstance which added much to their authority. We shall not attempt to trace any higher the origin of those princes and nations. It is evident what fruitless labour it must be to search in those barbarous and illiterate ages for the annals of a people, when their first leaders, known in any true history, were believed by them to be the fourth in descent from a fabulous deity, or from a man, exalted by ignorance into that character. The dark industry of antiquarians, led by remote analogies of names, or by uncertain traditions, would in vain attempt to pierce into that deep obscurity, which covers the remote history of those nations.

These two brothers, observing the other provinces of Germany to be occupied by a warlike and necessitous people, and the rich provinces of Gaul already conquered or over-run by other German tribes, found it easy to persuade their countrymen to embrace the sole enterprise, which promised a favourable opportunity of displaying their valour and gratifying their avidity. They embarked their troops in three vessels, and about the years 449 or 450, carried over 1600 men, who landed in the isle of Thanet, and immediately marched to the defence of the Britains against the northern invaders. The Scots and Picts were unable to resist the valour of these auxiliaries; and the Britains, applauding their own wisdom in calling over the Saxons, hoped thenceforth to enjoy peace and security under the powerful protection of that warlike people.

But Hengist and Horfa, perceiving, from their easy victory over the Scots and Picts, with what facility they might subdue the Britains themselves, who had not been able to resist these feeble invaders, were determined to conquer and fight for their own grandeur, not for the defence of their degenerate allies. They sent:

Brompton, p. 728.
intelligence to Saxony of the fertility and riches of Britain; and represented the certain conquest, which might be made over a people, so long disused to arms, who, being now cut off from the Roman empire, of which they were a province during so many ages, had not yet acquired any union among themselves, and were devoid of all affection to their new liberties, and of all national attachments and regards. The vices and pusillanimity of Vortigern, the British leader, were a new ground of hopes; and the Saxons in Germany, following such agreeable prospects, soon re-inforced Hengist and Horfa with 5000 men, who came over in seventeen vessels. The Britains began now to entertain apprehensions of their allies, whose numbers they found continually augmenting; but thought of no remedy, except in a passive submission and connivance. This weak expedient soon failed them. The Saxons fought a quarrel by complaining that their subsidies were ill paid, and their provisions withdrawn; and immediately taking off the mask, they formed an alliance with the Picts and Scots, and proceeded to open hostility against the Britains.

The Britains impelled by these violent extremities, and full of indignation against their treacherous auxiliaries, were necessitated to take arms; and having deposed Vortigern, who had become odious from his vices, and from the bad event of his rash councils, they put themselves under the command of his son, Vortimer. They fought many battles with their enemies; and though the victories in these actions be disputed between the British and Saxon annalists, the progress still made by the Saxons prove that the advantage was commonly on their side. In one battle, however, fought at Eglesford, now Ailsford, Horfa the Saxon general, was slain; and left the sole command over his countrymen in the hands of Hengist. This active general, continually reinforced by fresh numbers from Germany, carried devastation into the most remote corners of Britain; and being chiefly anxious to spread the terror of his arms, he spared neither age, nor sex, nor condition, wherever he marched with his victorious forces. The private and public edifices of the Britains were reduced to ashes: The priests were slaughtered on the altars by these idolatrous ravagers: The bishops and nobility shared the fate of the vulgar: The people flying into the mountains and deserts, were intercepted and butchered in heaps: Some were glad to accept of life and servitude under their victors: Others, deserting their native country, took shelter in the province of Armorica; where being chari-
The Saxons. 15

Tably received by a people of the same language and manners, they settled in Chap. I. great numbers, and gave the country the name of Brittany.*

The British writers assign one cause, which facilitated the entrance of the Saxons into this island; the love, with which Vortigern was at first seized for Rovena, the daughter of Hengist, and which that artful warrior made use of to blind the eyes of the imprudent monarch †. The same historians add, that Vortimer died; and Vortigern, being restored to the throne, accepted of a festival from Hengist; at Stonehenge; where 300 of his nobility were treacherously slaughtered, and himself detained captive ‡. But these stories seem to have been invented by the Welsh authors, in order to palliate the weak resistance made at first by their countrymen, and to account for the rapid progress and licentious devastations of the Saxons §.

After the death of Vortimer, Ambrosius, a Britain, tho’ of Roman descent, was invested with the command over his countrymen, and endeavoured, not without success, to unite them in their resistance against the Saxons. These contests increased the animosity between the two nations, and roused the military spirit of the ancient inhabitants, which had before been sunk into such a fatal lethargy. Hengist, however, notwithstanding their opposition, still kept his ground in Britain; and in order to divide the forces and attention of the Britains, he called over a new tribe of Saxons under the command of his brother Oéta, and of Ebiffa, the son of Oéta; and he settled them in Northumberland. He himself remained in the southern parts of the island, and laid the foundation of the kingdom of Kent, comprehending the county of that name, Middlesex, Essex, and part of Surrey. He fixed his royal seat at Canterbury; where he governed about forty years, and he died in or near the year 488; leaving his new acquired dominions to his posterity.

The success of Hengist excited the avidity of the other inhabitants of the northern regions of Germany; and at different times, and under different leaders, they flocked over in multitudes to the invasion of this island. These conquerors were chiefly composed of three tribes, the Saxons, Angles, and Jutes §, who passed, all of them, under the common appellation, sometimes of Saxons, sometimes of Angles; and speaking the same language, and being governed by the
same institutions, they were naturally led, from these causes, as well as from their common interest, to unite themselves against the antient inhabitants. The resistance, however unequal, was still maintained by the Britains; but became every day more feeble: And their misfortunes admitted of few intervals, till they were driven into Cornwall and Wales, and received protection from the remote situation or inaccessible mountains of those countries.

The first Saxon state, after that of Kent, which was established in Britain, was the kingdom of South-Saxony. In the year 477, Ella a Saxon chieftain, brought over an army from Germany; and landing in the southern coast, proceeded to take possession of the neighbouring territory. The Britains, now armed, abandoned not tamely their possessions; nor were they expelled, till defeated in many battles by their warlike invaders. The most memorable action, mentioned by historians, is that of Mearcredes Burn*; where, tho' the Saxons seem to have obtained the victory, they suffered so considerable a loss, as somewhat retarded the progress of their conquests. But Ella, re-inforced by fresh numbers of his countrymen, again took the field against the Britains; and laid siege to Andrew Caefter, which was defended by the garrison and inhabitants with desperate valour †. The Saxons, enraged by this resistance, and by the fatigues and dangers which they had sustained, redoubled their efforts against the place, and when masters of it, put all their enemies to the sword without distinction. This decisive advantage secured the conquests of Ella, who assumed the name of King, and extended his dominion over Sussex and a great part of Surrey. He was stopped in his progress to the east by the kingdom of Kent: In that to the west, by another tribe of Saxons, who had taken possession of that territory.

These Saxons, from the situation of the country in which they settled, were called the Weft-Saxons, and landed in the year 495, under the command of Cerdic, and of his son Kenric ‡. The Britains were, by past experience, so much on their guard, and so well prepared to receive the enemy, that they gave battle to Cerdic the very day of his landing; and tho' vanquished, still defended, for some time, their liberties against the invaders. None of the other tribes of Saxons met with such vigorous resistance, or exerted such valour and perseverance in pushing their conquests. Cerdic was even obliged to call for the assistance of his countrymen from the kingdoms of Kent and Sussex, as well as from Germany; and he was thence joined by a fresh army under the command

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of Porte, and of his sons Bleda and Megla. Strengthened by these succours, he fought in the year 508 a desperate battle with the Britains, commanded by Nazan-Leod, their leader, who was victorious in the beginning of the action, and routed the wing in which Cerdic himself commanded. But Kenric, who had prevailed in the other wing, brought timely assistance to his father, and restored the battle, which ended in a complete victory on the side of the Saxons. Nazan-Leod perished with 5000 of his army: But left the Britains more weakened than discouraged by his death. The war still continued, tho’ the success was commonly on the side of the Saxons, whose short swords and close manner of fighting, gave them great advantage over the missile weapons of the Britains. Cerdic was not wanting to his good fortune; and in order to extend his conquests, he laid siege to Mount Badon or Banedowne near Bath, whither the most obstinate of the discomfited Britains had retired. The southern Britains in this extremity applied for assistance to Arthur, prince of the Silures, whose heroic valour now sustained the declining fate of his country. This is that Arthur so much celebrated by the songs of Thaliescin, and the other British bards, and whose military achievements have been blended with so many fables as to give occasion for entertaining a doubt of his real existence. But poets, tho’ they disfigure the most certain history by their fictions, and use strange liberties with truth where they are the sole historians, as among the Britains, have commonly some foundation for their wildest exaggerations. Certain it is, that the siege of Badon was raised by the Britains in the year 520, and the Saxons there discomfited in a great battle. This misfortune stopped the progress of Cerdic; but was not sufficient to wrest from him the conquests, which he had already made. He and his son, Kenric, who succeeded him, establilshed the kingdom of the West-Saxons or of Wessex over the counties of Hants, Dorset, Wilts, Berks, and the Isle of Wight, and left their new acquired dominions to their posterity. Cerdic died in 534, Kenric in 560.

While the Saxons made this progress in the south, their countrymen were not less active in other quarters. In the year 527, a great tribe of adventurers, under several leaders, landed on the east-coast of Britain; and after fighting many battles, of which history has preferred no particular account, they established three new kingdoms in this island. Uffa assumed the title of king of the East-Angles in 575; Crida that of Mercia in 585; and Erkenwin that
The Saxons, soon after the landing of Hengift, had been planted in Northumberland; but meeting with an obstinate resistance, and making but small progress in subduing the inhabitants, their affairs were in so unsettled a condition, that none of their princes for a long time assumed the appellation of king. At last, in 547, Ida, a Saxon prince of great merit, who claimed a descent, as did all the other princes of that nation, from Woden, brought over a reinforcement from Germany, and enabled the Northumbrians to carry on their conquests against the Britains. He entirely subdued the county, now called Northumberland, the bishopric of Durham, as well as some of the south-east counties of Scotland; and he assumed the crown under the title of King of Bernicia. Nearly about the same time, Ælla, another Saxon prince, having conquered Lancashire, and the greatest part of Yorkshire, received the appellation of King of Deiri. These two kingdoms were united in the person of Æthelfrid, grandson of Ida, who married Acca, the daughter of Ælla; and expelling her brother, Edwin, established one of the most powerful of the Saxon kingdoms, under the title of Northumberland. How far his dominions extended into the country now called Scotland is uncertain; but it cannot be doubted, that all the lowlands, especially the east coast of that country, were peopled in a great measure from Germany; tho' the expeditions, made by the several Saxon adventurers, have escaped the records of history. The language, spoke in these countries, which is purely Saxon, is a stronger proof of this event, than can be opposed by the imperfect, or rather fabulous annals, which are obtruded on us by the Scots historians.

**The Heptarchy.**

Thus was established, after a violent struggle of near an hundred and fifty years, the Heptarchy, or seven Saxon kingdoms, in Britain; and the whole southern part of the island, except Wales and Cornwall, had totally changed its inhabitants, language, customs, and political institutions. The Britains, under...
the Roman dominion, had made such advances towards arts and civil manners, that they had built twenty-eight considerable cities within their province, besides a great number of villages and country-seats; but the fierce conquerors, by whom they were now subdued, threw everything back into antient barbarity; and those few natives, who were not either massacred or expelled their habitations, were reduced to the most abject slavery. None of the other northern conquerors, the Franks, Goths, Vandals, or Burgundians, tho' they over ran the southern provinces, like a mighty torrent, made such devastations in the conquered territories, or were inflamed into such a violent animosity against the antient inhabitants. As the Saxons came over at intervals, in separate bodies, the Britains, however at first unwarlike, were tempted to make resistance; and hostilities, being thereby prolonged, proved more destructive to both parties, especially to the vanquished. The first invaders from Germany, instead of excluding other adventurers, who must share with them the spoils and property of the antient inhabitants, were obliged to invite over fresh supplies from their own country; and a total extermination of the Britains became the sole expedient for providing a settlement and subsistence to the new planters. Hence there have been found in history few conquests more ruinous than that of the Saxons; and few revolutions more violent than that which they introduced.

So long as the contest was maintained with the natives, the several Saxon princes preferred an union of councils and interests; but after the Britains were shut up in the barren countries of Cornwall and Wales, and gave no farther discontent to the conquerors, the band of alliance was in a great measure dissolved among the princes of the Heptarchy; and tho' one prince seems still to have been allowed or to have assumed an ascendant over the whole, his authority, if it ought ever to be deemed regular or legal, was extremely limited; and each state acted as if it had been totally separate and independant of the rest. Wars, therefore, and revolutions and dissentions were unavoidable among a turbulent and military people; and these events, however intricate or confused, should now become the objects of our attention. But, added to the difficulty of carrying on at once the history of seven independent kingdoms, there is a great writer, arising from the uncertainty, at least barrenness of the accounts transmitted to us. The Monks, who were the only annalists during those ages, lived remote from public affairs, considered the civil transactions as entirely subordinate to the ecclesiastical, and besides partaking of the ignorance and barbarity, which were then universal, were strongly infected with credulity, with the love of wonder, and


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with a propensity to imposture; vices almost inseparable from their profession, and manner of life. The history of that period abounds in names, but is extremely barren of events; or the events are related so much without circumstances and causes, that the most profound or most eloquent writer must despair of rendering them either instructive or entertaining to the reader. Even the great learning and vigorous imagination of Milton sunk under the weight; and this author scruples not to declare, that he esteems the skirmishes of kites or crows equally deserving of a particular narrative, as the confused transactions and battles of the Saxon Heptarchy*. In order, however, to connect the events in some tolerable measure, we shall give a succinct account of the successions of kings, and of the revolutions in each particular kingdom; beginning with that of Kent, which was the first established.

The K IN G D O M of K E N T.

ESCUS succeeded his father, Hengist, in the kingdom of Kent; but seems not to have possessed the military reputation enjoyed by that conqueror, who first made way for the entrance of the Saxon arms into Britain. All the Saxons, who fought the fame of valour, or new establishments by arms, flocked to the standard of Ælla, King of Sussex, who was carrying on successful war against the Britains, and laying the foundations of a new kingdom. Escus was contented to possess in tranquillity the kingdom of Kent, which he left in 512 to his son Octa, in whose time the East-Saxons established their monarchy, and dismembered the provinces of Essex and Middlesex from that of Kent. His death, after twenty-two years reign, made room for his son Hermenric in 534, who performed nothing memorable during a reign of thirty-two years; except associating with him his son, Ethelbert, in the government, in order the better to secure the succession in his family, and prevent such revolutions as are incident to a turbulent and barbarous monarchy.

ETHELBERT revived the reputation of his family, which had languished for some generations. The inactivity of his predecessors, and the situation of his country, secured from all hostility with the Britains, seems to have much weakened the warlike genius of the Kentish Saxons; and Ethelbert, in his first attempt to aggrandize his country, and distinguish his own name, met with very bad success†. He was twice discomfited in battle by Ceaulin, King of Wexsex; and obliged to yield the superiority in the Heptarchy to that ambitious monarch, who

THE HEPTARCHY

preserved no moderation in his victory, and by subjecting the kingdom of Sussex, excited jealousy in all the other princes. An association was formed against him; and Ethelbert, entrusted with the command of the allies, fought him in a great battle, and obtained a decisive victory*. Cæulin died soon after; and Ethelbert succeeded as well to his ascendant among the Saxon states, as to his other ambitious and exorbitant projects. He reduced all the princes, except the king of Northumberland, to a strict dependence upon him; and even established himself by force on the throne of Mercia, the most extensive of the Saxon kingdoms. Apprehensive, however, of a dangerous league against him, like that by which he himself had been enabled to overthrow Cæulin, he had the prudence to resign the throne of Mercia to Webba, the rightful heir, the son of Crida, who had first founded that monarchy. But governed still by ambition more than by justice, he gave Webba possession of the crown on such conditions, as rendered him little better than a tributary prince under his artful benefactor.

But the most memorable and most fortunate event, which distinguished the reign of this great prince, was the introduction of the Christian religion among the English Saxons. The superstition of the Germans, particularly that of the Saxons, was of the grossest and most barbarous kind; and being founded on certain traditional tales, received from their ancestors, not reduced to any system, not supported by political institutions, like that of the Druids, it seems to have made little impression on its votaries, and to have easily resigned its place to the new doctrine promulgated to them. Woden, whom they believed the ancestor of all their princes, was regarded as the God of war, and, by a natural consequence, became their supreme deity, and the chief object of their religious worship. They believed, that, if they obtained the favour of this divinity by their valour, (for they made less account of the other virtues) they would be admitted after their death into his hall, and repose on couches, would satiate themselves with ale from the skulls of their enemies, whom they had slain in battle. Incited by this idea of paradise, which gratified at once the passion of revenge and that of intemperance, the ruling inclinations of barbarians, they despised the dangers of war, and encreased their native ferocity against the vanquished by their religious prejudices. We know little of the other theological tenets of the Saxons: We only learn that they were idolaters; that they worshipped the sun and moon; that they adored the god of thunder, under the name of Thor; that they had images in their temples; that they practised sacrifices; believed firmly in spells and enchantments; and admitted, in general a system of doctrines, which they held as sacred, but which, like all other superstitions, must bear the air of

* H. Hunting, lib. 2.
the wildest extravagance, if propounded to those who are not familiarized to it from their earliest infancy.

The constant hostilities which the Saxons maintained against the Britains, would naturally indispose them from receiving the Christian faith, when preached to them by such inveterate enemies; and perhaps the Britains, as is objected to them by Gildas and Bede, were not over fond of communicating to their cruel invaders the doctrine of eternal life and salvation. But as a civilized people, however subdued by arms, still maintain a sensible superiority over barbarous and ignorant nations, all the other northern conquerors of Europe had been already induced to embrace the Christian faith, which they found established in the empire; and it was impossible but the Saxons, informed of this event, must have regarded with some degree of veneration a doctrine which had acquired the ascendant over all their brethren. However limited in their views, they could not but have perceived a degree of cultivation in the southern counties beyond what they themselves possessed; and it was natural for them to yield to that superior knowledge, as well as zeal, by which the inhabitants of the Christian kingdoms were even at this time distinguished.

But these causes might long have failed of operating their effect, had not a favourable incident prepared the means of introducing Christianity into Kent. Ethelbert, in his father's lifetime, had married Bertha, the only daughter of Caribert, King of Paris*, one of the descendants of Clovis, the conqueror of Gaul; but before he was admitted to this alliance, he was obliged to stipulate, that the princess should enjoy the free exercise of her religion; a concession not difficult to be obtained from the idolatrous Saxons†. Bertha brought over a French bishop to the court of Canterbury; and being zealous for the propagation of her religion, she had been very assiduous in her devotional exercises, had supported the credit of her faith by an irreproachable conduct, and had employed every art of insinuation and address to reconcile her husband to her religious principles. Her popularity in the court, and her influence over Ethelbert, had so well paved the way for the reception of the Christian doctrine, that Gregory, surnamed the Great, the present Roman pontiff, began to entertain hopes of effectuating a project, which he himself, before he mounted the papal throne, had once embraced for converting the Britih Saxons.

It happened, that this prelate, being then in a private station, had observed in the market-place of Rome some Saxon youths exposed to sale, whom the Roman merchants, in their trading voyages to Britain, had bought of their mercenary

* Greg. of Tours, lib. 9 cap. 26. H. Hunting, lib. 2.
parents. Struck with the beauty of their fair complexions and blooming coun-

tenances, Gregory asked to what country they belonged, and being told they

were Angles, he replied, that they ought more properly to be denominated angels, and it was a pity that the Prince of Darkness should enjoy so fair a prey, and that so beautiful a frontispiece should cover a mind devoid of internal grace and righteousness. Enquiring farther concerning the name of their province, he was informed, that it was Deiri, a division of Northumberland: Deiri! replied he, that is good! They are called to the mercy of God from his anger, De iva. But what is the name of the King of that province? He was told it was Aella or Alla: Alleluia! cried he: We must endeavour that the praises of God be sung in their country. Moved by these allusions, which appeared to him so happy, he determined to undertake himself a mission into Britain; and having obtained the Pope’s permission, he prepared for that dangerous journey: But his popularity at home was so great, that the Romans, unwilling to expose him to such hazards, opposed his design; and he was obliged for the present to lay aside farther thoughts of executing that pious purpose  

The controversy between the Pagans and the Christians was not entirely cool-
ed in that age; and no pontiff before Gregory had ever carried to greater excesses his intemperate zeal against the former religion. He had declared war against all the precious monuments of the antients, and even against their writings; which, as appears from the strain of his own wit, as well as the style of his compositions, he had not taste nor genius sufficient to comprehend. Ambitious to distinguish his pontificate by the conversion of the British Saxons, he pitched on Augustine, a Roman monk, and sent him with forty associates to preach the gospel in this island: These missionaries, terrified with the dangers, which might attend their proposing a new doctrine to so fierce a people, of whose language they were entirely ignorant, stopped some time in France, and sent back Augustine to lay the hazards and difficulties before the Pope, and crave his permission to desist from the undertaking. But Gregory exhorted them to persevere in their purpose, advised them to choose some interpreters from among the Franks, who still spoke the same language with the Saxons; and recommended them to the good offices of Queen Brunehaur, who had at this time usurped the sovereign power in their country. This princess, tho’ stained with every vice of treachery and cruelty, either possessed or pretended great zeal for the cause; and Gregory acknowledged, that to her friendly assistance was in a great measure owing the success of that undertaking  

‡ Bede, lib. 1. cap. 25.
Augustine, on his arrival in Kent in the year 597, found the danger much less than he had apprehended. Ethelbert, already well disposed towards the Christian faith, assigned him a habitation in the isle of Thanet; and soon after admitted him to a conference. Apprehensive, however, that spells or enchantments might be employed against him by priests, who brought an unknown worship from a distant country, he took the precaution of receiving them in the open air, where he believed the force of their magic would be more easily dissipated. Here Augustine, by means of his interpreters, delivered to him the tenets of the Christian faith, and promised him eternal joys above, and a kingdom in heaven without end, if he would be persuaded to receive that salutary doctrine. "Your words and promises," replied Ethelbert, "are fair; but because they are new and uncertain, I cannot entirely yield to them, and relinquish the principles, which I and my ancestors have so long maintained. You are welcome, however, to remain here in peace; and as you have undertaken so long a journey, solely, as appears, for what you believe to be for our advantage, I will supply you with all necessaries, and permit you to deliver your doctrine to my subjects."

Augustine, encouraged by this favourable reception, and seeing now a prospect of success, proceeded with redoubled zeal to preach the gospel to the Kentish Saxons. He attracted their attention by the austerity of his manners, by the severe penances to which he subjected himself, by the abstinence and self-denial which he practiced: And having excited their wonder by a course of life, which appeared so contrary to nature, he procured more easily their belief for miracles, which, it was pretended, he wrought for their conversion. Influenced by these motives, and by the declared favour of the court, numbers of the Kentish men were baptized; and the King himself was persuaded to submit to that rite of Christianity. His example wrought powerfully on his subjects; but he employed no force to bring them over to the new doctrine. Augustine thought proper, in the commencement of his mission, to assume the appearance of the greatest lenity; and he told Ethelbert, that the service of Christ must be entirely voluntary, and that no violence ought ever to be used in propagating so salutary a doctrine.

The intelligence received of these spiritual conquests conveyed great joy to the Romans; who now exulted as much in those peaceful trophies, as their ancestors

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had
THE HEPTARCHY.

Chap. I.

had ever done in their most sanguinary triumphs, and most splendid victories. Gregory wrote a letter to Ethelbert, in which, after informing him, that the end of the world was approaching, he exhorted him to display his zeal in the conversion of his subjects, to exert rigour against the worship of idols, and to build up the good work of holiness by every expedient of exhortation, terror, blandishment or correction*: A doctrine more suitable to that age, and to the usual papal maxims, than the tolerating principles which Augustine had thought it prudent to inculcate. The pontiff also answered some questions, which the missionary had put concerning the government of the new church of England. Besides other queries, which it is not necessary here to relate, Augustine asked, Whether cousin-germand might be allowed to marry? Gregory answered, that that liberty had indeed been formerly granted by the Roman law; but that experience had shown, that no posterity could ever come from such marriages; and he therefore prohibited them. Augustine asks, Whether a woman pregnant might be baptized? Gregory answers, that he sees no objection. How soon after the birth the child might receive baptism? It was answered, Immediately, if requisite. How soon a husband might have commerce with his wife after her delivery? Not till she had given suck to her child; a practice to which Gregory exhorts all women. How soon a man might enter the church, or receive the sacrament, after having had commerce with his wife? It was replied, that unless he had approached her without desire, merely for the sake of propagating his species, he was not free from sin; but in all cases it was requisite for him, before he entered the church or communicated, to purge himself by prayer and ablution; and ought not, even after using these precautions, to participate immediately of the sacred duties†. There are some other questions and replies still more indecent and more ridiculous‡. And on the whole, it appears, that Gregory and his missionary, if sympathy of manners have any influence, were better calculated than men of more refined understandings, for making a progress with the ignorant and barbarous Saxons.

† Bede, lib. 1. cap. 27. Spell. Conc. p. 97, 98, 99, &c.
‡ Augustine asks, Si mulier menstrua confutudine tenetur, an ecclesiam intrare si licet, aut sacra communionis sacramenta percipere? Gregory answers, Sanitate communionis mysterium in eislem diebus pericipo non debet prohiberi. Si autem ex necessitate magna pericipo non percipatur, laudanda est. Augustine asks, Si pess illutionem, quae per somnum folet accidere, vel corpus domini quid et accipere valeat; vel, si facerds sit, sacra mysteria celebrare? Gregory answers this learned question by many learned distinctions.

VOL. I. E THE
The more to facilitate the reception of Christianity, Gregory enjoined Augustine to remove the idols from the Heathen altars, but not to destroy the altars themselves; because the people, he said, would be allured to frequent the Christian worship, when they found it celebrated in a place, which they were accustomed to revere as sacred. And as the Pagans practised sacrifices, and feasted with the priests on their offerings, he also exhorted the missionary to persuade them, on Christian festivals, to kill their cattle in the neighbourhood of the church, and to indulge themselves in those cheerful entertainments to which they had been habituated *. These political compliances show, that notwithstanding his ignorance and prejudices, he was not unacquainted with the arts of governing mankind. Augustine was consecrated archbishop of Canterbury, was endowed by Gregory with authority over all the British churches, and received the pall, a badge of ecclesiastical honour, from Rome †. Gregory also advised him not to be too much elated with his gift of working miracles ‡; and as Augustine, proud of the success of his mission, seemed to think himself intitled to extend his authority over the bishops of Gaul, the Pope informed him, that they lay entirely without the bounds of his jurisdiction ¶.

The marriage of Ethelbert with Bertha, and much more his embracing Christianity, begot a connexion of his subjects with the French, Italians, and other nations on the continent, and tended to reclaim them from that gross ignorance and barbarity, in which all the Saxon tribes had been hitherto involved §. He also enacted ¶, with the consent of the states of his kingdom, a body of laws, the first written laws promulgated by any of the northern conquerors; and his reign was in every respect glorious to himself, and useful to his people. He governed the kingdom of Kent fifty years; and dying in 616 **, left the succession to his son, Eadbald. This prince, seduced by a passion for his mother-in-law ††, deferred for some time the Christian faith, which permitted these incestuous marriages; and his whole people immediately returned with him to idolatry. Laurentius, the successor of Augustine, found the Christian worship wholly abandoned, and was preparing to return into France, in order to save himself the mortification of preaching the gospel without fruit to the infidels. Mellitus and Juftus, who had been consecrated bishops of London and Rochester, had already departed the kingdom ‡‡; when Laurentius, before he should entirely abandon his dignity,

¶ Wilkins Leges Sax. p. 15.
‡‡ Bede, lib. 2. cap. 5.

made
made one effort to reclaim the King: He appeared before that prince; and throwing off his vestment, showed his body all torn with bruises and stripes, which he had received. Eadbald, wondering that any man should have dared to treat in that manner a person of his rank, was told by Laurentius, that he had received this chastisement from St. Peter, the prince of the apostles, who had appeared to him in a vision, and severely reproving him for his intention to desert his charge, had inflicted on him these visible marks of his displeasure.

Whether Eadbald was struck with the miracle, or influenced by some other motive, he divorced himself from his mother-in-law, and returned to the profession of Christianity: His whole people returned with him. Eadbald reached not the fame nor authority of his father, and died in 640, after a reign of twenty-five years; leaving two sons, Erminfrid and Ercombert.

Ercombert, tho' the youngest son, by Emma, a French princess, found means to mount the throne. He is celebrated by Bede for two exploits, for establishing the fast of Lent in his kingdom, and for utterly extirpating idolatry; which, notwithstanding the prevalence of that papal Christianity preached to the Saxons, had hitherto been allowed a toleration by the two preceding monarchs. He reigned twenty-four years; and left the crown to Egbert, his son, who reigned nine years. This prince is renowned for his encouragement of learning; but infamous for putting to death his two cousin-germans, sons to Erminfrid, his uncle. The ecclesiastical writers praise him for his bestowing on his sister Domnona, some lands in the isle of Thanet, where she founded a monastery.

The bloody precaution of Egbert could not fix the crown on the head of his son, Edric. Lothaire, brother to the deceased prince, took possession of the kingdom; and in order to secure the power in his family, he associated with him Richard, his son, in the administration of the government. Edric, the dispossessed prince, had recourse to Edilwach, King of Sussex, for assistance in maintaining his right; and being supported by that prince, fought a battle with his uncle, who was defeated and slain. Richard fled into Germany, and died at last in Lucca, a city of Tuscany. William of Malmesbury ascribes Lothaire's bad fortune to two crimes, his concurrence in the murder of his cousins, and his contempt of relics.

Lothaire reigned eleven years; Edric his successor only two. Upon the death of the latter, which happened in 686, Widred, his brother, obtained pos-
of the crown. But as the succession had been of late so much disjointed by revolutions and usurpations, faction began to prevail among the nobility, which invited Cedwalla, King of Wessex, with his brother Mollo, to attack the kingdom. These invaders committed great devastations in Kent; but the death of Mollo, who was slain in a skirmish, gave a short breathing-time to that kingdom. Widred restored the affairs of Kent; and after a reign of thirty-two years †; left the crown to his posterity. Eadbert, Ethelbert, and Alric, his descendants, successively mounted the throne. After the death of the last, which happened in 794, the royal family of Kent was extinguished; and every factious leader, who could entertain hopes of ascending the throne, threw the state into confusion. ‡Egbert, who first succeeded, reigned but two years; Cuthred, brother to the King of Mercia, six years; Baldred, an illegitimate branch of the royal family, eighteen: And after a troublesome and precarious government, he was, in the year 723, expelled by Egbert, King of Wessex, who dissolved the Saxon heptarchy, and united the several kingdoms under his dominion.

The Kingdom of NORTHUMBERLAND.

A DELFRID, King of Bernicia, having married Acca, the daughter of Ælla, King of Deiiri, and expelled her infant brother, Edwyn, had united all the counties north of the Humber into one monarchy, and acquired a great ascendant in the heptarchy. He also spread the terror of the Saxon arms to the neighbouring people; and by his victories over the Scots and Picts, as well as Welsh, extended on all sides the bounds of his dominions. Having laid siege to Chester, the Britons marched out with all their forces to engage him; and they were attended with a body of 1250 monks from the monastery of Bangor, who stood at a small distance from the field of battle, in order to encourage the combatants by their presence and exhortations. Adelfrid enquiring about the purpose of this unusual appearance, was told, that these priests had come to pray against him: Then they are as much our enemies, said he, as those who intend to fight against us: And he immediately sent a detachment, who fell upon them, and committed such slaughter, that only fifty escaped with their lives.§. The Britains, astonished with this event, received a total defeat: Chester was obliged to surrender: And Adelfrid, pursuing his victory, made himself master of Bangor, and entirely demolished the monastery. It was so vast a building, that there was a

* Higden, lib. 5. † Chron. Sax. p. 57. ‡ Will. Malmef. lib. i. cap. i. p. 11. § Brompton, p. 779. § Trivet. apud Spell, Conc. p. 111. mile's
mile's distance from one gate of it to another; and it contained two thousand one hundred monks, who are said to have been there maintained by the fruits of their own labour.*

Notwithstanding Adelfrid's success in war, he lived in inquietude on account of young Edwin, whom he had unjustly dispossessed of the crown of Deiri. This prince, now grown to man's estate, wandered from place to place, in continual danger from the attempts of Adelfrid; and received at last protection in the court of Redwald, King of the East-Angles; where his engaging and gallant deportment procured him the affections of every one. Redwald, however, was strongly solicited by the King of Northumberland to kill or deliver up his guest: Rich presents were promised him, if he would comply; and war denounced against him, in case of his refusal. After rejecting several messages of this kind, his generosity began to yield to the motives of interest; and he retained the last ambassador, till he should come to a resolution in a case of such importance. Edwin, informed of his friend's hesitation, was yet determined at all hazards to remain in East-Anglia; and thought, that if the protection of that court failed him, it were better to die than prolong a life so much exposed to the persecutions of his powerful rival. This confidence in Redwald's honour and friendship, with his other accomplishments, engaged the Queen on his side; and she effectually represented to her husband the infamy of delivering up to certain destruction their royal guest, who had fled to them for protection against his cruel and jealous enemies†. Redwald, therefore, embracing more generous resolutions, thought it safest to prevent Adelfrid, before he was aware of his intention, and to attack him while he was yet unprepared for defence. He marched suddenly with an army into the kingdom of Northumberland, and fought a battle with Adelfrid; where that monarch was defeated and killed, after revenging himself by the death of Regner, son to Redwald‡. His own sons, Eanfrid, Ofwald, and Ofwy, yet infants, fled into Scotland; and Edwin obtained possession of the crown of Northumberland.

Edwin was the greatest prince of the heptarchy during his time, and distinguished himself, both by his influence over the other kingdoms§, and by the strict execution of justice in his own dominions. He reclaimed his subjects from the licentious life to which they had been habituated; and it was a common saying, that in his reign a woman or child might openly carry everywhere a purse of gold, without any danger of violence or robbery¶. There is a remarkable

instance, transmitted to us, of the affection borne him by his servants. Cuicheleme, King of Weftex, was his enemy; and finding himself unable to maintain open war against so gallant and powerful a prince, he determined to make use of treachery against him, and he employed one Eumer for that criminal purpose. The assassin, having obtained admittance, by pretending to deliver a message from Cuicheleme, drew his dagger, and rushed upon the King. Lilla, an officer of his army, seeing his master's danger, and having no other means of defence, interposed with his own body between the King and Eumer's dagger, which was thrust with such violence, that, after piercing Lilla, it even wounded Edwin: And before the assassin could renew his blow, he was dispatched by the guards.

The East-Angles conspired against Redwald, their King; and having put him to death, they offered their crown to Edwin, of whose valour and capacity they had had experience, while he resided among them. But Edwin, sensible of gratitude towards his benefactor, obliged them to submit to Earpwold, the son of Redwald; and that prince preferred his authority, tho' on a precarious footing, under the protection of the Northumbrian monarch.

Edwin, after his accession to the crown, married Ethelburga, the daughter of Ethelbert, King of Kent; and this princess, emulating the glory of her mother Bertha, who had been the instrument of converting her husband and his people to Christianity, carried Paulinus a learned bishop along with her; and besides stipulating a toleration for the exercise of her own religion, which was readily granted her, she used every reason to persuade the King to embrace it. Edwin, like a prudent prince, hesitated on the proposal; but promised to examine the foundations of that doctrine; and if he found them satisfactory, he declared himself willing to be converted. Accordingly he held several conferences with Paulinus, canvassed the arguments propounded with the wisest of his counsellors, retired frequently from company, in order to revolve alone that important question; and after a serious and long enquiry, declared in favour of the Christian religion. The people soon after imitated his example. Cosi, the high priest, being converted after a public conference with Paulinus, led the way in destroying the images, which he had so long worshiped, and was forward in making this atonement for his past idolatry.

This able prince perished with his son, Osfrid, in a great battle which he fought against Penda, King of Mercia, and Cadwalla, King of the Britains.

† Gul. Malmes. lib. 1. cap. 3. † H. Hunting, lib. 3.
‡ Bede, lib. 2. cap. 9.
§ Bede, lib. 2. cap. 9. Malmes. lib. 1. cap. 3.
¶ Bede, lib. 2. cap. 13. Brompton, Higden, lib. 5.
That event, which happened in the forty-eighth year of Edwin's age and seventeenth of his reign*, divided the monarchy of Northumberland, which he had united in his person. Eanfrid, the son of Adelfrid, returned with his brothers, Oswald and Osfrid, from Scotland, and took possession of Bernicia, his paternal kingdom: Osric, Edwin's cousin-german, established himself in Deiri, the inheritance of his family; but to which the sons of Edwin had a preferable title. Eadfrid, the eldest surviving son, fled to Penda, by whom he was treacherously slain. The younger son, Vuicfræa, with Yfθ, the grandson of Edwin, by Osfrid, sought protection in Kent, and not finding themselves in safety there, retired into France to King Dagobert, where they died †.

Osric, King of Deiri, and Eanfrid of Bernicia returned to Paganism; and the whole people seem to have returned with them; since Paulinus, who was consecrated first archbishop of York, and who had converted them, thought proper to retire with Ethelburga, the Queen Dowager, into Kent. Both these Northumbrian kings perished soon after, the first in the battle against Cædwalla, the Briton; the second by the treachery of that prince. Oswald the brother of Eanfrid, of the race of Bernicia, united again the kingdom of Northumberland in the year 634, and restored the Christian religion in his dominions. He gained a great and well disputed battle against Cædwalla; the last vigorous effort which the Britains made against the Saxons. Oswald is much celebrated for his sanctity and charity by the monkish historians‡; and they pretend, that his relics wrought miracles, particularly the curing a sick horse, which had approached the place of his interment‖.

He died in battle against Penda, King of Mercia, and was succeeded by his brother, Osfrid; who established himself in the government of all the Northumbrian kingdom by putting to death Oswin, the son of Osric, the last king of the race of Deiri. His son Egfrid succeeded him; who perishing in battle against the Picts, without leaving any children, because Adelthrid his wife refused to violate her vow of chastity *, Alfred, his natural brother, acquired possession of the kingdom, which he happily governed for nineteen years; and he left it to Osred, his son; a boy of eight years of age. This prince, after a reign of eleven years, was murdered by Kenred, his kinsman ¶, who, after enjoying the crown only a year, perished by a like fate. Osric, and after him Celwulph the son of Kenred, next mounted the throne, which the latter relinquished in the

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* W. Malmes. lib. 1. cap. 3. † Bede, lib. 2. cap. 20. ‡ Math. Wesc. p. 115.
lib. 1. cap. 3.
year 738, in favour of Eadbert his cousin-german, who imitating his predecessor, abdicated the crown, and retired into a monastery *. Ofwolf, son of Eadbert, was slain in a sedition, a year after his accession to the crown †; and Mollo, who was not of the royal family, seized the crown. He perished by the treachery of Ailred, a prince of the blood; and Ailred, having succeeded in his design upon the throne, was soon after expelled by his subjects ‡. Ethelred, his successor, the son of Mollo, shared a like fate. Celwold, the next king, the brother of Ailred, was deposed and slain by the people, and his place was filled by Osred, his nephew, who after the short reign of a year, made way for Ethelbert, another son of Mollo, whose death was equally tragical with that of almost all his predecessors. After Ethelbert's death an universal anarchy prevailed in Northumberland ‡; and the people, having, by so many fatal revolutions, lost all attachment to their government and princes, were well prepared for submission to a foreign yoke; which Egbert, King of Wessex, finally imposed upon them.

The Kingdom of East Anglia.

The history of this kingdom contains nothing memorable, except the converting to Christianity Earpwold, the fourth king and great-grandson of Uffa, the founder of the monastery. The authority of Edwin, King of Northumberland, on whom that prince entirely depended, engaged him to take this step: But soon after, his wife, who was an idolatress, brought him back to her religion §; and he was found unable to resist those allurements, which have seduced the wisest of mankind. After his death, which was violent, like that of most of the Saxon princes, who did not early retire into monasteries, Sigebert, his successor and half-brother, who had been educated in France, restored Christianity, and introduced learning among the Angles ‡. Some pretend that he founded the university of Cambridge, or rather some schools in that place. It is almost impossible, and quite needless to be more particular in relating the transactions of the East-Angles. What advantage or entertainment can it give the reader to hear a long bede-reel of barbarous names, Egric, Anna, Ethelbert, Ethelwald, Aldulf, Elfwald, Borne, Ethelred, Ethelbert, who successively murdered, expelled, or inherited from each other, and obscurely filled the throne

* Simeon Dunelm. lib. 2. cap. 1. 3. Chron. Sax. cap. 59. † Simeon Dunelm. lib. 2. cap. 4. ‡ Chron. Sax. p. 61. § W. Malmes. lib. 1. cap. 3. ‡ Bede, lib. 2. cap. 15. Brompt. W. Malmes. lib. 1. cap. 5. H. of Huntingdon says it was Redwald who apostatized, lib. 5. § Bede, lib. 2. cap. 15. lib. 3. cap. 22.
of that kingdom. Ethelbert, the last of these princes, was treacherously murd-
dered by Offa, King of Mercia, in the year 792, and his state was thenceforth united with that of Offa, as we shall relate presently.

The Kingdom of Mercia.

Mercia, the largest, if not the most powerful kingdom of the Heptarchy, comprehended all the middle counties of England; and as its frontiers extended to those of all the other six kingdoms, as well as to Wales, it received its name from that circumstance. Wibba, the son of Crilda, founder of the monarchy, being placed on the throne by Ethelbert, King of Kent, governed his paternal dominions by a very precarious authority; and after his death, Ceorl, his kinsman, was, by the influence of the Kentish monarch, preferred to his son, Penda, whose turbulent disposition appeared dangerous to that prince. Penda was thus fifty years of age before he mounted the throne; and his temerity and martial disposition were found nowhere unabated by time, experience, or reflection. He engaged in continual hostilities against all the neighbouring states; and by his injustice and violence rendered himself equally odious to his own subjects and to strangers. Sigebert, Egfrid, and Annas, three kings of East-Anglia, perished in battle against him; as did also Edwin and Oswald, the two greatest princes, who had filled the throne of Northumberland*. At last, Oswy, brother to Oswald, having defeated him in a great battle, freed the world from this fan-
guinary tyrant†. Peada, his son, obtained the crown of Mercia in 655, and lived under the protection of Oswy, whose daughter he had espoused. This prince was educated in the Christian faith, and she employed her influence with success, in converting her husband and his subjects to that religion‡. Thus the fair sex have had the merit of introducing the Christian doctrine into all the most considerable kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy. Peada died a violent death§. His son, Wolfhere, succeeded to the government, and after having reduced to dependance the kingdoms of Essex, and East-Anglia, he left the crown to his brother, Ethelred, who, tho' a lover of peace, showed himself not unfit for military enterprizes. Besides making a successful expedition into Kent, he repulsed


§ Hugo Candidus, p. 4. says, that he was treacherously murdered by his queen, from whose persuasion he had embraced Christianity; but this account of the matter is found in that historian alone.
Egfrid, King of Northumberland, who had invaded his dominions; and he flew in battle Elfwin, the brother of that prince. Desirous, however, of composing all animosities with Egfrid, he payed him a sum of money, as a compensation for the loss of his brother. After a prosperous reign of thirty years, he resigned the crown to Kendred, son of Wolfhere, and retired into the monastery of Bardney. Kendred returned the present of the crown to Ceolred, the son of Ethelred; and making a pilgrimage to Rome, passed his life there in penance and devotion. The place of Ceolred was supplied by Ethelbald, great-grandnephew to Penda by Alwy, his brother; and this prince, being slain in a mutiny, was succeeded by Offa, who was a degree more remote from Penda, by Eawa, another brother.

This prince, who mounted the throne in 755, had some great qualities, and was successful in his warlike enterprises against Lothaire, King of Kent, and Kenwulph, King of Wessex. He defeated the former in a bloody battle at Otford upon the Darent, and reduced his kingdom to a state of dependence: He gained a victory over the latter at Benstington in Oxfordshire; and conquering that county, together with that of Gloucester, annexed it to his other dominions. But all these successes were stained by his treacherous murder of Ethelbert, King of the East-Angles, and his violent seizure of that kingdom. This young prince, who is said to have possessed great merit, had made suit to Elfrida, the daughter of Offa, and was invited with all his retinue to Hereford, in order to solemnize the nuptials. Amidst the joy and festivity of these entertainments, he was seized by Offa, and secretly beheaded: And tho' Elfrida, who abhorred her father's treachery, had time to give warning to the East-Anglian nobility, who escaped into their own country, Offa, having extinguished the royal family, succeeded in his project of subduing that country. The treacherous prince, desirous of re-establishing his character in the world, and perhaps of appeasing the remorses of his own conscience, payed great court to the clergy, and practised all the Monkish devotions, which were so much esteemed in that ignorant and superstitious age. He gave the tenth of all his goods to the church; bestowed rich donations on the Cathedral of Hereford; and even made a pilgrimage to Rome, where his great power and riches could not fail of procuring him the papal absolution. The better to ingratiate himself with the sovereign pontiff, he engaged to pay him from his kingdom a yearly donation for the support of an English college at Rome, and

in order to raise the sum, he imposed a tax of a penny on each house possessed of thirty pence a year. This imposition, being afterwards levied from all England, was commonly denominated Peter's pence*; and tho' conferred at first as a gift, was afterwards pretended to be a tribute by the Roman pontiff. Carrying his hypocrisy still farther, Offa, feigning to be directed by visions from heaven, found out at Verulam, the relics of St. Alban, the martyr, and endowed a magnificent monastery in that place †. Moved by all these acts of piety, Malmesbury, one of the best of the old English historians, declares himself at a loss to determine ‡ whether the merits or crimes of this prince preponderated. Offa died, after a reign of thirty-nine years, in 794. This prince was become so considerable in the Heptarchy, that the Emperor Charlemagne entered into an alliance and friendship with him; a circumstance, which did him honour; as distant princes then had very little communication with each other. That emperor being a great lover of learning and learned men, in an age which was very barren of that ornament, Offa, at his desire, sent him over Alcuin, a clergyman, much celebrated for his knowledge, who received great honours from Charlemagne, and even became his preceptor in the sciences. The chief reason, why he had at first desired the company of Alcuin, was that he might oppose his learning to the heresy of Felix, bishop of Urgel in Catalonia, who maintained, that Jesus Christ, considered in his human nature, could more properly be denominated the adoptive than the natural son of God §. This heresy was condemned in the council of Francfort, held in 794, and consisting of 300 bishops. Such were the questions which were agitated in that age, and which employed the attention, not only of cloistered scholars, but of the wisest and greatest princes. Egfrith succeeded to his father, Offa, but survived him only five months*; when he made way for Kenulph, a descendant of the royal family. This prince waged war against Kent; and taking Egbert, the King, prisoner, he cut off his hands, and put out his eyes; leaving Cuthred, his own brother, in possession of the crown of that kingdom. Kenulph was killed in an insurrection of the East Anglians, whose crown his predecessor, Offa, had usurped. He left his son, Kenelm, a minor; who was murdered the same year by his sister, Qpendrade, who had entertained the ambitious views of assuming the government †. But

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* Higden, lib. 5. † Ingulph. p. 4. W. Malmesb. lib. i. cap. 4. ‡ Lib. i. cap. 4. ¶ Dupin. cent. 2. chap. 4.
† Offa, in order to protect his country from Wales, drew a rampart or ditch of a hundred miles in length, from Bañanwerke in Flintshire to the South-sea near Bristol. See Speed's Description of Wales.
Chap. I. She was supplanted by her uncle, Ceolulf, who two years after, was dethroned by Beornulf. The reign of this usurper, who was not of the royal family, was short and unfortunate: He was defeated by the West-Saxons, and killed by his own subjects, the East-Angles*. Ludican, his successor, underwent the same fate †; and Wiglaff, who mounted this unstable throne, and found every thing in the utmost confusion, could not withstand the fortune of Egbert, who united all the Saxon kingdoms into one great monarchy.

The Kingdom of Essex.

This kingdom made no great figure in the Heptarchy; and the history of it is very imperfect. Sleda succeeded his father, Erkenwin, the founder of the monarchy; and made way for his son, Sebert, who, being nephew to Ethelbert, King of Kent, was persuaded by that prince to embrace the christian religion ‡. His sons and conjunct successors, Sexted and Seward, relapsed into idolatry, and were soon after slain in a battle against the West-Saxons. To shew the rude manner of living in that age; Bede tells us §, that these two kings expressed a great desire to eat the white bread, distributed by Mellitus, the bishop, at the communion $. But on his refusing them, unless they would submit to be baptized, they expelled him their dominions. The other princes names, who reigned successively in Essex, are Sigebert the little, Sigebert the good, who restored christianity, Swithelm, Sigeri, Offa.

The history of this kingdom, the smallest in the Heptarchy, is still more imperfect than that of Essex. Ella, the founder of the monarchy, left

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the crown to his son, Cillæ, who is remarkable chiefly for his long reign of sev­enty-six years. During his time, the South-Saxons fell almost into a total de­pendance on the kingdom of Wessex; and we scarce know the names of the kings, who were possessed of this titular sovereignty. Adelwalch, the last of them, was subdued in battle by Ceadwalla, King of Wessex, and was slain in the action; leaving two infant sons, who, falling into the hand of the conqueror, were murdered by him. The abbot of Redford opposed the order for this barbarous execution; but could prevail on Ceadwalla only to suspend it, till they should be baptized. Beræthun and Audhun, two noblemen of character, resisted some time the dominion of the West-Saxons; but their opposition served only to pro­long the miseries of their country; and the subduing this kingdom, was the first step, which the West-Saxons made towards acquiring the sole monarchy of England.*

The Kingdom of WESSEX.

THE kingdom of Wessex, which finally swallowed up all the other Saxon states, met with great resistance on its first establishment; and the Britains, who were now enured to arms, yielded not tamely their possessions to these invaders. Cerdic, the founder of the monarchy, and his son, Kenric, fought many successful, and some unsuccessful battles, against the natives; and the martial spirit, common to all the Saxons, was by means of these hostilities, carried to the greatest height among this tribe. Ceaulin, the son and successor of Kenric, who began his reign in 560, was even more ambitious and enterprising than his predecessors; and by waging continual war against the Britains, he added a great part of the counties of Devon and Somerset to his other dominions. Carried away by the tide of success he invaded the other Saxon states in his neighbourhood, and becoming terrible to all, he provoked a general confederacy against him. This alliance proved successful under the con­duct of Ethelbert, King of Kent; and Ceaulin who had lost the affections of his own subjects by his violent disposition, and had now fallen into contempt from his misfortunes, was expelled the throne †, and died in exile and misery. Cui­chelme and Cuthwin, his sons, governed jointly the kingdom till the expulsion of the latter in 591, and the death of the former in 593, made way for Cealric, to whom succeeded Ceobald in 593, by whose death, which happened in 611, Kynegils inherited the crown. This prince embraced Christianity ‡, thro' the
HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

Chap. 1. persuasion of Oswald, King of Northumberland, who had married his daughter, and who had attained a great ascendant in the heptarchy. Kenwalch next succeeded to the monarchy, and dying in 672, left the succession so much disputed, that Sexburga, his widow, a woman of great merit *, kept possession of the government till her death, which happened two years after. Efwine then peaceably acquired the crown; and after a short reign of two years, made way for Kentwine, who governed nine years. Ceodwalla, his successor, mounted not the throne without opposition; but proved a great prince, according to the ideas of those times; that is, he was enterprising, warlike, and successful. He subdued entirely the kingdom of Suffex, and annexed it to his own dominions. He made deep impressions upon Kent; but met with resistance from Widred, the King, who proved successful against Mollo, brother to Ceodwalla, and slew him in a skirmish †. Ceodwalla at last, tired with wars and bloodshed, was seized with a fit of devotion; bestowed several endowments on the church, and made a pilgrimage to Rome, where he received baptism, and died in 689 ‡. Ina, his successor, inherited the military virtues of Ceodwalla, and added to them the more valuable ones of justice, policy, and prudence §. He made war upon the Britains in Somerfet; and having finally subdued that province, he treated the vanquished with an humanity, hitherto unknown to the Saxon conquerors. He allowed the proprietors to retain possession of their lands $, encouraged marriages and alliances between them and his antient subjects ‡, and gave them the privilege of being governed by the same laws. These laws he augmented and altered *; and though he was disturbed by some insurrections at home, his long reign of thirty-seven years may be regarded as one of the most glorious and most prosperous of the heptarchy. In the decline of his age, he made a pilgrimage to Rome; and on his return home, he shut himself up in a cloyster, where he died †.

Tho' the Kings of Wexex had always been princes of the blood, descended from Cerdic, the founder of the monarchy, the order of succession had been far from exact; and a more remote prince had often found means to mount the throne, in preference to one descended from a nearer branch of the royal family. Ina, therefore, having no children of his own, and lying much under the influence

fluence of Ethelburga, his Queen, left by will the succession to Adelard, her brother, who was his remote kinsman*: But this destination took not place without some difficulty. Oswald, a prince more nearly allied to the crown, took arms against Adelard †; but he being suppressed, and dying soon after, the title of Adelard was not any farther disputed; and in the year 741, he was succeeded by his cousin, Cudred ‡. The reign of this prince was distinguished by a great victory, which he obtained, by the means of Edelhun, his general, over Ethelbald, King of Mercia §. His death made way for Sigebert, his kinsman, who governed so ill, that his people rose in an insurrection, and deposed him †; crowning Cenulph in his stead. The exiled prince found a refuge with duke Cumbran, governor of Hampshire; who, that he might add to his other kindness towards Sigebert, gave him many salutary counsels for his future conduct, accompanied with some reproofs for the past. But these were so much resented by the ungrateful prince, that he confpired against the life of his protector, and treacherously murdered him. After this infamous action, he was forsaken by every body; and skulking about in the wilds and forests, was at last discovered by a servant of Cumbran, who instantly took revenge upon him for the death of his master ‡.

Cenulph, who had obtained the crown on the expulsion of Sigebert, was fortunate in many expeditions against the Britains of Cornwall; but afterwards lost some reputation by his ill successes against Offa, King of Mercia*. Kynehard also, brother to the deposed Sigebert, gave him disturbance; and tho' expelled the kingdom, he hovered on the frontiers, and waited an opportunity of attacking his rival. The King had an intrigue with a young woman, who lived at Merton in Surrey †; whither having secretly retired, he was on a sudden invironed, in the night-time, by Kynehard and his followers, and after making a vigorous resistance, was murdered, with all his attendants. The people and nobility of the neighbourhood, rising next day in arms, took revenge on Kynehard for the slaughter of their King, and put every one to the sword, who had been engaged in that criminal enterprise‡. This event happened in 784.

Britric next obtained possession of the government, tho' very remotely descended from the royal family; but enjoyed not that dignity without inquietude. Eoppa, nephew to King Ina, by his brother Ingild, who died before that prince,
Chap. I. begot Eata, father to Alchmond, from whom sprung Egbert*, a young prince of the most promising hopes, who gave great jealousy to Brithric, the present King, both because he seemed by his birth better intituled to the crown, and because he had acquired, to an eminent degree, the affections of the people. Egbert, sensible of his danger from the suspicions of Brithric, withdrew secretly into France†; where he was well received by Charlemagne, the present monarch. By living in the court, and serving in the armies of that prince, the most able and most generous who had appeared in Europe during several ages, he acquired those accomplishments, which afterwards enabled him to make such a shining figure on the throne; and familiarizing himself to the manners of the French, who, as Malmesbury observes ‡, were eminent both for valor and civility, above all the western nations, he learned to polish the rudeness and barbarity of the Saxon character: And his early misfortunes proved thus of infinite advantage to him.

It was not long before Egbert had opportunities of displaying his natural and acquired talents. Brithric, King of Wessex, had married Eadburga, natural daughter of Offa, King of Mercia, a profligate woman, equally infamous for cruelty and for incontinence. Having great influence over her husband, she often incited him to destroy such of the nobility as were obnoxious to her; and where this expedient failed her, she scrupled not being herself active in traitorous attempts upon their life. She had mixed a cup of poison for a young nobleman, who had acquired her husband's friendship, and had on that account become the object of her jealousy: But unfortunately, the King drank of the fatal cup along with his favourite, and soon after expired §. This event, joined to her other crimes, rendered Eadburga so odious, that she was obliged to fly into France; whence Egbert was at the same time recalled by the nobility, in order to ascend the throne of his ancestors ¶. He attained that dignity in the last year of the eighth century.

In all the kingdoms of the heptarchy, an exact rule of succession was either unknown or not strictly observed; and thence the reigning prince was continually agitated with jealousy against all the princes of the blood, whom he still considered as rivals, and whose death alone could give him entire security in his possession of the throne. From this fatal cause, together with the admiration of the monastic life, and the opinion of merit, attending the preservation of chastity

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* Chron. Sax. p. 16. † H. Hunting. lib. 4. ‡ Lib. 2. cap. 11.  
even in a married state, the royal families had been entirely extinguished in all the kingdoms except that of Wessex; and the emulations, suspicions, and conspiracies, which had formerly been confined to the princes of the blood alone, were now diffused among all the nobility in the several Saxon states. Egbert was the sole descendant of those first conquerors who subdued Britain, and who enhanced their authority by claiming a pedigree from Woden, the supreme divinity of their ancestors. But that prince, tho' invited by this favourable circumstance to make attempts on the neighbouring Saxons, gave them for some time no disturbance, and rather chose to turn his arms against the Britains in Cornwall, whom he defeated in several battles *. He was recalled from the conquest of that country by an inroad made into his dominions by Bernulf, King of Mercia.

The Mercians, before the accession of Egbert, had very nearly attained the absolute sovereignty over the heptarchy: They had reduced the East-Angles under subjection, and established tributary princes in the Kingdoms of Kent and Essex. Northumberland was involved in anarchy; and no state of any consequence remained but that of Wessex, which, much inferior in extent to Mercia, was supported by the great qualities of its sovereign alone. Egbert led his army against the invaders; and encountering them at Elandun in Wiltshire, obtained a complete victory, and by the slaughter executed on them in their flight, gave a mortal blow to the power of the Mercians. Whilst he himself, in prosecution of his victory, entered their country on the side of Oxfordshire, and threatened the heart of their dominions; he sent an army into Kent, commanded by Ethelwolph, his eldest son †; and expelling Baldred, the tributary King, soon made himself master of that country. The kingdom of Essex was conquered with equal facility; and the East-Angles, from their hatred to the Mercian government, which had been established over them by treachery and violence, and probably exercised with tyranny, immediately rose in arms, and craved the protection of Egbert ‡. Bernulf, the Mercian King, who marched against them, was defeated and slain; and two years after, Ludecan, his successor, met with the same fate. These insurrections and calamities facilitated the enterprizes of Egbert, who advanced into the heart of the Mercian territories, and made easy conquests over a disheartened and divided people. In order to engage them more easily to submission, he allowed Wiglef, their countryman, to retain the title of King, whilst he himself exercised the real powers of sovereignty.† The anarchy, which prevailed in Northumberland, tempted him to carry still

* Chron. Sax. p. 69. † Ethelwerd, lib. 3. cap. 2. ‡ Ethelwerd, lib. 3. cap. 3. ‡ Ingulph, p. 7, 8, 10.
farther his victorious arms; and the inhabitants, unable to resist his power, and
defierous of possessing some established form of government, were forward, on his
first appearance, to send deputies, who submitted to his authority, and expressed
their allegiance to him as their sovereign. Egbert, however, still allowed to
Northumberland, as he had done to Mercia and East-Anglia, the power of electing
a King, who paid him tribute, and was dependent on him.

Thus were united all the kingdoms of the heptarchy in one great state, near
four hundred years after the first arrival of the Saxons in Britain; and the for­
tunate arms and prudent policy of Egbert at last effectuated what had been so
often attempted in vain by so many princes *. Kent, Northumberland, and
Mercia, which had successively aspired to general dominion, were now incorpo­
rated in his empire; and the other subordinate kingdoms seemed willingly to
share the same fate. His territories were nearly of the same extent with what is
now properly denominated England; and a favourable prospect was afforded the
Anglo-Saxons, of establishing a civilized monarchy, possessed of tranquillity
within itself, and secure against foreign invasion. This great event happened in
the year 827 †.

The Saxons, tho’ they had been so long settled in the island, seem not as yet
to have been much improved beyond their German ancestors, either in arts, ci­
vility, knowledge, humanity, justice, or obedience to the laws. Even Chris­
tianity, tho’, among other advantages, it opened the way to connexions between them
and the more polished states of Europe, had not hitherto been very effectual, in ban­
nishing their ignorance, or softening their barbarous manners. As they received
that doctrine thro’ the corrupted channels of Rome, which had strongly tinctured
the original purity of the Christian faith, it carried along with it a great mixture
of credulity and superstiti on, equally destructive to the understanding and to morals. The reverence towards saints and relics seems to have almost supplanted
the adoration of the Supreme Being: Monastic observances were esteemed more
meritorious than the active virtues: The knowledge of natural causes was ne­
glected from the universal belief of miraculous interpositions and judgments:
Bounty to the church atoned for all violence against society: And the remorsees
for cruelty, murder, treachery, assassination, and the more robust vices, were
appeased, not by amendment of life, but by penances, servility to the monks,
and an abject and illiberal devotion ‡. The reverence for the clergy had mounts­
ed.

† Ibid.
‡ These abuses were common to all the European churches; but the priests in Italy, Spain, and
Gaul, made some atonement for them by other advantages, which they rendered society. For several
ages,
ed so high, that wherever a person appeared in a clerical habit, tho' on the high-way, the people flocked around him; and showing him all marks of profound respect, received every word he uttered as the most sacred oracles.

Even the military virtues, so inherent in all the Saxon tribes, began to be neglected; and the nobility, preferring the security and sloth of the cloyster to the tumults and glory of war, valued themselves chiefly on the endowment of monasteries, of which they assumed the government. The crown too, being extremely impoverished by continual benefactions to the church, to which the states of the kingdom weakly consented, could bestow no rewards on valour or military services, and retained not even sufficient influence to support the government.

Another inconvenience, which attended this corrupt species of Chrifitianity, was the superstitious attachment to Rome, and the gradual subjection of the kingdom to a foreign jurisdiction. The Britains had never acknowledged any subordination to the Roman pontiff, and had conducted all eccleiaftical government by their domestic synods and councils. But the Saxons, receiving their religion from Roman monks, were taught at the same time a profound reverence to that see, and were naturally led to regard it as the capital of their religion. Pilgrimages to Rome were represent'd as the most meritorious acts of devotion. Not only noblemen and ladies of rank undertook this tedious journey; but Kings themselves, abdicating their crowns, sought for a secure passport to heaven at the feet of the Roman pontiff. New relicks, continually sent from that endless mint of superflition, and magnified by the lying miracles, invented in convents, operated on the astonifh'd minds of the multitude: And every prince attained the eulogies of the monks, the only historians of those ages, not in proportion to his civil and military virtues, but to his devoted attachment towards their order, and his superstitious reverence for Rome.

The sovereign pontiff, encouraged by this blindness and submissive disposition of the people, advanced every day in his enterprizes on the independance of the English churches. Wilfrid, bishop of Lindisferne, the sole prelate of the Northumbrian kingdom, gave the finishing stroke to this subjection in the eighth century, by his making an appeal to Rome against the decisions of an English synages, they were almost all Romans, or, in other words, the antient natives; and they preferred the Roman language and laws, with some remains of the former civility. But the priests in the heptarchy, after the first missionaries, were wholly Saxon, and almost as ignorant and barbarous as the laity. They contributed, therefore, little to the improvement of the society in knowledge or the arts.

* Bede, lib. 3. cap. 26. † Bede, lib. 5. cap. 23. Epiftola Bedæ ad Egbert.
HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

Chap. I. nod, which had abridged his diocese by the erection of some new bishoprics *
Agatho, the Pope, readily embraced this precedent of an appeal to his court; and Wilfrid, though the haughtiest and most luxurious prelate of his age †, having obtained with the people the character of sanctity, finally prevailed in the contest. The great topic, by which he confounded the imaginations of men, was, that St. Peter, to whose custody the keys of heaven were entrusted, would certainly refuse admittance to every one who had been wanting in respect to his successor. This conceit, well calculated for vulgar conceptions, had a powerful operation on the people during several ages; and has not even at present lost all influence in the catholic countries.

Had this abject superstition produced general peace and tranquillity, it had made some atonement for the ills attending it; but, added to the usual avidity of men for power and riches, it engendered frivolous controversies in theology, which were so much the more fatal, as they admitted not, like the others, of any final determination from established possession. The disputes, excited in Britain, were of the most ridiculous kind, and entirely worthy of those ignorant and barbarous ages. There were some intricacies, observed by all the Christian churches, in adjusting the day of keeping Easter; which depended on a complicated consideration of the course of the sun and moon: And it happened that the missionaries, who had converted the Scots and Britains, had followed a different calendar from what was observed at Rome in the age when Augustine converted the Saxons. The priests also of all the Christian churches were accustomed to shave part of their head; but the form given to this tonsure, was different in the former from what was practiced in the latter. The Scots and Britains pleaded the antiquity of their usages: The Romans, and their disciples, the Saxons, insisted on the universality of theirs. That Easter must necessarily be kept by a rule, which comprehended both the day of the year, and age of the moon, was agreed by all; that the shaving of a priest could not be omitted without the utmost impiety, was a point undisputed: But the Romans and Saxons called their antagonists schismatics; because they celebrated Easter on the very day of the full moon in March, if that day fell on a Sunday, instead of waiting till the Sunday following; and because they shaved their whole forehead from ear to ear, instead of making that tonsure on the crown of the head, and in a circular form. In order to render their antagonists odious, they affirmed, that once in seven years they concurred with the Jews in the time of celebrating that festival ‡: And that

† Eddins vita Wilfr. § 24, 60.
‡ Bede, lib. z. cap. 19.
they might recommend their own form of tonsure, they maintained, that it imitated symbolically the crown of thorns worn by our Saviour in his passion; whereas the latter was invented by Simon Magus, without any regard to that consideration *. These controversies had from the beginning excited such animosity between the British and Roman priests, that, instead of concurring in their endeavours to convert the idolatrous Saxons, they refused all communion together, and each regarded his opponent as no better than a Pagan †. The dispute lasted more than a century; and was at last finished, not by men perceiving the folly of it, which would have been too great an effort for human reason to accomplish, but by the entire victory of the Roman ritual over the Scots and British ‡. Wilfrid, bishop of Lindisfarne, acquired great merit, both with the court of Rome and with all the southern Saxons, by expelling the quartodecimists, as it was called, from the Northumbrian kingdom, into which the neighbourhood of the Scots had formerly introduced it §.

Theodore, archbishop of Canterbury, called, in the year 680, a synod at Hatfield, consisting of all the bishops in Britain §; where was accepted and ratified the decree of the Lateran council, summoned by Martin the first against the heresy of the Monothelites. The council and synod maintained, in opposition to these heretics, that tho' the divine and the human nature of Christ made but one person; yet had they still different inclinations, wills, acts, and sentiments, and that the unity of the person implied not any unity in the consciousness †. This opinion it seems somewhat difficult to comprehend; and no one, unacquainted with the ecclesiastical history of those ages, could imagine the height of zeal and violence with which it was then inculcated. The decree of the Lateran council calls the Monothelites impious, execrable, wicked, abominable, and even diabolical; and curseth and anathematizes them to all eternity *.

The Saxons, from the first introduction of Christianity among them, had admitted the use of images; and perhaps, Christianity, without some of those exterior ornaments, had not made so quick a progress with these idolaters: But they had not paid any species of worship or address to images; and this abuse never prevailed among Christians, till it received the sanction of the second council of Nice.

THE kingdoms of the Heptarchy, tho' united by so recent a conquest, seemed be strongly cemented into one state under Egbert; and the inhabitants of the several provinces had lost all desire of revolting from that conqueror, or of restoring their independent governments. Their language was everywhere nearly the same; their customs, laws, institutions civil and religious; and as the race of their antient kings was totally extinct in all their Subjected states, the people readily transferred their allegiance to a prince, who seemed to merit it by the splendor of his victories, the vigour of his administration, and the superior nobility of his birth. An union also in government opened to them the agreeable prospect of future tranquility; and it appeared more probable, that they would thenceforth become terrible to their neighbours, than be exposed to their inroads and devastations. But these flattering views were soon overcast: by the appearance of the Danes, who, during some centuries, kept the Anglo-Saxons in perpetual inquietude, committed the most barbarous ravages upon them, and at last reduced them to the most grievous servitude.

The emperor Charlemagne, tho' naturally generous and humane, had been induced by bigotry to exercise great severities against the pagan Saxons in Germany, whom he subdued; and besides often ravaging their country by fire and sword, he had in cold blood decimated all the inhabitants for their revolts, and had obliged them, by the most rigorous edicts, to make a seeming compliance with the Christian doctrine. That religion, which had easily made its way among the British Saxons by insinuation and address, appeared shocking to their German brethren, when imposed on them by the violence of Charlemagne; and the most generous and warlike of these pagans had fled northward into Jutland, in order to escape the fury of his persecutions. Meeting there with a people of similar manners, they were readily received among them; and they soon stimulated
lated the natives to concur in enterprizes, which both promised revenge on the haughty conquerors, and afforded subsistence to those numerous inhabitants, with which the northern countries were now overburthened*. They invaded the provinces of France, which were exposed by the degeneracy and diffusions of Charlemagne’s posterity; and being known there under the general name of Normans, which they received from their northern situation, they became the terror of all the maritime and even of the inland countries. They were also tempted to visit England in their frequent excursions; and being able by sudden inroads to make great progress over a people, who were not defended by any naval force, who had relaxed their military institutions, and who were sunk into a superstition, which had become odious to the Danes and antient Saxons, they made no distinction in their hostilities between the French and English kingdoms. Their first appearance in this island was in the year 787†, when Brithric reigned in Wessex. A small body of them landed in that kingdom, with a view of learning the state of the country; and when the magistrate of the place questioned them concerning the reason of their enterprize, and cited them to appear before the king, and account for their intentions, they killed him, and flying to their ships, escaped into their own country. The next alarm was given to Northumberland in the year 794‡; when a body of these pyrates pillaged a monastery, but their ships being much damaged by a storm, and their leader slain in a skirmish, they were at last defeated by the inhabitants, and the remainder of them put to the sword. Five years after Egbert had established his monarchy over England, the Danes landed in the Isle of Shepey, and having pillaged it, escaped with impunity §. They were not so fortunate in their next year’s enterprize, when they disembarked from thirty-five ships, and were encountered by Egbert, at Charmouth in Dorsetshire. The battle was bloody; but tho’ the Danes lost great numbers, they maintained the post, which they had taken, and made good their retreat to their ships $. Having learned by experience that they must expect a vigorous resistance from this warlike prince, they entered into an alliance with the Britains of Cornwall; and landing two years after in that country, made an inroad with their confederates into the county of Devon; but were met at Hengesdown by Egbert, and totally defeated ¶. While England remained in this state of inquietude, and defended itself more by temporary expedients than by any regular plan of administration, Egbert, who alone was capable of providing effectually against this new evil, unfortunately died; and left the government to his son, Ethelwolf.


E T H E L W O F.
HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

ETHEL WOLF.

CHAP. II. 838.

This prince had neither the abilities nor vigour of his father; and was better qualified for governing a convent than a kingdom. He began his reign with dividing his dominions, and delivering over to his eldest son, Athelstan, the new conquered provinces of Essex, Kent and Suffolk. But no inconveniences seem to have arisen from this partition; as the continual terror of the Danish invasions prevented all domestic diffusion. A fleet of these ravagers, consisting of thirty-three sail, appeared at Southampton; but were repulsed with great loss by Wulfhere, governor of the neighbouring county. The same year Æthelhelm, assisted by the inhabitants of Dorsetshire, routed another band which had disembarked at Portsmouth; but he obtained the victory after a furious engagement, and he bought it with the loss of his life. Next year, the Danes made several inroads into England; and fought battles, or rather skirmishes, in East Anglia and Lindsey and Kent; where, tho' they were sometimes repulsed and defeated, they always obtained their end of committing spoil upon the country, and carrying off their booty. They avoided coming to a general engagement, which was not suited to their plan of operations. Their vessels were small, and ran easily up the creeks and rivers; where they drew them ashore, and having formed an intrenchment around them, which they guarded with part of their number, they scattered themselves everywhere, and carrying off the inhabitants, and cattle, and goods, they hastened to their ships, and suddenly disappeared. If the military force of the county was assembled (for there was no time for troops to march from a distance) the Danes either were able to repulse them and to continue their ravages with impunity, or they betook themselves to their vessels; and setting sail, invaded suddenly some distant quarter, which was not prepared for their reception. Every part of England was held in continual alarm; and the inhabitants of one county dared not to give assistance to those of another, left their own family and property should in the mean time be exposed by their absence to the fury of these barbarous ravagers. All orders of men were involved in this ruin; and the priests and monks, who had been commonly spared in the domestic quarrels of the Heptarchy, were the chief objects on which the Danish idolaters exercised their rage and animosity. Every season of the year was dangerous; and no man could esteem himself a moment in safety, because of the absence of the enemy.

* W. Malm. lib. 2. cap. 2.  † W. Malm. lib. 2. cap. 2.  Æthelwed, lib. 3. cap. 3.

THESE
These incursions had now become almost annual; when the Danes, encouraged by their successes against France as well as England (for both kingdoms were alike exposed to this dreadful calamity) invaded the last in so numerous a body, as seemed to threaten it with universal subjection. But the English, more military than the Britains, whom, a few centuries before, they had treated with like violence, roused themselves with a vigour proportioned to the exigency. Ceorle, governor of Devonshire, fought a battle with one body of the Danes at Wiganburgh *, and put them to rout with great slaughter. King Athelfax attacked another at sea near Sandwich, sunk nine of their ships, and put the rest to flight †. A body of them, however, ventured, for the first time, to take up winter quarters in England; and receiving in the spring a strong reinforcement of their countrymen in 350 vessels, they advanced from the Isle of Thanet, where they had stationed themselves; burnt the cities of London ‡ and Canterbury; and having put to flight Brictric, who now governed Mercia, under the title of King, they marched into the heart of Surrey, and laid every place waste around them §. Ethelwolf, excited by the urgency of the danger, marched against them, at the head of the West-Saxons; and carrying with him his second son, Ethelbald, gave them battle at Okeley, and gained a very bloody victory over them †. This advantage procured but a short reprieve to the English. The Danes still maintained their settlement in the Isle of Thanet; and being attacked by Ealher and Huda, governors of Kent and Surrey, tho' defeated in the beginning of the action, they finally repulsed the assailants, and killed both the governors ‡. They removed thence to the Isle of Shepey; where they took up their winter quarters, that they might extend farther their devastation and ravages.

This unsettled state of England hindered not Ethelwolf from making a pilgrimage to Rome; whither he carried his fourth, and favourite son, Alfred, then only six years of age *. He passed there a twelvemonth in exercises of devotion; and failed not in that most essential part of devotion, liberality to the church of Rome. Besides giving presents to the most distinguished ecclesiastics; he made a perpetual grant of three hundred mancuses † a year to that see; one third to support the lamps of St. Peters, another those of St. Pauls, and a third to the

* H. Hunt. lib. 3. Ethelwul. lib. 3. cap. 3. Simeon Dunelm. p. 120.
† Chron. Sax. p. 74. Asserius, p. 2. ‡ W. Malm. l. b. 2. cap. 2.
‡ Chron. Sax. p. 76. Asserius, p. 2. Simeon Dun. p. 120.
† A mancus was about the weight of our present half crown: See Spelman's Glossary, in

vol. i.
In his return home, he married Judith, daughter to the emperor, Charles the Bald; but on his landing in England, he met with an opposition, which he little looked for.

His eldest son, Athelfstan, being dead; Ethelwald, the second, who had assumed the government, formed, in conjunction with many of the nobles, the project of excluding his father from a throne, which his weaknesses and superstition seem to have rendered him so ill qualified to fill. The people were divided between the two princes; and a bloody civil war, joined to all the other calamities under which the English laboured, appeared unavoidable. When Ethelwald had the facility to yield to the greatest part of his son's pretensions, he made with him a partition of the kingdom; and taking to himself the eastern part, which was always at that time esteemed the least considerable, as well as the most exposed, he delivered over to Ethelwald the sovereignty of the western. And immediately after, he summoned the states of the whole kingdom, and with the same facility, conferred a perpetual and very important donation on the church.

The ecclesiastics, in those days of ignorance, made very rapid advances in the acquisition of power and grandeur; and inculcating the most absurd and most interested doctrines, tho' they met sometimes, from the contrary interests of the laity, with an opposition, which it required time and address to overcome, they found no obstacle in their reason or understanding. Not content with the donations of land made them by the Saxon princes and nobles, and with the temporary oblations from the devotion of the people, they had cast a selfish eye on a vast revenue, which they claimed as belonging to them by a divine, indefeasable and inherent title. However little versed in the scriptures, they had been able to discover, that the priests, under the Jewish law, possessed a tenth of all the produce of land; and forgetting, what they themselves taught, that the moral part only of that law was obligatory on Christians, they insisted, that this donation was a perpetual property, conferred by heaven on those who officiated at the altar. During some centuries, the whole scope of sermons and homilies was directed to this purpose; and one would have imagined, from the general tenor of these discourses, that all the practical parts of Christianity were comprehended in the exact and faithful payment of tythes to the clergy. Encouraged by their

Ethelward, lib. 3. cap. 3. Simeon Dunelm. p. 140.
† W. Malm. lib. 2. cap. 2. ‖ Flor. Wigorn. p. 583.

success
success in inculcating these doctrines; they ventured farther than they were warranted even by the Levitical law, and pretended to draw the tenth of all industry, merchandize, wages of labourers, and pay of soldiers; nay, some canonists went so far as to affirm, that the clergy were entitled to the tythe of the profits, made by courtezans in the exercise of their profession.Tho’ parishes had been instituted in England by Honorius, archbishop of Canterbury, near two centuries before, the ecclesiastics had never yet been able to get possession of the tythes; and they therefore seized the present favourable opportunity of making that acquisition; when a weak, superstitious prince was on the throne, and when the people, discouraged by their losses from the Danes, and terrified with the fear of future invasions, were susceptible of any impression, which bore the appearance of religion. So meritorious was this concession deemed by the English, that, trusting entirely to supernatural assistances, they neglected the ordinary means of safety; and agreed, even in the present desperate extremity, that the revenue of the church should be exempted from all burthens, tho’ imposed for national defence and security.

ETHELBALD and ETHELBERT.

ETHEL WOLF lived only two years after making this grant; and by his will left England shared between his two eldest sons, Ethelbald and Ethelbert; the west lying under the government of the former; the east under that of the latter. Ethelbald was a profligate prince; and marrying Judith, his mother-in-law, gave great offence to the people; but moved by the remonstrances of Swithun, bishop of Winchester, he was at last prevailed on to divorce her. His reign was short; and Ethelbert, his brother, succeeding to the government, behaved himself, during a five years reign, in a manner more worthy of his birth and station. The kingdom, however, was still infested by the Danes, who made an inroad and sacked Winchester; but were there defeated. A body also, of these pirates, who were quartered on the isle of Thanet, having deceived the English by a treaty, unexpectedly broke into Kent, and committed great outrages.

* Spell. Conc. vol. i. p. 268. † Padre Paolo, p. 152. ‡ Parker, p. 77.
† H. Hunt. lib. 5. * W. Malm. lib. 2. cap. 3. Inguif, p. 17.
† Chron. Sax. p. 77. † W. Malm. lib. 2. cap. 3. Ethelweard, lib. 4. cap. 1.
ETHERED.

Chap. II.

ETHELBERT was succeeded by his brother, Ethered, who, tho' he defended himself with bravery, enjoyed, during his whole reign, no tranquillity from these Danifh irruptions. His younger brother, Alfred, seconded him in all his enterprizes; and generously sacrificed to the public good all resentment, which he might entertain, on account of his being excluded by Ethered from a large patrimony, which had been left him by his father.

The first landing of the Danes in the reign of Ethered was among the East-Angles, who, more anxious for their present interest than for the common safety, entered into a separate treaty with the enemy; and furnished them with horses, which enabled them to make an irruption by land into the kingdom of Northumberland*. They there seized the city of York; and defended it against Oifricht, and Ella, two Northumbrian princes, who perished in the assault†. Encouraged by these successes, and by the superiority, which they had acquired in arms, they now ventured, under the command of Hinguar and Hubba, their chieftains, to leave the sea-coast, and penetrating into Mercia, they took up their winter quarters at Nottingham, where they threatened the kingdom with a final subjection. The Mercians applied to Ethered for succour in this extremity; and that prince, with his brother, Alfred, conducting a great army to Nottingham, obliged the enemy to dilodge from this post, and to retreat into Northumberland‡. Their restless disposition and their avidity for plunder allowed them not to remain long in these quarters: They broke into East-Anglia, defeated and took prisoner, Edmund, the King of that country, whom they afterwards cruelly murdered in cold blood§; and committing the most barbarous ravages on the people, particularly on the monasteries‖, they gave the East-Angles great cause to repent of the temporary relief, which they had obtained, by affailing the common enemy.

The next station of the Danes was at Reading; whence they infested the neighbouring country by their incursions¶. The Mercians, desirous of shaking off their dependance on Ethered*, refused to join him with their forces; and that prince, attended by Alfred, was obliged to march against the enemy, with

‖ W. Malmef. lib. 2. cap. 3.
the West-Saxons alone, his hereditary subjects. The Danes being defeated in an action, shut themselves up in their garrison; but quickly making thence an irruption, they routed the West-Saxons, and raised the siege. An action soon after ensued at Afton *, in Berkshire, where the English, in the beginning of the day, were in great danger of a total defeat. Alfred advancing with one division of the army, was surrounded by the enemy in disadvantageous ground; and Ethered, who was at that time hearing mass, refused to march to his assistance, till the prayers should be finished †: But as he afterwards obtained the victory, this success, not the danger of Alfred, was ascribed by the monks to the piety of that monarch. This battle of Afton did not terminate the war: Another battle was a little after fought at Baling; where the Danes were more successful ‡: and being reinforced by a new army from their own country, they became every day more terrible to the English. Amidst these confusions, Ethered died of a wound, which he had received in an action with the Danes; and left the inheritance of his cares and misfortunes, rather than of his grandeur, to his brother, Alfred, who was now twenty-two years of age.

**ALFRED**

This prince gave very early prognostics of those great virtues and shining talents, by which, during the most difficult times, he saved his country from utter ruin and subversion. Ethelwolf, his father, the year after his return with Alfred from Rome, had again sent the young prince thither with a numerous retinue; and a report being spread of the king's death ||, the Pope, Leo III. gave Alfred the royal unction §; whether prognosticating his future greatness from the appearances of his pregnant genius, or willing to pretend, even in that age, to the right of conferring kingdoms. Alfred, on his return home, became every day more the object of his father's most tender affections; but being indulged in all youthful pleasures, he was much neglected in his education; and he had already reached his twelfth year, when he was yet totally ignorant of the lowest elements of literature. His genius was first roused by the recital of Saxon poems, in which the Queen took delight; and this species of erudition, which

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is able to make a considerable progress even amongst barbarians, expanded those noble and elevated sentiments, which he had received from nature*. Encouraged by the Queen, and stimulated by his own ardent inclination, he soon learned to read those compositions; and proceeded thence to the knowledge of the Latin tongue, where he met with authors, that better prompted his heroic spirit, and directed his generous views. Absorbed in these elegant pursuits, his accession to royalty was to him rather an object of regret than of triumph†; but being called to the throne, in preference to his brother's children, as well by the will of his father, a circumstance which had great authority with the Anglo-Saxons‡, as by the vows of the whole nation and the urgency of public affairs §, he shook off his literary indolence, and exerted himself in the defence of his people. He had scarce buried his brother, when he was obliged to take the field, in order to oppose the Danes, who had seized Witon, and were exercising their usual ravages on the countries around. He marched against them with the few troops, which he could assemble on a sudden; and giving them battle, gained at first an advantage, but by his pursuing the victory too far, the superiority of the enemy's numbers prevailed, and recovered them the day §. Their loss, however, in the action was so considerable, that fearing Alfred would receive daily reinforcements from his subjects, they were contented to stipulate for a safe retreat, and promised to depart the kingdom. For that purpose, they were conducted to London, and allowed to take up their winter quarters there; but careless of their engagements, they immediately set themselves to the committing spoil on the neighboring county. Burrhed, King of Mercia, in whose territories London was situated, made a new stipulation with them †, and engaged them, by presents of money, to remove to Lindsey in Lincolnshire‡, a country, which they had already reduced to ruin and depopulation. Finding therefore no object in that place, either for their rapine or violence, they suddenly turned back upon Mercia, in a quarter where they expected to find it without defence; and fixing their station at Repton in Derbyshire*, they laid the whole country desolate, with fire and sword. Burrhed, unable to withstand an enemy, whom no force could resist, and no treaties bind, abandoned his kingdom, and flying to Rome, took shelter in a cloister †. He was brother-in-law to Alfred, and the last who bore the title of king in Mercia.


THE
The West Saxons were now the only remaining power in England; and tho' supported by the vigour and abilities of Alfred, they were unable to sustain the efforts of those ravagers, who from all quarters invaded them. A new swarm of Danes came over this year under three princes, Guthrum, Ofcitel, and Amund; and having first joined their countrymen at Repton, they soon found the necessity of separating, in order to provide for their subsistence. Part of them, under the command of Haldene, their chieftain, marched into Northumberland, where they fixed their residence; part of them took quarters at Cambridge, from whence they dislodged in the ensuing summer, and seized Wereham, in the county of Dorset, the very center of Alfred’s dominions. That prince so straitened them in these quarters; that they were content to come to a treaty with him, and stipulated to depart his country. Alfred, well acquainted with their usual perfidy, obliged them to swear upon the holy reliques to the observance of the treaty; not that he expected they would pay any veneration to the reliques; but he hoped, that if they now violated this oath, their impiety would infallibly draw down upon them the vengeance of heaven. But the Danes, little apprehensive of this danger, suddenly, without seeking for any pretext, fell upon Alfred’s army; and having put it to rout, marched westward, and took possession of Exeter. The prince again collected new forces; and exerted such vigour, that he fought in one year eight battles against the enemy, and reduced them to the utmost extremity. He hearkened however to new proposals of peace; and was satisfied to stipulate with them, that they would settle somewhere in England, and would not permit the entrance of more ravagers into the kingdom. But while he was expecting the execution of this treaty, which it seemed the interest of the Danes themselves to fulfil, he heard that another body had landed, and having collected all the scattered troops of their countrymen, had surprized Chippenham, then a considerable town, and were exercising their usual ravages all around them.

This last incident quite broke the spirit of the Saxons, and reduced them to despair. Finding that, after all the miserable havoc, which they had undergone in their persons and in their property; after all the vigorous actions, which they had exerted in their own defence; a new band, equally greedy of spoil and slaughter, had disembarked among them; they believed themselves abandoned.
by heaven to destruction, and delivered over to those swarms of robbers, which
the fertile north thus incessantly poured forth against them. Some left their
country, and retired into Wales or fled beyond sea: Others submitted to the
conquerors, in hopes of appeasing their fury by a servile obedience *: And every
man's attention being now engrossed in concern for his own preservation, no one
would hearken to the exhortations of the King, who summoned them to make,
under his conduct, one effort more in defence of their prince, their country, and
their liberties. Alfred himself was obliged to relinquish the ensigns of his digni-
tity, to dismiss his servants, and to seek shelter, in the meanest disguises, from
the pursuit and fury of his enemies. He concealed himself under a peasant's ha-
bit, and lived sometime in the house of a near-herd, who had been entrusted
with the care of some of his cows †. There passed here an incident, which has
been recorded by all the historians, and was long preserved by popular tradition;
tho' it contains nothing memorable in itself, except so far as every circumstance
is interesting, which attends so great virtue and dignity, reduced to such distress.
The wife of the near-herd was ignorant of the condition of her royal guest; and
observing him one day busy by the fire-side in trimming his bow and arrows, she
desired him to take care of some cakes, which were toasting, while he was em-
ployed elsewhere in other domestick affairs. But Alfred, whose thoughts were
otherwise engaged, neglected this injunction; and the good woman, on her re-
turn, finding her cakes all burnt, rated the King very severely; and upbraided
him, that he always seemed very well pleased to eat her warm cakes, tho' he
was thus negligent in toasting them ‡.

By degrees, Alfred, as he found the search of the enemy become more remiss,
collected some of his retainers, and retired into the center of a bog, formed by
the stagnating waters of the Thone and Parret, in Somerfethire. He here
found two acres of firm ground; and building a habitation on them, rendered
himself secure by its fortifications, and still more by the unknown and inaccessible
roads which led to it, and by the forests and morasses, with which it was every
way environed. This place he called Æthelingey., or the Isle of Nobles || ; and
it now bears the name of Athelney. He thence made frequent and unexpected
allies upon the Danes, who often felt the vigour of his arm, but knew not from
what quarter the blow came. He subsisted himself and his followers by the
plunder which he acquired; he procured them consolation by revenge; and

‡ Chron. Sax. p. 85. W. Malm. lib. 2. cap. 4.
§ from
from small successes, he opened their minds to hope, that, notwithstanding his present misfortunes, more important victories might at length attend his valour.

Alfred lay here concealed, but not inactive, during a twelvemonth; when the news of a prosperous event reached his ears, and called him into the field. Hubba, the Dane, having spread devastation, fire, and slaughter, over all Wales, had landed in Devonshire from twenty-three vessels, and laid siege to the castle of Kinwith, a place situated near the mouth of the small river Tau. Oddun, earl of Devonshire, with his followers, had taken shelter there; and being ill supplied with provisions, and even with water, he determined, by some vigorous blow, to prevent the necessity of submitting to the barbarous enemy. He made a sudden sally on the Danes before sun-rising; and taking them unprepared, he put them to rout, pursued them with great slaughter, killed Hubba himself, and got possession of the famous Reafen or enchanted standard, in which the Danes put great confidence. It contained the figure of a raven, which had been inwove by the three sisters of Hinguar and Hubba with many magical incantations, and which, by its different movements, prognosticated, as the Danes believed, the good or bad success of any enterprise.

When Alfred observed this symptom of successful resistance in his subjects, he left his retreat; but before he would assemble them in arms, or urge them to any attempt, which, if unfortunate, might, in their present despondency, prove fatal, he resolved, himself, to inspect the situation of the enemy, and to judge of the probability of success. For this purpose, he entered their camp under the disguise of a harper, and passed unsuspected through every quarter. He entertained them with his music and facetious humours, that he met with a welcome reception; and was even introduced to Guthrum, their prince’s tent, where he remained some days. He remarked the supine security of the Danes, their contempt of the English, their negligence in foraging and plundering, and their dissolute wasting of what they gained by rapine and violence. Encouraged by these favourable appearances, he secretly sent out his emissaries to the most considerable of his subjects, and summoned them to a rendezvous, along with their warlike followers, at Brixton, on the borders of Selwood forest. The English, who had hoped to put an end to their calamities by servile submission, now found the insolence and rapine of the conqueror more intolerable than all their past fatigues and dangers; and at the appointed day, they joyfully resorted to
On his appearance before them, they received him with shouts of applause; and could not satiate their eyes with the sight of this beloved monarch, whom they had long regarded as dead, and who now, with voice and looks expressing his confidence of success, called them to liberty and vengeance. He instantly conducted them to Eddington, where the Danes were encamped; and taking advantage of his previous knowledge of the place, he directed his attack against the most unguarded quarter of the enemy. The Danes, surprized to see an army of English, whom they considered as totally subdued, and still more astonished to hear Alfred was at their head, made but a faint resistance, notwithstanding their superiority of number; and were soon put to flight with great slaughter. The remainder of the routed army, with their prince, was besieged by Alfred in a fortified place, to which they fled; but being reduced to extremity by want and hunger, they had recourse to the clemency of the victor, and offered to submit on any conditions. The King, no less generous than brave, gave them their lives; and even formed a scheme for converting them from mortal enemies, into faithful subjects and confederates. He knew, that the kingdoms of East-Anglia and Northumberland were left totally desolate by the frequent inroads of the Danes; and he now purposed to re-people them by settling there Guthrum and his followers. He hoped that the new planters would at last betake themselves to industry, when, by reason of his resistance, and the exhausted condition of the country, they could no longer subsist by plunder; and that they might serve him as a rampart against any future incursions of their countrymen. But before he ratified these mild conditions with the Danes, he required, that they should give him one pledge of their submission, and of their inclination to coalesce with the English, by declaring their conversion to Christianity. Guthrum and his army had no aversion to this proposal; and, without much instruction, or argument, or conference, they were all admitted to baptism. The King answered for Guthrum at the fount, gave him the name of Athelstan, and received him as his adoptive son.

The success of this expedient seemed to correspond to Alfred's hopes: The greater part of the Danes settled peaceably in their new quarters: Some smaller bodies of the same nation, which were dispersed in Mercia, were distributed into

the five cities of Derby; Leicester, Stamford, Lincoln, and Nottingham, and were thence called the Fif or Five-Burgers. The more turbulent and unquiet made an expedition into France, under the command of Haftings *; and except a short incursion of Danes, who failed up the Thames and landed at Fulham, but suddenly retreated to their ships, on finding the country in a posture of defence †, Alfred was not for some years infested with the ravages of these barbarians ‡.

The King employed this interval of tranquillity in restoring order to the state, which had been shaken by so many violent convulsions, in establishing civil and military institutions, in composing the minds of men to industry and justice, and in providing against the return of like calamities. He was, more properly than his grandfather Egbert, the sole monarch of the English, (for so the Saxons were now universally called) because the kingdom of Mercia was at last incorporated in his state, and was governed by Ethelbert, his brother-in-law, who bore the title of earl: And tho’ the Danes, who peopled East-Anglia and Northumberland, were, for some time, ruled immediately by their own princes, they all acknowledge a subordination to Alfred, and submitted to his superior authority. As equality among subjects is the great source of concord, Alfred gave the same laws to the Danes and English, and put them entirely on the same footing in the administration both of civil and criminal justice. The fine for the murder of a Dane was the same with that for the murder of an Englishman; the great symbol of equality in those ages.

The King, after rebuilding the ruined cities, particularly London ††, which had been destroyed by the Danes in the reign of Ethelwolf, established a regular militia for the defence of the kingdom. He took care that all his people should be armed and registered; he assigned them a regular rotation of duty; he distributed part into the castles and fortresses, which he erected at proper places §; he required another part to take the field on any alarm, and to assemble at stated places of rendezvous; and he left a sufficient number at home, who were employed in the cultivation of the land, and who afterwards took their turn in military service ‡‡. The whole kingdom was like one great garrison; and the Danes could no sooner appear in one place, than a sufficient number was assembled to oppose them, without leaving the other quarters defenceless or disarmed *.

HISTORY of ENGLAND.

Chap. II.  

But Alfred, sensible that the proper method of opposing an enemy, who made incursions by sea, was to meet them on their own element, took care to provide himself with a naval power, which, tho' the most natural defence of an island, had hitherto been totally neglected by the English. He encreased the shipping of his kingdom both in number and force, and trained his subjects in the practice, as well of sailing, as of naval action. He distributed his armed vessels in proper stations around the island, and was sure to meet the Danish ships either before or after they had landed their troops, and to pursue them in all their incursions. Tho' the Danes might suddenly, by surprize, disembarke on the coast, which was generally become defolate by their frequent ravages, they were encountered by the English fleet in their retreat; and escaped not, as formerly, by abandoning their booty, but paid, by their total destruction, the penalty of the disorders which they had committed.

In this manner, Alfred repelled several inroads of these pyratical Danes, and maintained his kingdom, during some years, in safety and tranquillity. A fleet of a hundred and twenty ships of war were stationed upon the coast; and being provided of warlike engines, as well as of expert seamen, both Frisians and English, (for Alfred supplied the defects of his own subjects by engaging able foreigners in his service) maintained a superiority above those smaller bands, with which England had been so often infested. But at last Haftings, the famous Danish chief train, having ravaged all the provinces of France, along the sea-coast or the rivers of the Loire and Seine, and being obliged to quit that country, more by the defolation which he himself had occasioned, than by the resiſtance of the inhabitants, appeared off the coast of Kent with a fleet of 330 sail. The greater part of the enemy disembarked in the Rother, and feized the fort of Apuldore. Haftins himself, commanding a fleet of eighty sail, entered the Thames; and fortifying Milton in Kent, began to spread his forces over the country, and to commit the most destructive ravages. But Alfred, on the first alarm of this deſcent, flew to the defence of his people, at the head of a select band of soldiers, whom he always kept about his own perſon; and gathering to him the armed militia from all quarters, appeared in the field with a force superior to the enemy. All straggling parties, whom necessity or love of plunder had drawn to a distance from their chief encampment, were cut off by the English and these pyrates, instead of increasing their spoil, found themselves cooped up in their fortifications, and obliged to subsist by the plunder which they had brought.

from France. Tired of this situation, which must in the end prove ruinous to them, the Danes at Apuldore rose suddenly from their encampment, with an intention of marching towards the Thames, and passing over into Essex: But they escaped not the vigilance of Alfred, who encountered them at Farnham, put them to rout*, seized all their horses and baggage, and chased the runaways on board their ships, which carried them up the Colne to Mersey in Essex, where they entrenched themselves. Haftings, at the same time, and probably by concert, made a like movement; and deserting Milton, took possession of Bamblete, near the isle of Canvey in the same county†; where he hastily threw up fortifications for his defence against the power of Alfred.

Unfortunately for the English, Gothrum, prince of the East-Anglian Danes, had died; as had also Guthred, whom the King had appointed governor of the Northumbrians; and these Reflex tribes being no longer restrained by the authority of their princes, and being encouraged by the appearance of so great a body of their countrymen, broke into rebellion, shook off the authority of Alfred, and yielding to their invereterate habits of war and depredation‡, embarked on board two hundred and forty vessels ‡, and appeared before Exeter in the west of England. Alfred lost not a moment in opposing this new enemy. Having left some forces at London to make head against Haftings and the other Danes, he marched suddenly to the west §; and falling on the rebels before they were aware, pursued them to their ships with great slaughter. The enemy, sailing next to Sussex, began to plunder the country near Chichester; but the order, which Alfred had every where established, sufficed here, without his presence, for the defence of the place; and the rebels, meeting with a new repulse, where many of them were killed, and some of their ships taken ¶, were obliged to put again to sea, and were discouraged from attempting any other enterprise.

Meanwhile, the Danish invaders in Essex, having united their force under the command of Haftings, advanced into the inland country, and made spoil of all around them; but had soon reason to repent of their temerity. The English army, left in London, assisted by a body of the citizens, attacked the enemy's entrenchments at Bamblete, overpowered the garrison, and having executed great slaughter upon them, carried off the wife and two sons of Haftings*. Alfred generously spared these captives; and even restored them to Haftings †, on condition that he should depart the kingdom.

† Chron. Sax. p. 93.
‡ Chron. Sax. p. 92.
M. West. p. 179.
But
Chap. II. 'But tho' the King had thus honourably rid himself of this dangerous enemy, he had not entirely subdued or expelled the invaders. The pyratical Danes willingly followed in an excursion any prosperous leader, who gave them hopes of booty, but were not so easily engaged to relinquish their enterprise, or submit to return baffled, and without plunder, into their native country. Great numbers of them, after Haftings' departure, seized and fortified Shobury at the mouth of the Thames; and having left a garrison there, they coasted along the river, till they came to Boddington in the county of Gloucefier; where, being reinforced by some Welsh, they threw up entrenchments, and prepared for their defence. The King here surrounded them with the whole force of his dominions*; and as he had now a certain prospect of victory, he resolved to trust nothing to chance, but rather to master his enemies by famine than assault. They were reduced to such extremities, that, having eat their own horses, and having many of them perished with hunger †, they made a desperate fally upon the English; and tho' the greater number fell in the action, a considerable body made their escape‡. They roved about for some time in England, still purfued by the vigilance of Alfred; they attacked Leicester with success, defended themselves in Hartford, and then fled to Quatford; where they were finally broken and subdued. The small remains of them either dispersed themselves among their countrymen in Northumberland and Eaft-Anglia, or had recourse again to the sea, where they exercised piracy, under the command of Sigefert, a Northumberian. This freebooter, well acquainted with Alfred's naval preparations, had framed vessels of a new construction, higher and longer, and swifter, than those of the English: But the King soon showed him his superior skill, by building vessels still higher and longer, and swifter, than those of the Northumbrians§; and falling upon them, while they were exercising their ravages in the west, he took twenty of their ships; and having tried all the prisoners at Winchester, he hanged them as pyrates, and as the common enemies of mankind¶.

The well-timed severity of this execution, together with the excellent posture of defence, established everywhere, restored full tranquillity in England, and provided for the future security of the government. The Eaft-Anglian, and Northumbrian Danes, on the first appearance of Alfred upon their frontiers, made anew the most humble submissions to him; and he thought it prudent to take them under his immediate government, without establishing over them a viceroy of their own nation*. The Welsh also acknowledged his

A L F R E D.

authority; and this great prince had now, by prudence and justice and valour, established his sovereignty over all the southern parts of the island, from the English channel to the frontiers of Scotland: When he died in the vigour of his age and the full strength of his faculties, after a glorious reign of twenty-nine years and a half *, in which he deservedly attained the appellation of Alfred the Great, and the title of Founder of the English monarchy.

The merit of this prince, both in private and public life, may with advantage be set in opposition to that of any monarch or citizen, which the annals of any age or any nation, can present to us. He seems indeed to be the complete model of that perfect character, which, under the denomination of a sage or wise man, the philosophers have been fond of delineating, rather as a fiction of their imagination, than in hopes of ever seeing it reduced to practice: So happily were all his virtues tempered together; so justly were they blended; and so powerfully did each prevent the other from exceeding its proper bounds! He knew how to conciliate the most enterprising spirit with the coolest moderation; the most obstinate perseverance with the easiest flexibility; the most severe justice with the greatest lenity; the greatest vigour in command with the greatest affability of deportment †; the highest capacity and inclination for science with the most shining talents for action. His civil and his military virtues are almost equally the objects of our admiration; excepting only, that the former, being more rare among princes, as well as more useful, seem chiefly to challenge our applause. Nature also, as if desirous, that so bright a production of her skill should be set in the fairest light, had bestowed on him all bodily accomplishments, vigour of limbs, dignity of shape and air, and a pleasant, engaging and open countenance ‡. Fortune alone, by throwing him into that barbarous age, deprived him of historians worthy to transmit his fame to posterity; and we wish to see him delineated in more lively colours, and with more particular strokes, that we may at least perceive some of those small specks and blemishes, from which, as a man, it is impossible he could be entirely exempted.

But we should give but an imperfect idea of Alfred's merit, were we to confine our narration to his military exploits, and were not more particular in our account of his institutions for the execution of justice, and of his zeal for the encouragement of arts and sciences.

After Alfred had subdued and settled or expelled the Danes, he found the kingdom in the most wretched condition; lying in desolation from the ravages of those barbarians, and thrown into disorders, which were calculated to per-
petuate its misery. Tho' the great armies of the Danes were broke, the country was full of straggling troops of that nation, who, being accustomed to live by plunder, were become incapable of industry, and who, from the natural ferocity of their manners, indulged themselves in the commission of violence, even beyond what was requisite to supply their necessities. The English themselves, reduced to the most extreme indigence by these continued depredations, had shaken off all bands of government; and those who had been plundered to-day, betook themselves to a like disorderly life, and from despair joined next day the robbers in pillaging and ruining their fellow-citizens *. These were the evils, for which it was necessary that the vigilance and activity of Alfred should provide a remedy.

That he might render the execution of justice strict and regular, he divided all England into counties; these counties he subdivided into hundreds; and the hundreds into tythings †. Every householder was answerable for the behaviour of his family, and his slaves, and even of his guests, if they lived above three days in his house ‡. Ten neighbouring householders were formed into one corporation, who, under the name of a tything, decennary, or fribourg, were answerable for each other's conduct, and over whom one person, called a tything-man, headbourg, or borfholder, was appointed to preside. Every man was punished as an outlaw, who did not register himself in some tything ‡; and no man could change his habitation, without a warrant and certificate from the borfholder of the tything, to which he formerly belonged.

When any person in any tything or decennary was guilty of a crime, the borfholder was summoned to answer for him; and if he was not willing to be surety for his appearance and his clearing himself, the criminal was committed to prison, and there detained till his trial. If he fled, either before or after finding sureties, the borfholder and decennary became liable to enquiry, and were exposed to the penalties of law §. Thirty-one days were allowed them for producing the criminal; and if that time elapsed without their being able to find him, the borfholder, with two other members of the decennary, was obliged to appear, and together with three chief members of the three neighbouring decennaries (making twelve in all) to swear that his decennary was free from all privity both of the crime committed, and of the escape of the criminal. If the borfholder could not find such a number to answer for their innocence, the decennary was compelled by fine to make satisfaction to the King, according to the degree

of the crime*. By this institution every man was obliged from his own interest to keep a watchful eye over the conduct of his neighbours; and was in a manner surety for the behaviour of those who were placed under the division, to which he belonged: Whence these decennaries received the name of frank-pledges.

Such a regular distribution of the people, and such a strict confinement in their habitation, may not be necessary in times, when men are more enured to obedience and justice, and might perhaps be regarded as destructive of liberty and commerce in a polished state; but were well calculated to reduce these fierce and licentious people under the salutary restraint of law and government. But Alfred took care to temper these rigours by other institutions favourable to the freedom and security of the citizens; and nothing could be more popular and liberal than his plan for the administration of justice. The borsholder summoned together his whole decennary to assist him in deciding any lesser differences, which occurred among the members of this small community. In affairs of greater moment, in appeals from the decennary, or in controversies arising between members of different decennaries, the cause was brought before the hundred, which consisted of ten decennaries, or a hundred families of freemen, and which was regularly assembled once in four weeks, for the deciding of causes†. Their method of decision deserves to be noted; as being the origin of juries; an institution, admirable in itself, and the best calculated for the preservation of liberty and the administration of justice, that ever was devised by the wit of man. Twelve freeholders were chosen; who having sworn, together with the hundreder or presiding magistrate of that division, to administering impartial justice‡, proceeded to the examination of that cause, which was submitted to their jurisdiction. And besides these monthly meetings of the hundred, there was an annual meeting, appointed for a more general inspection of the police of the district; the enquiry into crimes, the correction of abuses in magistrates, and the obliging every person to shew the decennary in which he was registered. The people, in imitation of their ancestors, the antient Germans, assembled there in arms; whence a hundred was sometimes called a wapentake, and its court served both for the support of military discipline, and for the administration of civil justice||.

The next superior court to that of the hundred was the county-court, which met twice a year after Michaelmas and Easter, and consisted of all the freeholders of the county, who possessed an equal vote in the decision of causes. The

Chap. II. bishop presided in this court, together with the alderman, and the proper object of the court was the receiving appeals from the hundreds and decennaries, and the deciding such controversies as arose between men of different hundreds. Formerly, the alderman possessed both the civil and military authority; but Alfred, sensible that this coalition of powers rendered the nobility dangerous and independent, appointed also a sheriff in each county, who enjoyed a co-ordinate authority with the former in the judicial function*. His office also empowered him to guard the rights of the crown in the county; and to levy the fines imposed, which in that age formed no contemptible part of the public revenue.

There lay an appeal, in default of justice, from all these courts to the King himself in council; and as the people, sensible of the equity and great talents of Alfred, placed their chief confidence in him, he was soon over-whelmed with appeals from all parts of England. He was indefatigable in the dispatch of these causes†; but finding that his time must be entirely engrossed by this branch of duty, he resolved to obviate the inconvenience, by correcting the ignorance or corruption of the inferior magistrates, from which it arose‡. He took care to have his nobility instructed in letters and the laws§: he chose the earls and sheriffs from among the men most celebrated for probity and knowledge: He punished severely all malversation in office¶: And he removed all the earls, whom he found unequal to the trust∥; allowing only some of the most elderly to serve by a deputy, till their death should make room for more worthy successors.

The better to guide the magistrates in the administration of justice, Alfred framed a body of laws; which, tho' now lost, served long as the basis of English jurisprudence, and is generally esteemed the origin of what is denominated the common law. He appointed regular meetings of the states of England twice a year in London*: a city which he himself had repaired and beautified, and which he thus rendered the capital of the kingdom. The similarity of many of these institutions to the customs of the antient Germans, to the practice of the other northern conquerors, and to the Saxon laws during the Heptarchy, prevents us from regarding Alfred as the sole author of this plan of government; and leads us rather to think, that, like a wise man, he contented himself with reforming, extending, and executing the institutions, which he found previously established. But on the whole, such success attended his legislation, that every thing bore suddenly a new face in England: Robberies and iniquities of all kinds.

were repressed by the punishment or reformation of the criminals*: And so exact was the general police, that Alfred, it is said, hung up, by way of bravado, golden bracelets near the high-ways; and no man dared to touch them. Yet amidst these rigors of justice, this great prince preferred the most sacred regard to the liberty of his people; and it is a memorable sentiment preferred in his will, that it was just the English should for ever remain as free as their own thoughts.‡

As good morals and knowledge are almost inseparable, in every age, tho' not in every individual; the care of Alfred for the encouragement of learning among his subjects was another useful branch of his legislation, and tended to reform the English from their former dissolute and barbarous manners: But the King was guided in this pursuit less by political views, than by his natural bent and propensity towards letters. When he came to the throne, he found the English sunk into the grossest ignorance and barbarism, proceeding from the continued disorders in the government and from the ravages of the Danes: The monasteries were destroyed, the monks butchered or dispersed, their libraries burnt; and thus the only seats of erudition in those ages were totally subverted.¶ Alfred himself complains, that on his accession he knew not one person, south of the Thames, who could so much as interpret the Latin service; and very few in the northern parts, who had reached even that pitch of erudition. But this prince invited over the most celebrated scholars from all parts of Europe; he established schools everywhere, where for the instruction of his people; he founded, or at least repaired the university of Oxford, and endowed it with many privileges, revenues and immunities; he enjoined by law all freeholders possessed of two hydes of land or more to send their children to school for their instruction; he gave preference both in church and state to such only as had made some proficiency in knowledge. And by all these expedients he had the pleasure, before his death, to see a great change on the face of affairs, and in a work of his, which is still extant, he congratulates himself on the progress, which learning, under his patronage, had already made in England.†

But the most effectual expedient, employed by Alfred, for the encouragement of learning, was his own example, and the constant affiduity, with which, not-
withstanding the multitude and urgency of his affairs, he employed himself in the pursuits of knowledge. He usually divided his time into three equal portions; one was employed in sleep, and the reflection of his body by diet and exercise; another in the dispatch of business; a third in study and devotion: And that he might more exactly measure the hours, he made use of burning tapers of equal lengths, which he fixed in lanterns; an expedient suited to that rude age, when the geometry of dialling and the mechanism of clocks and watches were totally unknown. And by such a regular distribution of his time, tho' he often laboured under great bodily infirmities, this martial hero, who fought in person fifty-six battles by sea and land, was able, during a life of no extraordinary length, to acquire more knowledge, and even to compose more books, than most studious men, tho' blest with the greatest leisure and application, have, in more fortunate ages, made the object of their uninterrupted industry.

Sensible, that the people, at all times, especially, when their understandings are obstructed by ignorance and bad education, are not much susceptible of speculative instruction, Alfred endeavoured to convey his morality by apologues, parables, stories, apophthegms, couched in poetry; and besides propagating among his subjects, former compositions of that kind, which he found in the Saxon tongue, he exercised his vein in inventing works of a like nature, as well as in translating from the Greek, the elegant fables of Æsop. He also gave Saxon translations of Orosius's and Bede's histories; and of Boethius concerning the consolation of philosophy. And he deemed it nowise derogatory from his other great characters of sovereign, legislator, warrior, and politician, thus to lead the way to his people in the pursuits of literature.

Meanwhile, this prince was not negligent in encouraging the vulgar and mechanical arts, which have a more sensible, tho' not a closer connexion with the interests of society. He invited, from all quarters, industrious foreigners to repeople his country, which had been laid desolate by the ravages of the Danes. He introduced and encouraged manufactures of all kinds; and no inventor or improver of any ingenious art did he suffer to go unrewarded. He prompted men of activity to betake themselves to navigation, to push commerce into the
Edward the Elder.

This prince, who equalled his father in military talents, tho' inferior to him in knowledge and erudition, found immediately, on his accession, a specimen of that turbulent life, which attended all princes, and even all individuals, in an age when men, less restrained by justice or law, and less occupied by industry, had no other aliment for their inquietude, but wars, insurrections, convulsions, rapine, and depredation. Ethelwald, his cousin-german, son to King Ethelbert, the elder brother of Alfred, insisted on his preferable right to the throne; and arming his partizans, took possession of Winburne, where he seemed determined to defend himself to the last extremity, and to await the issue of his pretensions. But when the King approached the town with a great army, Ethelwald, having the prospect of certain destruction, made his escape, and fled first into Normandy, and thence into Northumberland; where he hoped, that the people, who had been recently subdued by Alfred, and who were impatient of peace, would, on the intelligence of that great prince's death, seize the first pretence or opportunity of rebellion. The event did not disappoint his expectations.

Chap. II.  Expectations: The Northumbrians declared for him *; and Ethelwald, having thus connected his interest with the Danisth tribes, made an excursion beyond sea, and collecting a body of these free-booters, he excited the hopes of all those who had been accustomed to subsist by rapine and violence †. The East-Anglian Danes joined his party: The Five-burgers, who were seated in the heart of Mercia, began to put themselves in motion; and the English found that they were again menaced with those convulsions, from which the valour and policy of Alfred had so lately redeemed them. The rebels, headed by Ethelwald, made an incursion into the counties of Glocefter, Oxford, and Wilts; and having exercised their ravages in these places, they retired with their booty, before the King, who had assembled his army, was able to approach them. Edward, however, who was determined that his preparations should not be fruitless, conducted his forces into East-Anglia, and retaliated the injuries which the inhabitants had committed, by spreading the like devastation among them ‡. Being satiated with revenge, and loaded with booty, he gave orders to retire: But the authority of these antient Kings, which was feeble in peace, was not much better obeyed in the field; and the Kentish men, greedy of more spoil, ventured, contrary to repeated orders, to stay behind him, and to take up their quarters in Bury §. This disobedience proved in the issue fortunate to Edward. The Danes assaulted the Kentish men; but met with so stout a resistance, that, tho' they gained the field of battle, they bought that advantage by the loss of their bravest leaders, and among the rest, by that of Ethelwald, who perished in the action ¶. The King, freed from the fear of so dangerous a competitor, made peace on advantageous terms with the East-Angles ‡.

In order to restore England to such a state of tranquillity as it was then capable of attaining, nought was wanting but the submission of the Northumbrians, who, assisted by the scattered Danes in Mercia, continually infested the bowels of the kingdom. Edward, in order to divert the force of these enemies, prepared a fleet to attack them by sea; hoping, that when his forces appeared off their coast, they must at least remain at home, and provide for their own defence *. But the Northumbrians were less anxious to secure their own property than greedy to commit spoil on their enemy; and concluding, that the chief force of the English was embarked in the fleet, they thought the opportunity favourable, and

entered Edward's territories with all their forces*. The King, who was prepared
against this event, attacked them on their return at Tetenhall in the county of
Stafford, put them to rout, recovered all the booty, and pursued them with great
slaughter into their own country †.

All the rest of Edward's reign was a scene of continued and successful action
against the Northumbrians, the East-Angles, the Five-Burgers, and the foreign
Danes, who invaded him from Normandy and Brittany ‡. He was as provident
in putting his kingdom in a posture of defence, as vigorous in assaulting the ene-
my §. He fortified the towns of Chester, Eddebury, Warwick, Cherbury,
Buckingham, Towcester, Maldon, Huntingdon, and Colchester. He fought
two great battles at Temsfard and Maldon §. He reduced Thorketill, a great
Danish chieftain, and obliged him to retire with his followers into France, in
quest of spoil and adventures ¶. He subdued the East-Angles, and forced them
to swear allegiance to him: He expelled the two rival princes of Northumberland,
Reginald and Sidroc, and acquired, for the present, the dominion of that pro-
vince: Several tribes of the Britains were subjected by him; and even the Scots,
who, during the reign of Egbert, had, under the conduct of Kenneth, their
King, encreased their power, by the final subjection of the Picts, were however
obliged to give him marks of submission *: In all these fortunate achievements,
he was assisted by the activity and prudence of his sister Ethelfleda, who was wi-
dow to Ethelbert, earl of Mercia, and who, after her husband's death, retained
the government of that province †. This princess, who had been reduced to
extremity in child-bed, refused afterwards all commerce with her husband; not
from any weak superstitition, as was common in that age, but because she deem-
ed all domestic occupations unworthy of her masculine and ambitious spirit ¶.
She died before her brother ||; and Edward, during the remainder of his reign,
took upon himself the immediate government of Mercia, which before had been in
a great measure independant of the crown §. The Saxon Chronicle fixes the death
of this prince in 925 §: His kingdom devolved to Athelstan, his natural
son ¶.

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A T H E L-
THE flain in this prince's birth was not, in those times, deemed so considerable as to exclude him from the throne; and Athelstan, being of an age, as well as of a capacity, fitted for government, obtained the preference to Edward's younger children, who, tho' legitimate, were of too tender years to rule a nation so much exposed both to foreign invasion and to domestic convulsions. Some discontent, however, prevailed on his accession; and Alfred, a nobleman of considerable power, was thence encouraged to enter into a conspiracy against him. This event is related by historians with circumstances, which the reader, according to the degree of credit he is disposed to give them, may impute, either to the invention of monks, who forged them, or to their artifice, who found means to make them real. Alfred, it is said, being seized upon strong suspicions, but without any certain proof, firmly denied the conspiracy imputed to him; and in order to justify himself, he offered to swear to his innocence before the Pope, whose person, it was supposed, contained such superior sanctity, that no one could presume to give a false oath in his presence, and yet hope to escape the immediate vengeance of Heaven. The King accepted of the condition, and Alfred was conducted to Rome; where, either conscious of his innocence, or neglecting the superstition, to which he appealed, he ventured to make the oath required of him, before John, who then filled the papal chair. But no sooner had he pronounced the fatal words, than he fell into convulsions, of which in three days after he expired. The King, as if the guilt of the conspirator were now fully ascertained, confiscated his estate, and made a present of it to the monastery of Malmesbury*; secure now that no doubts would ever thenceforth be entertained concerning the justice of his proceedings.

The dominion of Athelstan was no sooner established over his English subjects, than he endeavoured to give security to the government, by providing against the insurrections of the Danes, which had created so much disturbance to his predecessors. He marched into Northumberland; and finding, that the inhabitants bore with impatience the English yoke, he thought it prudent to give Sithric, a Danish nobleman, the title of King, and to attach him to his interests, by marrying him to his sister, Editha†. But this policy proved by accident the source of very dangerous consequences. Sithric died in a twelvemonth after; and his two sons by a former marriage, Anlaf and Godfrid, assuming pretensions on their father's elevation, assumed the sovereignty, without waiting for Athel-

flan's consent. They were soon expelled by the power of that monarch; and the
former took shelter in Ireland, as the latter did in Scotland*; where he received,
during some time, protection from Constantine, who then enjoyed the crown of
that kingdom. The Scottish prince, however, continually solicited, and even
menaced, by Athelstan, at last promised to deliver up his guest; but secretly de-
tecting this treachery, he gave Godfrid warning to make his escape†; and that
fugitive, after subduing by piracy for some years, freed the King, by his death,
from any farther anxiety. Athelstan, resenting Constantine's behaviour, entered
Scotland with a great army; and ravaging the country with impunity‡, he re-
duced the Scots to such distress, that their King was content to preserve his
frown, by making the most humble submissions to the enemy. The English
historians assert||, that Constantine did homage to Athelstan for his whole
kingdom; and they add, that the latter prince, being urged by his courtiers to
pursue the present favourable opportunity, and entirely subdue Scotland, replied,
that it was more glorious to confer than conquer kingdoms§. But those annals,
so uncertain and imperfect in themselves, lose all credit, when national prepo-
sitions and animosities have place: And on that account, the Scots historians, who,
without having any more knowledge of the matter, strenuously deny the fact,
seem more worthy of belief.

Constantine, whether he owed the retaining his crown to the moderation of
Athelstan, who was unwilling to employ all his advantages against him, or to
the policy of that monarch, who esteemed the humiliation of an enemy a great-
r acquisition than the subjection of a discontented and mutinous people, thought the
behaviour of the English more an object of resentment than of gratitude. He
entered into a confederacy with Anlaf, who had collected a great body of Danish
pirates, whom he found hovering in the Irish seas; and with some Welsh princes,
who were terrified with the growing power of Athelstan: And all these allies
made by concert an irruption with a great army into England. Athelstan,
collecting his forces, met the enemy near Brunsbury in Northumberland, and de-
feated them in a general engagement¶. This victory was chiefly ascribed to
the valour of Turketul, the English chancellor: For in those turbulent ages, no one

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* W. Malmes. lib. 2. cap. 6. † Ibid.
Ingolf, p. 37.

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was so much occupied in civil employments, as wholly to lay aside the military character.

There is a circumstance, not unworthy of notice, which historians relate with regard to the transactions of this war. Anlaf, on the approach of the English army, thought, that he could not venture too much to ensure a fortunate event; and employing the artifice formerly practised by Alfred against the Danes, he entered the enemy's camp in the habit of a minstrel. The stratagem was for the present attended with a like success. He gave such satisfaction to the soldiers, who flocked about him, that they introduced him to the King's tent; and Anlaf, having played before that prince and his nobles during their repast, was dismissed with a handsome reward. His prudence kept him from refusing the present; but his pride determined him, on his departure, to bury it, while he fancied that he was unespied by all the world. But a soldier in Athelftan's camp, who had formerly served under Anlaf, had been struck with some suspicion on the first appearance of the minstrel, and was engaged by curiosity to observe all his motions. He regarded this last action as a full proof of Anlaf's disguise, and he immediately carried the intelligence to Athelftan, who blamed him for not sooner giving him information, that he might have seized his enemy. But the soldier told him, that as he had formerly sworn fealty to Anlaf, he could never have pardoned himself the treachery of betraying and ruining his antient master; and that Athelftan himself, after such an instance of his criminal conduct, would have had equal reason to doubt of his allegiance. Athelftan, having praised the generosity of the soldier's principles, reflected on the incident, which he forefaw might be attended with important consequences. He removed his station in the camp; and as a bishop arrived that evening with a reinforcement of troops, (for the ecclesiastics were then no less warlike than the civil magistrates) he occupied with his train that very place which had been left vacant by the King's removal. The precaution of Athelftan was found prudent: For no sooner had darkness fallen, than Anlaf broke into the camp, and hastening directly to the place where he had left the King's tent, put the bishop to death, before he had time to prepare for his defence.

There fell several Danish and Welsh princes in the action of Brunbury; and Constantine and Anlaf made their escape with difficulty, leaving the greatest part of their army on the field of battle. After this success, Athelftan enjoyed:

* The office of chancellor among the Anglo-Saxons resembled more that of a secretary of state, than that of our present chancellor. See Spellman in voce Cancellarius.
his crown in tranquillity; and he is regarded as one of the ablest and most active
of those antient princes. He passed a remarkable law, which was calculated for
the encouragement of commerce, and which it required some largeness of mind,
in that age, to have devised. That a merchant, who had made two long sea-
voyages on his own account, should be admitted to the rank of a thane or gentle-
man. This prince died at Glocefter in the year 941*, after a reign of sixteen
years; and was succeeded by his brother Edmund.

EDMUND.

EDMUND, on his accession, met with disturbance from the restless North-

umbrians, who lay in wait for every opportunity of breaking into rebellion.
But the King, marching suddenly with his forces into their country, so over-
awed the rebels, that they endeavoured to appease him by the most humble sub-
missions†. In order to give him the surer pledge of their obedience, they of-
fered to embrace Christianitv; a religion which the English Danes had frequently
professed, when reduced to difficulties, but which, for that very reason, they
regarded as a badge of servitude, and shook off as soon as a favourable opportunity
offered. Edmund, trusting little to their sincerity in this forced submission, used
the precaution of removing the Five-burgers from the towns of Mercia, in which
they had been allowed to settle; because it was always found, that they took ad-
vantage of every commotion, and introduced the rebellious or foreign Danes in-
to the heart of the kingdom ‡. He also subdued Cumberland from the Britains;
and conferred that principality on Malcolm, King of Scotland, on condition that
he should do him homage for it, and protect the north from all future incursions
of the Danes §.

EDMUND was very young when he came to the crown; yet his reign was short,
as his death was violent. One day, as he was solemnizing a festival in the county
of Glocefter, he remarked, that Leolf, a notorious robber, whom he had sen-
tenced to banishment, had yet the boldness to enter the hall where he himself dined,
and to sit at table with his attendants. Enraged at this insolence, he ordered
him to leave the room; but on his refusing to obey, the King, whose temper,
naturally choleric, was enflamed by this additional insult, leaped on him himself, and seized him by the hair: But the ruffian, pushed to extremity, drew his dagger, and gave Edmund a wound, of which he immediately expired. This event happened in the year 946, and in the sixth year of the King's reign. Edmund left male-issue, but so young, that they were incapable of governing the kingdom; and his brother, Edred, was promoted to the crown.

E D R E D.

The reign of this prince, as that of his predecessors, was disturbed by the rebellions and incursions of the Northumbrian Danes, who, tho' frequently quelled, were never entirely subdued, nor had ever paid a sincere allegiance to the crown of England. The succession of a new King seemed to them a favourable opportunity for shaking off the yoke; but on Edred's appearance with an army, they made him their wonted submissions; and the King having wasted the country with fire and sword, as a punishment of their rebellion, obliged them to renew their oaths of allegiance; and he strait returned with his forces. The obedience of the Danes lasted no longer than the present terror. Provoked at the devastations of Edred, and even reduced by necessity to subsist on plunder, they broke into a new rebellion, and were again subdued: But the King, now instructed by experience, took better precautions against their future revolt. He fixed English garrisons in their most considerable towns; and placed over them an English governor, who might watch all their motions, and suppress their insurrections on the first appearance. He obliged also Malcolm, King of Scotland, to renew his homage for the lands which he held in England.

Edred, tho' not unwarlike, nor unfit for active life, lay under the influence of the lowest superstition, and had blindly delivered over his conscience to the guidance of Dunstan, commonly called St. Dunstan, abbot of Glastenbury, whom he advanced to the highest offices, and who covered, under the appearance of sanctity, the most violent and most insolent ambition. Taking advantage of the implicit faith reposed in him by the King, this churchman imported into England a new order of monks, who much changed the state of ecclesiastical affairs, and excited, on their first establishment, the most violent commotions.

From the time of the first introduction of Christianity among the Saxons, there had been monasteries in England; and these establishments had extremely multiplied by the donations of the princes and nobles; whose superstitious belief, derived from their ignorance and precarious life, and increased by remorse for the crimes into which they were so frequently betrayed, knew no other expediency for appeasing the Deity than a profuse liberality towards the ecclesiastics. But the monks had hitherto been a species of secular priests, who lived in the convents after the manner of the present canons or prebendaries, and were both intermingled, in some degree, with the world, and endeavoured to render themselves useful to it.

They were employed in the education of youth *: They had the disposal of their own time and industry: They were not subjected to the rigid rules of an order: They had made no vows of implicit obedience to their superiors †: And they still retained the choice, without quitting the convent, either of a married or a single life ‡. But a mistaken piety had produced in Italy a new species of monks, called Benedictines; who, carrying farther the plausible principles of mortification, secluded themselves entirely from the world, renounced all claim to liberty, and made a merit of the most inviolable chastity. These practices and principles, which superstition at first engendered, were greedily embraced and promoted by the policy of the court of Rome. The Roman pontiff, who was making every day great advances towards an universal sovereignty over the ecclesiastics, perceived, that the celibacy alone of the clergy could break off entirely their connexion with the civil power, and depriving them of every other object of ambition, engage them to promote, with unceasing industry, the grandeur of their own order. He was sensible, that so long as the monks were indulged in marriage, and were allowed families, they never could be subjected to a strict rule, or reduced to that slavery under their superiors, which was requisite to procure to the orders, issued from Rome, a ready and zealous obedience.

Celibacy, therefore, began to be extolled, as the indispensable duty of priests; and the Pope undertook to make all the clergy throughout the western world renounce at once the privilege of marriage: A fortunate policy, but at the same time an undertaking the most difficult of any, since he had the strongest propensities of human nature to encounter, and found, that the same connexions with the female sex, which generally encourages devotion, was here unfavourable to the success of his project. It is no wonder, therefore, that this master-stroke of art should have met with violent contradiction, and that the interests of the hier-

* Obserne in Anglia Sacra, tom. 2. p. 92.
† Obserne, p. 91.
CHAPTER II.

The hierarchy, and the inclinations of the priests, being now placed in this singular opposition, should, notwithstanding the continued efforts of Rome, have retarded the execution of that bold scheme, during the course of near three centuries.

As the bishops and parochial clergy lived apart with their families, and were more connected with the world, the hopes of success with them were fainter, and the pretence for making them renounce marriage was much less plausible. But the pope, having cast his eye on the monks as the basis of his authority, was determined to reduce them under strict rules of obedience, to procure them the credit of sanctity by an appearance of the most rigid mortifications, and to break off all their other connections which might interfere with his spiritual policy. Under pretence, therefore, of reforming abuses, which were, in some degree, unavoidable in the antient establishments, he had already spread over the southern countries of Europe the strict rules of the monastic life, and began to form attempts towards a like innovation in England. The favourable opportunity offered itself (and it was greedily seized) arising from the weak superstition of Edred, and the violent impetuous character of Dunstan.

Dunstan was born of noble parents in the west of England; and being educated under his uncle, Aldhelm, then archbishop of Canterbury, had taken himself to the ecclesiastical life, and had acquired some character in the court of Edmund. He was, however, defamed to that prince as a man of licentious manners; and finding his fortune blasted by these suspicions, his ardent ambition prompted him to repair his indiscretions by running into an opposite extreme. He secluded himself entirely from the world; he framed a cell so small that he could neither stand erect in it, nor stretch out his limbs during his repose; and he here employed himself perpetually either in devotion or in manual labour. It is probable, that his brain become gradually crazed by these solitary occupations, and that he framed chimeras, which, being believed by himself and his stupid votaries, procured him the general character of sanctity among the people. He fancied, that the devil, among the frequent visits, which he paid him, was one day more earnest than usual in his temptations; till Dunstan, provoked at his importunity, seized him by the nose with a pair of red hot pincers, as he put his head into the cell; and he held him there, till that malignant spirit made the whole neighbourhood roud with his bellowings. This notable exploit was seriously credited and extolled by the public; it is transmitted to posterity by one who, considering his age, may pass for a writer of some elegance; and it insured to Dunstan a reputation, which no real piety, much less
virtue, could, even in the most enlightened period, have ever been able to procure him with the people.

Supported by the character, obtained in his retreat, Dunstan appeared again at court; and gained such an ascendant over Edred, who had succeeded to the crown, as made him, not only the director of his conscience, but his counsellor in the most momentous affairs of government. He was placed at the head of the treasury *, and being thus possessed both of power at court, and of credit with the populace, he was enabled to attempt with success the most arduous undertakings. Finding that his advancement had been owing to the opinion of his austerity, he professed himself a partizan of the rigid monastic rules; and after introducing that reformation into the convents of Glastenbury and Abingdon, he endeavoured to render it universal in the kingdom.

The minds of men were already well prepared for this innovation. The praises of an inviolable chastity had been carried to the highest extravagance by some of the first preachers of Christianity among the Saxons: The pleasures of love had been represented as incompatible with Christian perfection; And a total abstinence from all commerce with the sex was deemed such a meritorious penance, as was sufficient to atone for the greatest enormities. The consequence seemed natural, that those at least who officiated at the altar should be clear of this pollution; and when the doctrine of transubstantiation, which was now creeping in †, was once fully established, the reverence to the real body of Christ in the eucharist, bestowed on this argument an additional force and influence. The monks knew how to avail themselves of all these popular topics, and to set off their own character to the best advantage. They affected the greatest austerity of life and manners: They indulged themselves in the highest strains of devotion: They inveighed bitterly against the vices and pretended luxury of the age: They were particularly vehement against the dissolute lives of the secular clergy, their rivals: Every particular instance of libertinism in that order was represented as a general corruption: And where other topics of defamation were wanting, their marriage became a sure object of invective, and their wives received the name of concubines, or other more opprobrious appellation. The secular clergy, on the other hand, who were numerous and rich, and possessed of the ecclesiastical dignities, defended themselves with vigour, and endeavoured to retaliate upon their adversaries. The people were thrown into agitation; and few instances occur of more violent dissensions, excited by the most material differences in religion; or rather by the most frivolous: Since it is a general remark, that the more...

affinity there is between theological parties, the greater commonly is their animosity.

The progress of the monks, which was become considerable, was somewhat retarded by the death of Edred, their partizan, who expired after a reign of nine years*. He left children, but as they were infants, his nephew, Edwy, son to Edmund, was placed on the throne.

EDWY.

EDWY, at the time of his accession, was not above sixteen or seventeen years of age, was possessed of the most amiable figure, and even endowed, according to authentic accounts, with the most promising virtues †. He would have been the favourite of his people, had he not unhappily, on the commencement of his reign, been engaged in a controversy with the monks, whose rage neither the graces of the body nor virtues of the mind could mitigate, and who have pursued his memory with the same unrelenting vengeance, which they exercised against his person and dignity during his short and unfortunate reign. There was a beautiful princess of the royal blood, called Elgiva, who had made impression on the tender heart of Edwy; and as he was of an age, when the force of the passions begins first to be felt, he had ventured, contrary to the advice of his gravest counsellors, and the remonstrances of the more dignified ecclesiastics ‡, to espouse her; tho' she was within the degrees of affinity, prohibited by the canon-law §. As the austerity, affected by the monks, made them particularly violent on this occasion, Edwy entertained a strong prepossession against them; and seemed on that account determined not to second their project, of expelling the seculars from all the convents, and of acquiring to themselves possession of those rich establishments. The war was therefore declared between the King and the monks; and the former soon found reason to repent him of his provoking such dangerous enemies. On the day of his coronation, his nobility were assembled in a great hall, and were indulging themselves in that riot and disorder, which, from the example of their German ancestors, had become habitual to the English §; when Edwy, attracted by softer pleasures, retired into the Queen's apartments, and in that privacy, gave reins to his fondness towards his wife, which was only moderately checked by the presence of her mother. Dunstan conjectured the reason of the King's retreat; and carrying along with

him, Odo, archbishop of Canterbury, over whom he had gained an entire ascendant, he burst into the apartment, upbraided Edwy with his lasciviousness, probably bestowed on the Queen the most opprobrious epithet which can be applied to her sex, and tearing him from her arms, pushed him back, in a disgraceful manner, into the festival of the nobles*. Edwy, tho’ young and oppressed by the prejudices of the people, found an opportunity of taking revenge for this public insult. He questioned Dunstan concerning the administration of the treasury during the reign of his predecessor †; and when that minister refused to give any account of money, expended, as he affirmed, by the late King’s orders, he accused him of malversation in his office, and banished him the kingdom ‡. But Dunstan’s cabal were not inactive during his absence: They filled the people’s ears with high panegyrics on his sanctity: They exclaimed against the impiety of the King and Queen: And having poisoned the minds of men by these declamations, they proceeded to still more outrageous violences against the royal authority. Archbishop Odo sent into the palace a party of soldiers, who seized the Queen, and having burned her face with a red-hot iron, in order to destroy that fatal beauty, which had seduced Edwy, they carried her by force into Ireland, there to remain in perpetual exile*. Edwy, finding it in vain to resist, was obliged to consent to his divorce, which was pronounced by Odo §; and a catastrophe, still more dismal, awaited the unhappy Elgiva. That amiable princess, being cured of her wounds, and having even obliterated the scars, with which Odo had hoped to deface her beauty, returned into England, and was flying to the embraces of the King, whom she still regarded as her husband; when she fell into the hands of a party, whom the primate had ordered to intercept her. Nothing but her death could now give security to Odo and the monks; and her most cruel death was requisite to satiate their vengeance. She was hamstringed; and expired a few days after at Gloucester in the most acute tortures].

The English, blinded with superstition, instead of being shocked with this inhumanity, exclaimed that the misfortunes of Edwy and his spouse were a just judgment on them for their disolute contempt of the ecclesiastical statutes. They even proceeded to rebellion against their sovereign; and having placed Edgar at their head, the younger brother of Edwy, a boy of thirteen years of age, they soon put him in possession of Mercia, Northumberland, East-Anglia;
and chased Edwy into the southern countries*. That it might not be doubtful at whose instigation this revolt was undertaken; Dunstan returned into England †, and took upon him the government of Edgar and his party. He was first installed in the see of Worcester, then in that of London ‡, and, on Odo's death, and the violent expulsion of Brighthelm, his successor, in that of Canterbury §; all which he long kept possession of. Odo is transmitted to us by the monks, under the character of a man of piety: Dunstan was even canonized; and is one of those numerous saints of the same stamp, who disgrace the Romish calendar. Meanwhile, the unhappy Edwy was excommunicated §, and pursued with unrelenting vengeance; but his death, which happened soon after, freed his enemies from all farther inquietude; and gave Edgar peaceable possession of the government ¶.

EDGAR.

This prince, who mounted the throne in such early youth, soon discovered an excellent capacity in the administration of affairs; and his reign is one of the most fortunate, which we meet with in the antient English history. He showed no aversion to war; he made the wisest preparations against invaders: And by this vigour and foresight, he was enabled, without any danger of suffering insults, to indulge his inclination towards peace, and to employ himself in sup-

¶ Brompton, p. 863.

* There is a seeming contradiction in antient historians with regard to some circumstances of the story of Edwy and Elgiva. It is agreed, that this prince had a violent passion for his second or third cousin, Elgiva, whom he married, tho' within the degrees prohibited by the canons. It is also agreed, that he was dragged from a lady on the day of his coronation, and that the lady was afterwards treated with the singular barbarity abovementioned. The only difference is, that Oberne and some others call her his strumpet, not his wife, as she is said to be by Malmesbury. But this difference is easily reconciled: For if Edwy married her contrary to the canons, the monks would be sure to deny her to be his wife, and would insist that she could be nothing but his strumpet: So that, on the whole, we may esteem this representation of the matter as certain; at least, as by far the most probable. If Edwy had only kept a mistress, it is well known, that there were methods of accommodation with the church, which would have prevented the clergy from proceeding to such extremities against him: But his marriage, contrary to the canons, was an insult on their authority, and called for their highest resentment.
porting and improving the internal government of his kingdom*. He maintain-
ed a body of disciplined troops, which he quartered in the north, in order to keep
the mutinous Northumbrians in subjection, and to repel the inroads of the Scots.
He built and supported a powerful navy †; and that he might retain the seamen
in the practice of their duty, and show perpetually a formidable armament to his
enemies, he stationed three squadrons off the coast, and ordered them to make,
from time to time, the circuit of his dominions ‡. The foreign Danes dared not
to approach a country, which appeared in such a posture of defence: The domestic
Danes saw inevitable destruction to be the consequence of their tumults and in­
surrections: The neighbouring princes, of Wales, Scotland, the Isle of Man,
the Orkneys, and even of Ireland §, were reduced to pay submissions to so formi­
dable a prince. He carried his superiority to a great height, and might have ex­
cited an universal combination against him, had not his power been so well esta­
blished, as to deprive his enemies of all hopes of shaking it: It is said, that re­
siding once at Chester, and having proposed to go by water to the abbey of St.
John the Baptist, he obliged eight of his tributary Kings to row him in a barge
upon the Dee §. The English historians are fond to mention the name of Ken­
neth III. King of Scots among the number: The Scots historians, either deny
the fact, or asser\t, that their King, if ever he acknowledged himself a vassal to
Edgar, did him homage, not for his crown, but for the dominions, which he held
in England.

But the chief means, by which Edgar maintained his authority, and preserved
public peace, was the paying court to Dunstan and the Monks, who had at first
placed him on the throne, and who, by their pretensions to superior sanctity and
purity of manners, had acquired an ascendant over the people. He favoured
their scheme for displacing the secular canons of all the monasteries ‡; he be­

‡ Many of the English historians make Edgar’s ships amount to an extravagant number, to 3000,
869, says that Edgar had 4000 vessels. How can these accounts be reconciled to probability and to
the state of the navy in the time of Alfred? W. Thorne makes the whole number amount only to 300,
which is more probable. The fleet of Ethelred, Edgar’s son, must have been short of 1000 ships; yet
the Saxon Chronicle, p. 137, says it was the greatest navy that ever had been seen in England.
Chap. II.

owed preferment on none but their partizans; he allowed Dunstan to resign the
fee of Worcester into the hands of Oswald, one of his creatures*, and to place
Ethelwold, another of them, in that of Winchester †; he consulted these prelates
in the administration of all ecclesiastical affairs, and even in that of many civil;
and tho' the vigour of his own genius prevented him from being implicitly
guided by them, the King and the bishops found such advantages in their mutual
harmony, that they acted always in concert, and united their influence in preserv-
ing the peace and tranquillity of the public.

In order to compleat the great work of placing the new order of monks in all
the convents, Edgar summons a general council of the prelates and the heads
of the religious orders. He here inveighed against the dissolute lives of the se-
cular clergy; the smallness of their tonsure, which, it is probable, maintained
no longer any resemblance to the crown of thorns; their negligence in attending
the exercise of their function; their mixing with the laity in the pleasures of
gaming, hunting, dancing and singing; and their openly living with concubines,
by which it is commonly supposed he meant their wives. He then turned him-
self to Dunstan the primate; and in the name of the late King, Edred, his fa-
thor, whom he suppos'd to look down from Heaven with indignation against
all those enormities, he thus addressed him. "Tis you, Dunstan, by whose
advice I founded monasteries, built churches, and expended my treasure in
the support of religion and religious houses. You was my counsellor and af-
sistant in all my schemes: You was the director of my conscience: To you I
was obedient in all things. When did you call for supplies, which I refused:
you? Was my assistance ever wanting to the poor? Did I deny support and
establishments to the clergy and the convents? Did I not hearken to your in-
structions, who told me, that these charities were, of all others, the most
grateful to my Maker, and fixed a perpetual fund for the support of religion?
And are all our pious endeavours now frustrate by the dissolute lives of the
priests? Not that I throw any blame on you: You have reasoned, befought,
inculcated, inveighed: But it behoves you now to use sharper and more vi-
gorous remedies; and conjoining your spiritual authority with the civil power,
"to purge effectually the temple of God from thieves and intruders‡". It is
easy to imagine that this harangue had the desired effect; and that, when the
King and prelates thus concurred with the popular prejudices, it was not long

Burgo, p. 27, 28.
before the monks prevailed, and established their new rules in almost all the con-
vents.

We may remark, that the declamations against the secular clergy are both
here and in all the historians, conveyed in general terms; and as that order of
men are commonly restrained by the decency of their character, not to mention
superior motives, it is difficult to believe, that the complaints against their dif-
folute manners could be so universally just as is pretended. It is more probable,
that the monks paid court to the populace by an affected austerity of life; and
representing the most innocent liberties, taken by the other clergy, as great and
unpardonable enormities, thereby prepared the way for the increase of their
own power and influence. Edgar, however, like a true politician, concurred with
the prevailing party; and he even indulged them in pretensions, which, tho' they
might, when complied with, engage the monks to support royal authority during
his own reign, proved afterwards very dangerous to his suc-
cessors, and gave dis-
turbance to the whole civil power. He seconded the policy of the court of Rome,
in granting to some monasteries an exemption from episcopal jurisdiction: He
allowed the convents, even those of royal foundation, to usurp
the election
of
their own
abbot: And he admitted their forgeries of antient charters, by
which
from the pretended grant of former kings, they
assumed like privileges and ex-
emptions *.

These merits of Edgar have procured him the highest panegyrics from the
monks; and he is transmitted to us not only under the character of a great poli-
tician, and an active prince, praises to which he seems to have been intitled, but
under that of a great saint and a man of virtue. But nothing could more bet-
ray both his own hypocrisy in inveighing against the licentiousness of the secular
clergy, and the interested spirit of his partizans, in bestowing such eulogies on his
piety, than the usual tenor of his conduct, which was licentious to the highest
degree, and violated every law, human and divine. Yet those very monks, who,
as we are told by Ingulf, a very antient historian, had no idea of any moral or
religious merit, except chastity and obedience, not only connived at his enormi-
ties, but loaded him with the highest praises. History, however, has preserved
some instances of his amours, from which, as from a specimen, we may form a
conjecture of the rest.

Edgar broke into a convent, carried off Editha, a nun, by force, and even
committed violence on her person †. For this act of sacrilege and brutality,

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

Chap. II. He was reprimanded by Dunstan; and that he might reconcile himself with the church, he was obliged, not to separate from his mistress, but to abstain from wearing his crown during seven years, and to deprive himself so long of that useless ornament*: A punishment very unequal to that inflicted on the unfortunate Edwy, who, for a marriage, which, in the strictest sense, could only deserve the name of irregular, was expelled his kingdom, saw his Queen treated with the most singular barbarity, was loaded with calumnies, and has been transmitted to posterity under the most odious colours. Such is the ascendant which may be attained, by hypocrisy and cabal, over mankind!

There was another mistress of Edgar, called Elfleda, with whom he first formed a connexion by a kind of accident.Passing one day by Andover, he lodged in the house of a nobleman, whose daughter, being endowed with all the graces of person and behaviour, enflamed him at first sight with the highest desire, and made him resolve by any expedient to gratify it. As he had not leisure to employ courtship or address for attaining his purpose, he went directly to her mother, declared the violence of his passion, and desired that the young lady might be allowed to pass that very night with him. The mother was a woman of virtue, and determined not to dishonour her daughter and her family by compliance; but being well acquainted with the impetuosity of the King's temper, she thought it would be easier, as well as safer, to deceive than refuse him. She feigned therefore a submission to his will; but secretly ordered a waiting-maid, of no disagreeable figure, to steal into the King's bed, after all the company should be retired to rest. In the morning, before day-break, the damsel, agreeable to the injunctions of her mistress, offered to retire; but Edgar, who had no reserve in his pleasures, and whose love to his bedfellow was rather enflamed by enjoyment, refused his consent, and employed force and entreaties to detain her. Elfleda, trusting to her own charms, and to the love with which, she hoped, she had now inspired the King, made probably but a faint resistance; and the return of light discovered the deceit to Edgar. He had passed a night so much to his satisfaction, that he expressed no displeasure with the old lady on account of her fraud; his love was transferred to Elfleda; she became his favourite mistress, and maintained her ascendant over him, till his marriage with Elfrida †.

The circumstances of his marriage with this lady were more singular, and more criminal. Elfrida was daughter and heir of Olgar, earl of Devonshire; and tho' she had been educated in the country, and had never appeared at court, she had filled all England with the reputation of her beauty. Edgar himself, who

was indifferent to no accounts of this nature, found his curiosity excited by the frequent panegyrics which he heard of Elfrida; and reflecting on her noble birth, he resolved, if he found her charms answerable to their fame, to obtain possession of her on honourable terms. He communicated his intention to earl Athelwold, his favourite; but used the precaution, before he made any advances to her parents, to order that nobleman, on some pretence, to pay them a visit, and to bring him a certain account of the beauty of their daughter. Athelwold, when introduced to the young lady, found general report to have fallen much short of the truth; and being enamoured with the highest love, he determined to sacrifice to this new passion all his fidelity to his master, and to the trust reposed in him. He returned to Edgar, and told him, that the riches alone, and high quality of Elfrida, had been the ground of the admiration paid her, and that her charms, far from being anywise extraordinary, would have been overlooked in a woman of inferior station. When he had, by this deceit, turned the King from his purpose, he took an opportunity, after some interval, of turning again the conversation on Elfrida; and he remarked, that, tho' the parentage and fortune of the lady had not produced on him, as on others, any illusion with regard to her beauty, he could not forbear reflecting, that she would on the whole be an advantageous match for him, and might, by her birth and riches, make him a sufficient compensation for the homeliness of her person. If the King, therefore, gave his approbation to the design, he was determined to make proposals in his own behalf to the earl of Devonshire, and doubted not to obtain his, as well as the young lady's, consent to the marriage. Edgar, pleased with an expedient for establishing his favourite's fortune, not only exhorted him to execute his purpose, but forwarded its success by his recommendations to the parents of Elfrida; and Athelwold was soon made happy in the possession of his mistress. Dreading, however, the detection of the artifice, he employed every pretence for detaining Elfrida in the country, and for keeping her at a distance from Edgar.

The violent passion of Athelwold had concealed from him the necessary consequences which must attend his conduct, and the advantages which the numerous enemies that always pursue a royal favourite, would, by its means, be able to make against him. Edgar was soon informed of the truth; but before he would execute vengeance on Athelwold's treachery, he resolved to satisfy himself with his own eyes of the certainty and full extent of his guilt. He told him, that he intended to pay him a visit in his castle, and be introduced to the acquaintance of his new married wife; and Athelwold, as he could not refuse this honour, begged only leave to go before him a few hours, that he might the better prepare every thing for his reception. He then discovered the whole matter to Elfrida;
and begged her, if she had any regard, either to her own honour, or to his life, to conceal from Edgar, by every circumstance of dress and behaviour, that fatal beauty, which had seduced him from fidelity to his friend, and had betrayed him into so many falsehoods. Elfrida promised compliance, tho' nothing was farther from her intentions. She deemed herself little beholden to Athelwold for a passion, which had deprived her of a crown; and knowing the force of her own charms, she did not despair even yet of reaching that station, of which her husband's artifice had bereaved her. She appeared before the King with all the advantages which the richest attire, and the most engaging airs, could bestow upon her, and excited at once in his bosom the highest love towards herself, and the most furious desire of revenge against her husband. He knew, however, how to dissemble these passions; and seducing Athelwold into a wood, on pretence of hunting, he stabbed him with his own hand, and soon after publicly espoused Elfrida.*

Before we conclude our account of this reign, we must mention two circumstances, which are remarked by historians. The reputation of Edgar allured a great number of foreigners to visit his court; and he gave them encouragement to reside in England †. We are told, that they imported all the vices of their respective countries, and contributed to corrupt the simple manners of the natives‡: But as this simplicity of manners, so highly and often so injudiciously extolled, preserved them not from barbarity and treachery, the greatest of all vices, and the most incident to a rude uncultivated people, we ought perhaps to deem their acquaintance with foreigners rather an advantage; as it tended to enlarge their views, and to cure them of those illiberal prejudices and rustic manners, to which islanders are often subject.

Another remarkable incident of this reign was the extirpation of wolves from England. This advantage was attained by the industrious policy of Edgar. He took great pains in hunting and pursuing those ravenous animals; and when he found, that they had all taken shelter in the mountains and forests of Wales, he changed the tribute of money imposed on the Welsh princes by Athelstan, his predecessor ‡, into an annual tribute of three hundred heads of wolves; which produced such diligence in hunting them, that the creature has been no more seen in this island.


EDGAR
EDWARD THE MARTYR.

EDGAR died, after a reign of sixteen years, and in the thirty-third of his age. Chap. II. He was succeeded by Edward, whom he had by his first marriage with the daughter of Earl Ordmer.*

EDWARD the Martyr.

THE succession of this prince, who was only fifteen years of age at his father's death, did not take place without much difficulty and opposition. Elfrida, his step-mother, had a son, Ethelred, seven years old, whom she attempted to raise to the throne: She affirmed, that Edgar's marriage with the mother of Edward, was exposed to insuperable objections; and as she had possessed great credit with her husband, she had found means to acquire partizans, who seconded all her pretensions. But the title of Edward was supported by many advantages. He was appointed successor by the will of his father†: He was approaching to man's estate, and might soon be able to take into his own hands the reins of government: The principal nobility, dreading the imperious temper of Elfrida, were averse to her son's government, which must enlarge her authority, if not put her in possession of the regency: And above all, Dunstan, whose character of sanctity had given him the highest credit with the people, had espoused the cause of Edward, over whom he had already acquired a great ascendant‡, and was determined to execute the will of Edgar in his favour. To cut off all pretensions, Dunstan resolutely anointed and crowned the young prince at Kingston; and the whole kingdom, without further opposition, submitted to him.§

It was of great importance to Dunstan and the monks, to place on the throne a King favourable to their cause: The secular clergy had still partizans in England, who desired to keep them in possession of the convents, and of the ecclesiastical authority. On the first intelligence of Edgar's death, Alfre, duke of Mercia, expelled the new orders of monks from all the monasteries which lay within his jurisdiction§; but Elfwine, duke of East-Anglia, and Brithnoth, duke of the East-Saxons, protected them within their territories, and insisted upon the execution of the late laws enacted in their favour¶. In order to settle this con-

† Hoveden, p. 427. Eadmer, p. 3.
‡ Eadmer, ex edit. Selden, p. 3.
HISTORY OF ENGLAND:

Chap. II. troversy, there were summoned several synods, which, according to the practice of those times, consisted partly of ecclesiastical members, partly of the lay nobility. The monks were able to prevail in all these assemblies; tho' as it appears, contrary to the secret wishes, if not the declared opposition, of the leading men in the nation *. They had more invention in forging miracles to support their cause; or having been so fortunate as to obtain, by their pretended austerities, the character of piety, their miracles were better believed by the populace.

In one synod, Dunstan, finding the majority of votes against him, rose up, and informed the audience, that he had, in that instant, received an immediate revelation in behalf of the monks; and the assembly were so astonished at this intelligence, or probably so overawed by the populace, that they proceeded no farther in their deliberations. In another synod, a voice issued from the crucifix, and informed the members, that the establishment of the monks was founded on the will of heaven, and could not be opposed without impiety †. But the miracle performed in the third synod was still more alarming: The floor of the hall in which the assembly met, sunk of a sudden, and a great number of the members were either bruised or killed by the fall. It was remarked, that Dunstan had prevented that day the King from attending the synod, and that the beam on which his own chair stood, was the only one which did not sink under the weight of the assembly ‡: But these circumstances, instead of begetting any suspicion of contrivance, were regarded as the surest proof of the immediate interposition of providence, in behalf of these favourites of heaven §:

Edward lived four years after his accession, and there passed nothing remarkable during his reign. His death was memorable and tragical §. This young prince was endowed with the most amiable innocence of manners; and as his own intentions were always pure, he was incapable of entertaining any suspicion.

¶ I have already made a remark, (and it would be too tedious to repeat it as often as there is occasion) that, where we meet with such stories in the antient authors, we may justly entertain a doubt whether they be owing to the fiction of the succeeding monks, who invented them, or to the subtility and contrivance of those monks who lived in the time, and who really imposed upon the populace.
EDWARD THE MARTYR.

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Edw ard the Martyr.

tion against others. Tho' his step mother had opposed his succession, and had
raised a party in favour of her own son, he always showed her marks of the
greatest regard, and even expressed, on all occasions, the most tender affection
towards his brother*. He was hunting one day in a forest in Dorsetshire; and
being led by the chase near Corfe-castle, where Elfrida resided, he took the op-
portunity of paying her a visit, unattended by any of his retinue, and he thereby
presented her with the occasion which she had long wished for. After he had
mounted his horse, he desired some liquor to be brought him; and while he was
holding the cup to his head, a servant of Elfrida approached him, and gave him
a stab behind. The prince, finding himself wounded, put spurs to his horse;
but becoming faint by loss of blood, he fell from the saddle, his foot stuck in
the stirrup, and he was dragged along by his unruly horse, till he expired †.
Being tracked by the blood, his body was found, and was privately interred at
Wereham by his servants.

The youth and innocence of this prince, with his tragical death, begot such
compassion among the people, that they believed miracles to be wrought at his
tomb ‡; and they gave him the appellation of martyr, tho' his murder had no
reference to any religious principle or opinion. Elfrida built monasteries, and
performed many penances, in order to atone for her guilt §; but could never,
by all her hypocrisy or remorses, recover the good opinion of the public, tho'
so easily deluded in those ignorant ages.

The freedom which England had so long enjoyed from Danish depredations, seems to have proceeded, partly from the establishments which that nation had obtained in the north of France, and which employed all their superfluous hands to people and maintain them; partly from the vigour and warlike spirit of a long race of English princes, who preferred the country in a posture of defence by sea and land, and either prevented or repelled every attempt of the invaders. But a new generation of men being now sprung up in the northern regions, who could no longer disburthen themselves on Normandy; the English had reason to dread, that they would again visit an island, to which they were invited, both by the memory of their past successes, and by the expectation of assistance from their countrymen, who, tho' long established in the kingdom, were not yet thoroughly united with the natives, nor had entirely forgot their inveterate habits of war and depredation: And as the present King was a minor, and, even when he attained to man's estate, never discovered either courage or capacity sufficient to govern his own subjects, much less to repel a formidable enemy, the people might justly expect to suffer the worst calamities from so dangerous a crisis.

The Danes, before they durst attempt any important enterprise against England, made a small incursion, by way of trial; and having landed from seven vessels near Southampton, they ravaged the country, enriched themselves by spoil, and departed with impunity*. Six years after, they made a like attempt in the west, and met with like success †; and the invaders, having now found affairs in a very different situation from that in which they formerly appeared, en-

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Couraged their countrymen to assemble a greater force, and to hope for more considerable advantages. They landed in Essex under the command of two chieftains; and having defeated and slain at Maldon, Brithnoth, duke of that county *, who ventured with a small force to attack them, they spread their devastations over all the neighbouring provinces. In this extremity, Ethelred, to whom historians give the epithet of the Unready †, instead of rousing his people to defend with courage their honour and their property, hearkened to the advice of Siricius, archbishop of Canterbury, which was seconded by many of the degenerate nobility; and paying the enemy the sum of ten thousand pounds, bribed them to depart the kingdom ‡. This shameful expedient was attended with the success which might be expected. The Danes appeared next year off the eastern coast, in hopes of subduing a people, who defended themselves by their money, which invited assailants, instead of their arms, which repelled them. But the English, sensible of their folly, had, in the interval, met in a great council, and had determined to assemble at London a fleet capable of repulsing the enemy §; tho’ that judicious measure failed of success, from the treachery of Alfric, duke of Mercia, whole name is infamous in the annals of that age, by the calamities which his repeated perfidy brought upon his country. This nobleman had, in 983, succeeded to his father Alfere, in that extensive command; but being deprived of it two years after, and banished the kingdom ††, he was obliged to employ all his intrigue, and all his power, which was too great for a subject, to be restored to his country, and re-instituted in his authority. Having had experience of the credit and malevolence of his enemies, he thenceforth trusted for security, not to his services or to the affections of his fellow citizens, but to the influence which he had obtained over his vassals, and to the public calamities, which he thought must, in every revolution, render his assistance necessary. Having fixed this resolution, he determined to prevent all such successes as might establish the royal authority, or render his own situation dependant and precarious. As the English had formed the plan of surrounding and destroying the Danish fleet in harbour, he privately informed the enemy of their danger; and when they put to sea, in consequence of this intelligence, he deferted, with the squadron under his command, the night before the engagement, and thereby disappointed all the efforts of his countrymen ‡‡. Ethelred, enraged at this perfidy, seized his son, Alfgar, and ordered his eyes to be put out **. But such

† Anglia Sacra, vol. i. p. 225.
¶ Chron. Sax. p. 126.
Brompton, p. 879.
was the power of Alfric, that he again forced himself into authority; and the
he had given this specimen of his character, and received this grievous provoca-
tion, it was found necessary to entrust him anew with the government of Mercia.
This conduct of the court, which, in all its circumstances, is so barbarous, im-
prudent, and weak, both merited and prognosticated the most grievous calami-
ties.

The northern invaders, now well acquainted with the defenceless condition of
England, made a powerful descent, under the command of Sweyn, King of Den-
mark, and Olave, King of Norway; and sailing up the Humber, spread on
all sides their destructive ravages. Lindefey was laid waste; Banbury was de-
stroyed; and all the Northumbrians, tho' mostly of Danish descent, were obliged
either to join the victors, or to suffer under their depredations. A powerful
army was assembled to oppose the invaders, and a general action ensued; but the
English were abandoned in the battle, by the cowardice or treachery of their
three leaders, all of them men of Danish race, Frena, Frithegis, and Godwin,
who gave the example of a shameful flight to the troops under their command.

Encouraged by this success, and still more by the contempt which it inspired
of their enemy, the pyrates ventured to attack the center of the kingdom; and
entering the Thames in ninety-four vessels, laid siege to London, and threatened
it with total destruction. But the citizens, alarmed with the danger, and firmly
united among themselves, made a bolder defence than the cowardice of the nobi-
Ity and gentry gave the invaders reason to apprehend; and the besiegers, after
suffering the greatest hardships, were finally frustrated in their attempt. In order
to revenge themselves, they laid waste Essex, Kent, Suffex, and Hampshire; and
having there procured horses, they were thereby enabled to spread, into the more
inland counties, the fury of their depredations. In this extremity, Ethelred
and his nobles had recourse to the former expedient; and sending ambassadors to
the two northern kings, they promised them subsistence and tribute, on condition
they would, for the present, put an end to their ravages, and soon after depart
the kingdom. Sweyn and Olave agreed to the terms, and peaceably took up
their quarters at Southampton, where the sum of sixteen thousand pounds was
paid them. Olave even made a journey to Andover, where Ethelred refused;

and he received the rite of confirmation from the English bishops, as well as
many rich presents from the King. He here promised, that he would never more
infect the English territories, and he faithfully performed that engagement *.
This prince receives the appellation of St. Olave from the church of Rome; and
notwithstanding the general presumption, which lies, either against the understand-
ing or morals of every one, who in those ignorant ages was dignified with
that title, he seems to have been a man of merit and virtue. Sweyn, tho' less
scrupulous than Olave, was obliged, upon the departure of the Norwegian prince,
to evacuate also the kingdom with all his followers.

This composition brought but a short interval to the miseries of the English.
The Danish pyrates appeared soon after in the Severne; and having committed
spoil in Wales, as well as in Cornwall and Devon, they failed round to the southe-
coast, and entering the Tamar, compleated the devastation of these two counties.
They then returned to the Bristol-channel; and penetrating into the country by
the Avon, spread themselves over all that neighbourhood, and carried fire and
sword even into Dorsetshire †. They next changed the seat of war; and after ra-
vaging the isle of Wight, they entered the Thames, and Medway, and laid siege
to Rochester, where they defeated the Kentish men in a great battle ‡. After this
victory, the whole province of Kent was made a scene of slaughter, fire and de-
vastation. The extremity of these miseries forced the English into councils for
common defence both by sea and land; but the weakness of the King, the di-
visions of the nobility, the treachery of some, the cowardice of others, the want of
concert in all, frustrated every endeavour; and their fleets and armies either came
too late to attack the enemy, or were repulsed with dishonour; and the people
were thus equally ruined by resistance or by submission §. The English, there-
fore, devoid both of prudence and unanimity in council, of courage and conduct
in the field, had recourse to the same weak expedient, which by experience they
might have already found to inefficual; and they offered the Danes to buy peace
by paying them a large sum of money. These ravagers rose continually in their
demands; and now required the payment of 24,000 l. which the English were
so mean and imprudent as to submit to §. The departure of the Danes procured

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Chap. III. them a short interval of repose, which they enjoyed as if it were to be perpetual, without making any effectual preparations for giving them a more vigorous reception upon their next return.

Besides receiving this sum, the Danes were engaged by another circumstance to depart a kingdom, which appeared so little in a situation to resist their efforts: They were invited over by their countrymen in Normandy, who at this time were hard pressed by the arms of Robert King of France, and who found it difficult to defend the settlement, which with so much advantage to themselves and glory to their nation, they had made in that country. It is probable, also, that Ethelred, observing the close connexions, thus maintained among all the Danes, however divided in government or situation, was desirous of procuring an alliance with that formidable people; and for this purpose, being now a widower, he made his addresses to Emma, sister to Richard II. duke of Normandy, and he soon succeeded in his negotiations. The princes came over this year to England, and was married to Ethelred *.

Settlement of the Normans. In the end of the ninth and beginning of the tenth century; when the north, not yet exhausted by that multitude of people or rather nations, whom she had successively emitted, sent forth a new race, not of conquerors as before, but of pyrates and ravagers, who infested the country, possessed by her once warlike sons; there lived Rollo, a petty prince or chieftain in Denmark, whose valour and abilities soon drew the attention of his countrymen. He was exposed in his youth to the jealousy of the King of Denmark, who attacked his small, but independant principality; and who being foiled in every assault, had recourse at last to perfidy for effectuating his purpose, which he had so often attempted in vain by force of arms †: He lulled Rollo into security by an insidious peace; and falling suddenly upon him, he murdered his brother and his bravest officers, and forced him to fly for safety into Scandinavia. Here many of his antient subjects, induced partly by affection to their prince, partly by the oppressions of the Danish Monarch, ranged themselves under his standard, and offered to follow him in every enterprize. Rollo, instead of attempting to recover his paternal dominions, where he must expect a vigorous resistance from the Danes, determined to pursue an easier, but more important undertaking, and to make his fortune, in imitation of his countrymen, by pillaging the richer and more southern coasts of Europe. He collected a body of troops, which like that of all these ravagers, was composed of Norwegians, Swedes, Frisians, Danes, and adventurers of all nations, who,

† Dudo ex edit. Ducheine, p. 70, 71. Gul. Gemet'cinis, lib. 2. cap. 2, 3. being
being accustomed to a roving, unsettled life, took delight in nothing but war and plunder. His reputation drew him associates from all quarters; and a vision, which he pretended to have appeared to him in his sleep, and which, according to his interpretation of it, prognosticated to him the greatest successes, proved also a powerful incentive with those ignorant and superstitious people *.

The first attempt of Rollo was on England, near the end of Alfred’s reign; when that great monarch, having settled Guthrun and his followers in East-Anglia, and others of those free-booters in Northumberland, and having restored peace to his harrassed country, had established the most excellent military, as well as civil institutions among the English. The prudent Dane, finding that no advantages could be gained over such a people, governed by such a prince, soon turned his enterprises against France, which he found more exposed to his inroads †; and during the reigns of Eudes, an usurper, and of Charles the Simple, a weak prince, he committed the most destructive ravages on the inland, as well as maritime provinces of that kingdom. The French, having no means of defence against a chieftain, who united all the valour of his countrymen with the policy of more civilized nations, were obliged to submit to the expedient practised by Alfred, and to offer the invaders a settlement in some of those provinces, which they had depopulated by their arms ‡.

The reason, why the Danes for many years pursued measures so different from those embraced by the Goths, Vandals, Franks, Burgundians, Lombards, and other northern conquerors, was the great difference, in the method of attack which was practised by these several nations, and to which the nature of their particular situations necessarily confined them. The latter tribes, living in an inland country, made incursions by land upon the Roman empire; and when they entered far into the frontiers, they were obliged to carry along with them their wives and families, whom they had no hopes of soon revisiting, and who could not otherwise participate of their plunder. This circumstance quickly made them think of forcing a settlement in the provinces, which they had over-run; and these barbarians, spreading themselves over the country, found an interest in protecting the property and industry of the people, whom they subdued. But the Danes and Norwegians, invited by their maritime situation, and obliged to subsist themselves in their uncultivated country by fishing, had acquired some experience of navigation; and in their military excursions pursued the method practised against the Roman empire by the more early Saxons: They made de-

† Gul. Gemet. lib. 2. cap. 6. ‡ Dudo, p. 82.
Chap. III. Scents in small bodies from their ships or rather boats, and ravaging the coasts, returned with the booty to their families, whom they could not conveniently carry along with them in these hazardous enterprises. But when they increased their armaments, made incursions into the inland countries, and found it safe to remain longer in the midst of the enemy, they had been accustomed to crowd their vessels with their wives and children, and having no longer any temptation to return into their own country, they willingly embraced an opportunity of settling in the warm climates and cultivated fields of the south.

Affairs were in this situation with Rollo and his followers, when Charles proposed to relinquish to them the province formerly called Neuftria, and to purchase peace of them on these hard conditions. After all the terms were fully agreed, there appeared only one circumstance shocking to the haughty Dane: He was required to do homage to Charles for his province, and to put himself in that humiliating posture, imposed on vassals by the rites of the feudal law. He long refused to submit to this indignity; but being unwilling to lose such important advantages for a mere ceremony, he made a sacrifice of his pride to his interest, and acknowledged himself in form the vassal of the French monarch. Charles gave him his daughter, Gisla, in marriage; and that he might bind him faster to his interests, made him a donation of a considerable territory, besides what he was obliged to surrender to him by his stipulations. When some of the French nobles informed him, that, in return for so generous a present, it was expected, that he should throw himself at the King's feet, and make suitable acknowledgments for his bounty; Rollo replied, that he would rather break off the whole treaty; and it was with some difficulty they could persuade him to make that compliment by one of his captains. The Dane, commissioned for this purpose, full of indignation at the order, and despising so unwarlike a prince, caught Charles by the foot, and pretending to carry it to his mouth, that he might kiss it, overthrew him before all his courtiers. The French nation, sensible of their present weakness, found it prudent to overlook this insult.

Rollo, who was now in the decline of life, and was tired of wars and depredations, applied himself, with mature councils, to the settlement of his newly acquired territory, which was thenceforth called Normandy; and he parcelled it out among his captains and followers. He followed in this partition the customs of the feudal law, which was then universally established in the southern countries of Europe, and which suited the peculiar circumstances of that age. He treated the French subjects who submitted to him, with mildness and justice; he reclaimed...
his antient followers from their ferocity and violence; he established law and order throughout his state; and after a life, spent in tumults and ravages, he died peaceably in a good old age, and left his dominions to his posterity.

William I., who succeeded him, governed the duchy for twenty-five years; and during this time, the Normans were thoroughly intermingled with the French, had acquired their language, had imitated their manners, and had made such progress towards cultivation, that, on the death of William, his son, Richard, a minor, inherited his dominions: A certain proof, that the Normans were already well advanced in civility, and that their government could now rest secure on its laws and civil institutions, and was not wholly sustained by the abilities of the sovereign. Richard, after a long reign of fifty-four years, was succeeded by his son of the same name, in the year 996; which was eighty-five years after the first establishment of the Normans in France. This was the duke, who gave his sister, Emma, in marriage to Ethelred, King of England, and who thereby formed connections with a country, which his posterity were so soon after destined to subdue.

The Danes had been established during a longer period, in England than in France; and the sameness of their original language to that of the Saxons invited them to a more early coalition with the natives, they had found, as yet, so little example of civilized manners among the English, that they retained all their antient ferocity, and valued themselves only on their national character of military bravery. The recent, as well as more antient achievements of their countrymen, tended to sustain this idea; and the English princes, particularly Athelstan and Edgar, sensible of that superiority, had been accustomed to keep in pay bodies of Danish troops, who were quartered about the country, and committed many violations upon the inhabitants. These mercenaries had attained to such a height of luxury, according to the old English writers, that they combed their hair once a day, bathed themselves once a week, changed their cloaths frequently; and by all these arts of effeminacy, as well as by their military character, had rendered themselves so agreeable to the fair sex, that they debauched the wives and daughters of the English, and had dishonoured many families. But what most provoked the inhabitants was, that, instead of defending them against invaders, they were ever ready to betray them to the foreign Danes, and to associate themselves with all the straggling parties of that nation. The animosity between the inhabitants of English and Danish race, had, from these repeated

injuries, risen to a great height; when Ethelred, from a policy incident to weak princes, embraced the cruel resolution of massacring the latter throughout all his dominions *. Secret orders were dispatched to commence the execution every where on the same day; and the festival of St. Brice, which fell on a Sunday, the day on which the Danes usually bathed themselves, was chosen for that purpose. It is needless to repeat the accounts transmitted of the barbarity of this massacre: The rage of the populace, excited by so many injuries, sanctified by authority, and stimulated by example, distinguished not between innocence and guilt, spared neither sex nor age, and was not satiated without the tortures, as well as death, of the unhappy victims †. Even Gunilda, sister to the King of Denmark, who had married earl Paling, and had embraced Christianity, was, from the advice of Edric, earl of Wilts, seized and condemned to death by Ethelred, after seeing her husband and children butchered before her face. The unhappy princess foretold, in the agonies of despair, that her murder would soon be avenged by the total ruin of the English nation ‡.

Never was prophecy better fulfilled; and never did barbarous policy prove more fatal to the actors. Sweyn and his Danes, who wanted but a pretence to invade the English, appeared off the western coast, and threatened to take full revenge for the slaughter of their countrymen. Exeter fell first into their hands, from the negligence or treachery of earl Hugh, a Norman, who had been made governor by the interest of Queen Emma §. They began to spread their devastations over the country; when the English, sensible of what outrages they must now expect from their barbarous and offended enemy, assembled more early and in greater numbers, than usual, and made an appearance of vigorous resistance. But all these preparations were frustrated by the treachery of duke Alfric, who

* Almoff all the antient historians speak of this massacre of the Danes as if it had been universal, and as if every individual of that nation throughout England had been put to death. But the Danes were almost the sole inhabitants in the kingdoms of Northumberland and East-Anglia, and were very numerous in Mercia. This representation therefore of the matter is absolutely impossible. Great resistance must have been made; and violent wars ensued, which was not the case. This account given by Wallingford, tho' he stands single, must be admitted as the only true one. We are told, that the name Lurdane, lord Dane, for an idle lazy fellow, who lives at other people's expense, came from the conduct of the Danes, who were put to death. But the English princes had been entirely masters for several generations; and only supported a military corps of that nation. It seems probable therefore, that it was these Danes only that were put to death.


‡ W. Malm. p. 69.

ETHELRED. 

was intrusted with the command, and who, feigning ficknefs, refused to lead the army againft the Danes till it was dispirited, and at laft diffipated, by his fatal misconduct *. Alfric soon after died; and Edric, a greater traitor than he, who had married the King’s daughter, and had acquired a total ascendant over him, succeeded Alfric in the government of Mercia, and in the command of the English armies †. A great famine, proceeding partly from the bad fea- fons, partly from the decay of agriculture, added to all the other miseries of the inhabitants ‡. The country, wafted by the Danes, harrassed by the fruitlefs expeditions of its own forces, was reduced to the utmost defolation; and at laft submitted to the infamy of purchafing a precarious peace from the enemy, by the payment of 30,000 pounds ¶.

The English endeavoured to employ this interval in making preparations against the return of the Danes, which they had reafon soon to expect. A law was made, ordering the proprietors of eight hydes of land to provide themselves of a horfeman and a compleat suit of armour; and thofe of 310 hydes to equip a ship for the defence of the coast §. When this navy was assembled, which muft have conftifted of near eight hundred vessels ¶, all hopes of its success were disappointed by the factions, animofities, and diffenfions of the nobility. Edric had impelled his brother Brightric to advance an accusation of treafon againft Wolftoath, governor of Suffolk, the father of the famous earl Godwin; and that noble- man, well acquainted with the malevolence as well as power of his enemy, found no other means of safety but in deferting with twenty fhips to the Danes. Brightric purfued him with a fleet of eighty fail; but his fhips being ftraftered in a tempeft, and ftranded on the coaft, he was suddenly attacked by Wolftoath, and all his vessels burnt and deftroyed *. The imbecility of the King was little ca- pable of repairing this mifcarriage: The treachery of Edric frustrated every plan of future defence †. And the English navy, disconcerted, discouraged, and divided, was at laft scattered into its several harbours ‡.

∥ There were 243,600 hydes in England. Consequently the ships equiped muft be 785. The cavalty was 30,450 men.
† H. Hunt. p. 361.
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Chap. III. It is impossible, and would be tedious, to relate particularly all the miseries to which the English were thenceforth exposed. We hear of nothing but the sacking and burning of towns; the devastations of the open country; the appearance of the enemy in every quarter of the kingdom; their cruel diligence in discovering any corner which had not been ransacked by their former violence. The broken and disjointed narration of the antient historians is here well adapted to the nature of the war, which was conducted by such sudden inroads, as would have been dangerous even to an united and well governed kingdom, but proved fatal, where nothing but a general consternation, and mutual diffidence and diffusion prevailed. The governors of one province refused to march to the assistance of another, and were at last terrified from assembling their forces for the defence of their own province *. General councils were assembled; but either no resolution was taken, or none was executed. And the only expedient in which the English agreed, was the base and imprudent one, of buying anew a peace of the Danes by the payment of 48,000 pounds †.

This measure did not bring them even that short interval of repose which they had expected from it. The Danes, neglecting all engagements, continued their devastations and hostilities; levied a new contribution of 8000 pounds from the county of Kent alone; murdered the archbishop of Canterbury, who had refused to countenance this exaction ‡; and the English nobility found no other resource than that of submitting every where to the Danish monarch, swearing allegiance to him, and delivering him hostages for their good behaviour §. Ethelred, equally afraid of the violence of the enemy, and the treachery of his own subjects, fled into Normandy, whither he had sent before him Queen Emma, and her two sons, Alfred and Edward ¶. Richard received his unhappy guests with a generosity which does honour to his memory.

The King had not been above six weeks in Normandy, when he heard of the death of Sweyn, who expired at Gainsborough, before he had time to establish himself in his new acquired dominions †. The English prelates and nobility, taking advantage of this event, sent over a deputation to Normandy, inviting Ethelred to return to them, expressing their desire of being governed again by their native prince, and intimating their hopes, that, being now better taught by

experience, he would avoid all those errors, which had been attended with such misfortunes to himself and to his people *. But the misconduct of Ethelred was incurable; and on his resuming the government, he discovered the same incapacity, indolence, cowardice, and credulity, which had so often exposed him to the insults of his enemies. His son-in-law, Edric, notwithstanding his repeated treasons, retained such influence at court, as to instil into the King jealousies of Sigefert and Morcar, two of the chief nobles of Mercia: He allured them into his house, where he murdered them †; while Ethelred participated in the infamy of this action, by confiscating their estates, and thrusting into a convent the widow of Sigefert. She was a woman of singular beauty and merit; and in a visit which was paid her, during her confinement, by prince Edmond, the King's eldest son, she inspired him with so violent an affection, that he released her from the convent, and soon after married her, without his father's consent ‡.

Meanwhile the English found in Canute, the son and successor of Sweyn, an enemy no less terrible than the prince, from whom death had so lately delivered them. He ravaged the eastern coast with merciless fury, and put ashore all the English hostages at Sandwich, after having cut off their hands and noses §. He was obliged, by the necessity of his affairs, to make a voyage to Denmark; but returning soon after, he continued his depredations along the southern coast; and even broke into the counties of Dorset, Wilts, and Somerset; where an army was assembled against him, under the command of prince Edmond and duke Edric. The latter still continued his perfidious machinations; and after endeavouring in vain to get the prince into his power, found means to dissipate the army, and he then openly defected to Canute with forty vessels ¶.

Notwithstanding this misfortune, Edmond was not disconcerted; but assembling together all the force of England, was in a condition to give the enemy battle. The King had had such frequent experience of perfidy among his subjects, that he had lost all confidence in them; and he remained at London, pretending sickness, but really from apprehensions, that they intended to buy their peace, by delivering him into the hands of his enemies †. The army called aloud for their sovereign to march at their head against the Danes; and on his refusal to take the field, they were so discouraged, that all these vast preparations became...
became ineffectual for the defence of the kingdom *. Edmond, deprived of all regular resources to maintain the soldiers, was obliged to commit equal ravages with those practised by the Danes †; and after making some fruitless expeditions into the north, which had submitted entirely to Canute's power, he retired to London, determined there to maintain to the last extremity the small remains of English liberty. He here found every thing in confusion by the death of the King, who expired after an unhappy and inglorious reign of thirty-five years. He left two sons by his first marriage, Edmond, who succeeded him, and Edwy, whom Canute afterwards murdered ‡. His two sons by the second marriage, Alfred and Edward, were, immediately upon Ethelred's death, conveyed into Normandy by Queen Emma.

E D M O N D Ironside.

This prince, who received the name of Ironside from his hardy valour, possessed courage and abilities sufficient to have saved his country from sinking into those calamities, but not to raise it from that abyss of misery into which it had already fallen. Among the other misfortunes of the English, treachery and disaffection had crept in among the nobility and prelates; and Edmond found no better expedient to prevent the farther progress of these fatal evils, than to lead his army instantly into the field, and to employ them against the common enemy. After meeting with some success at Gillingham ‡, he prepared himself in one general engagement to decide the fate of his crown, and at Scoerston, in the county of Gloucester, he offered battle to the enemy, who were commanded by Canute and Edric. Fortune in the beginning of the day declared for him; but Edric, having cut off the head of one Osmer, whose countenance resembled that of Edmond, he fixed it on a spear, carried it thro' the ranks in triumph, and called aloud to the English, that it was time for them to fly; for behold! the head of their sovereign §. And tho' Edmond, observing the consternation of the troops, took off his helmet †, and showed himself to them, the utmost he could gain by his activity and valour was to leave the victory undecided. Edric took now a surer method to ruin him, by pretending to desert to him; and as Edmond was well acquainted with his power, and probably knew no other of

the chief nobility in whom he could repose more confidence, he was obliged, not-
withstanding his repeated perfidy, to give him a considerable command in his ar-
my *. A battle soon after ensued at Allington in Essex, where Edric, flying
in the beginning of the day, occasioned the total defeat of the English, followed by
a great slaughter of the nobility †. The indefatigable Edmond, however, had
still resources; and assembling a new army at Gloucester, was again in a condition
to dispute the field; when the Danish and English nobility, equally harried
with these convulsions, obliged their kings to come to a compromise, and to di-
vide the kingdom between them by treaty. Canute referred to himself the
northern division of Mercia, East-Anglia, and Northumberland, which he had
entirely subdued: The southern parts were left to Edmond ‡. This prince sur-
vived the treaty about a month; and was murdered at Oxford by two of his
chamberlains, accomplices of Edric §, who thereby made way for the succession
of Canute the Dane to the crown of England.

**C A N U T E the Great.**

THE English, who had been unable to defend their country, and maintain
their independency, under so active and brave a prince as Edmond, could,
after his death, expect nothing but total subjection from Canute, who, active
and brave himself, was at the head of a great force, and was ready to take advan-
tage of the minority of Edwin and Edward, the two sons of Edmond. Yet this
conqueror, who was commonly so little scrupulous, showed himself anxious to
cover his injustice under plausible pretences; and before he seized the dominions
of the English princes, he summoned a general assembly of the states of Eng-
land, in order to fix the succession of the kingdom. He here suborned some
nobles to depose, that, in the treaty of Gloucester, it was agreed, that, in case of
Edmond's death, Canute should either be his successor in his dominions, or be
tutor to his children † (for historians vary in this particular): And this evidence,
supported by the great power of Canute, determined the states immediately to put
the Danish monarch in possession of the government. Canute, jealous of the two
young princes, but sensible that he should render himself extremely odious, if he

‡ Brompton, p. 906.
p. 907.

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ordered
Chap. III. ordered them to be dispatched in England, sent them abroad to his ally, the King of Sweden, whom he desired, so soon as they arrived at his court, to rid him, by their death, of all farther anxiety. The Swedish monarch was too generous to comply with this request; but being afraid to draw on himself a quarrel with Canute, by protecting the English princes, he sent them to Solomon, King of Hungary, to be educated in his court. The elder, Edwin, was afterwards married to Solomon's sister; but dying without issue, that prince gave his sister-in-law, Agatha, daughter of the Emperor Henry II., in marriage to Edward, the younger brother; and she bore him Edgar Atheling, Margaret, afterwards Queen of Scotland, and Christina, who retired into a convent.

Canute, tho' he had reached his great point of ambition, in obtaining possession of the English crown, was obliged at first to make great sacrifices to it; and to gratify the chief of the nobility, by bestowing on them the most extensive governments and jurisdictions. He created Thurkill earl or duke of East-Anglia, (for these titles were then nearly of the same import) Yric of Northumberland, and Edric of Mercia; reserving only to himself the administration of Wessex. But seizing afterwards a favourable opportunity, he expelled Thurkill and Yric from their governments, and banished them the kingdom. He put to death many of the English nobility, on whose fidelity he could not rely, and whom he hated on account of their infidelity to their native prince; and even the traitor, Edric, having had the assurance to reproach him with his services, was condemned to be executed, and his body to be thrown into the Thames, a suitable reward for his multiplied acts of perfidy and rebellion.

Canute also found himself obliged, in the beginning of his reign, to load the people with heavy taxes, in order to reward his Danish followers; and he exacted from them at one time the sum of 72,000 pounds; besides 11,000 pounds, which he levied from London alone. He was probably willing, from political motives, to mulct severely that city, on account of its affectionate adhering to Edmund, and its refusing, during the late reign, the Danish power in two obstinate sieges. But these rigors were imputed to necessity; and Canute, like a wise prince, was determined,
determined, that the English people, now deprived of all their dangerous leaders, should be reconciled to the Danish yoke, by the justice and equality of his administration *. He sent back to Denmark as many of his followers as he could safely spare: He restored the Saxon customs in a general assembly of the states of the kingdom †: He made no distinction between Danes and English in the distribution of justice ‡: And he took care, by a strict execution of law, to protect the lives and properties of all his people. The Danes were gradually incorporated with his new subjects; and both were glad to breathe a little from those multiplied calamities, from which the one, no less than the other, had, in their fierce contest for power, experienced such fatal consequences.

The removal of Edmond's children into so distant a country as Hungary, was, next to their death, regarded by Canute as the greatest security of his government; and he had no farther anxiety, except with regard to Alfred and Edward, who were protected and supported by their uncle, Richard, duke of Normandy. Richard even fitted out a great armament, in order to restore the English princes to the throne of their ancestors; and tho' the navy was dispersed by a storm, Canute saw the danger to which he was exposed, from the animosity of so warlike a people as the Normans. In order to acquire the friendship of the duke, he paid his addresses to Queen Emma, the sister of that prince; and promised, that he would leave the children whom he should have by that marriage, in possession of the crown of England. Richard complied with his demand, and sent over Emma to England, where she was soon after married to Canute §. The English, tho' they disapproved of her espousing the mortal enemy of her former husband and his family, were pleased to find at court a sovereign to whom they were accustomed, and who had already formed connexions with them: And thus Canute, besides securing, by his marriage, the alliance of Normandy, gradually acquired, by the same means, the confidence of his own people §. The Norman prince survived not long the marriage of Emma; and he left the inheritance of the duchy to his eldest son of the same name; who, dying a year after him without children, was succeeded by his brother Robert, a man of valour and ability.

Canute, having settled his power in England beyond all danger of a revolution, made a voyage to Denmark, where he was attacked by the King of Sweden; and he carried along with him a great body of the English, under the command of earl Godwin. This nobleman had here an opportunity of performing a

‡ W. Malmf. p. 73. ‡ Chron. Sax. p. 151. W. Malm. p. 73.
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Chap. III. Service, by which he both reconciled the King's mind to the English nation, and gaining to himself the friendship of that prince, laid the foundation of that immense fortune which he acquired to his family. He was stationed next the Swedish camp; and observing a favourable opportunity, which he was obliged suddenly to seize, he attacked the enemy in the night, drove them from their trenches, threw them into disorder, pursued his advantage, and obtained a decisive victory over them. Next morning, Canute, seeing the English camp entirely abandoned, imagined that these disaffected troops had deserted to the enemy; and he was agreeably surprised to find that they were at that time engaged in pursuit of the discomfited Swedes*. He was so pleased with this success, and the manner of obtaining it, that he bestowed his daughter in marriage upon Godwin, and treated him ever after with the most entire confidence and regard.

In another voyage, which he made afterwards to Denmark, Canute attacked Norway, and expelled the just, but unwarlike Olaus, from his kingdom, of which he retained possession till the death of that prince †. He had now by his conquests and valour attained the utmost height of his ambition; and having leisure from wars and intrigues, he felt the unsatisfactory nature of all human enjoyments; and equally weary of the glories and turmoils of this life, he began to cast his view towards that future existence, which it is so natural for the human mind, whether satiated by prosperity or disgusted with adversity, to make the object of its attention. Unfortunately, the spirit which prevailed in that age gave a wrong direction to his devotion; and instead of making atonement to those whom he had injured by his former acts of violence, he employed himself entirely in those exercises of piety, which the monks represented as the most meritorious. He built churches, he endowed monasteries‡, he enriched the ecclesiastics, and he bestowed revenues for the support of chantries at Aftlington and other places, where he appointed prayers to be said for the souls of those who had there fallen in battle against him‖. He even undertook a pilgrimage to Rome§, where he sojourned a considerable time; and besides obtaining from the Pope some privileges for the English school erected there, he engaged all the princes through whose dominions he was obliged to pass, to deftit from those heavy impositions and tolls,

‡ Ingulf, p. 61.
‖ W. Malm. p. 73. Diceto, p. 467.

which
which they were accustomed to exact from the English pilgrims*. By this spirit of devotion, no less than by his equitable and politic administration, he gained, in a good measure, the affections of his subjects.

Canute, who was the greatest and most powerful prince of his time, sovereign of Denmark and Norway, as well as of England, could not fail to meet with adulation from his courtiers; a tribute which is liberally paid even to the meanest and weakest princes. Some of his flatterers, breaking out, one day, in admiration of his grandeur, exclaimed that every thing was possible for him: Upon which the monarch, it is said, ordered his chair to be set on the sea shore, while the tide was making; and as the waters approached, he commanded them to retire, and to obey the voice of him who was lord of the ocean. He feigned to sit some time in expectation of their submission; but when the sea still advanced towards him, and began to wash him with its billows, he turned to his courtiers, and remarked to them, that every creature in the universe was feeble and impotent, and that power resided with one Being alone, in whose hands were all the elements of nature, who could say to the ocean, Thus far shalt thou go, and no farther, and who could level with his nod the most towering piles of human pride and ambition†.

The only memorable action which Canute performed after his return from Rome, was an expedition against Malcolm, King of Scotland. During the reign of Ethelred, there had been imposed a tax of a shilling a hide on all the lands of England, which was commonly called Danegelt; because the revenue had been employed either in buying peace of the Danes, or in making preparations against the inroads of that hostile nation. That prince had required, that the same tax should be paid by the lands of Cumberland, which were held by the Scots; but Malcolm, a warlike prince, told him, that, as he was always able to repulse the Danes by his own power, he would neither submit to buy peace of his enemies, nor pay others for resisting them. Ethelred, offended at this reply, which contained a secret reproach to his own conduct, undertook an expedition against Cumberland; and tho' he committed ravages upon the country, he could never bring Malcolm to a temper more submissive or compliant. Canute, after his accession, summoned the Scotch King to acknowledge himself a vassal for Cumberland to the crown of England; but Malcolm refused compliance, on pre-

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Chap. III. — tence that he owed this submissison only to those princes, who by right of blood inherited that kingdom. Canute was not of a temper to bear this insult; and the King of Scotland soon found, that the sceptre was in very different hands from those of the feeble and irrefolute Ethelred. Upon Canute's appearing on his frontiers with a formidable army, Malcolm agreed, that his grandson and heir, Duncan, whom he put in possession of Cumberland, should make the submissions required, and that the heirs of Scotland should always acknowledge themselves vassals to England for that province.

Canute passed four years in peace after this enterprise, and he died at Shaftsbury +; leaving three sons behind him, Sweyn, Harold, and Hardicanute. Sweyn, whom he had by his first marriage with Aelfwen, daughter of the earl of Hampshire, was crowned in Norway: Hardicanute, whom Emma had born him, was in possession of Denmark: Harold, who was of the same marriage with Sweyn, was at that time in England.

HAROLD Harefoot.

lity of both parties, a compromise was made; and it was agreed, that Harold should enjoy, together with London, all the provinces north of the Thames, while the possession of the south should remain to Hardicanute: And till that prince should appear and take possession of his dominions, Emma fixed her residence at Winchester, and established her authority over her son’s share of the partition.*

Meanwhile, Robert, duke of Normandy, died in a pilgrimage to the holy land, and being succeeded by a son, yet a minor, the two English princes, Alfred and Edward, who found no longer any countenance or protection in that country, gladly embraced the opportunity of paying a visit, with a numerous retinue, to their mother Emma, who seemed to be placed in a state of so much power and splendor at Winchester. But the face of affairs soon wore a more melancholy aspect. Earl Godwin had been gained by the arts of Harold, who gave him hopes, that he would espouse his daughter; and while the treaty was yet a secret, these two tyrants laid a plan for the destruction of the English princes. Alfred was invited to London by Harold with many professions of friendship; but when he had reached Guilford, he was set upon by Godwin’s vassals, about six hundred of his train were murdered in the most cruel manner, he himself was taken prisoner, his eyes were put out, and he was conducted to the monastery of Ely, where he died soon after †. Edward and Emma, apprized of the fate, which was awaiting them, fled beyond sea, the former into Normandy, the latter into Flanders ‡: While Harold, triumphing in his bloody policy, took possession, without resistance, of all the dominions assigned to his brother.

This is the only memorable action, performed, during a reign of four years, by this prince, who gave too bad a specimen of his character, and whose bodily accomplishments alone are known to us, by his appellation of Harefoot, which he acquired from his agility in running and walking. He died the 14th of April, 1039 ‖; very little regretted or esteemed by his subjects; and left the succession open to his brother, Hardicanute.

HARDICANUTE.

HARDICANUTE, or Canute the Hardy, that is, the Robust (for he too is chiefly known by his bodily accomplishments) tho’, by remaining so long...
in Denmark, he had been deprived of his share in the partition of the kingdom,
had not abandoned his pretensions, and had determined, before Harold's death,
to recover by arms, what he had lost, either by his own negligence, or by the
necessity of his affairs. On pretence of paying a visit to the Queen Dowager in
Flanders, he had assembled a fleet of sixty sail, and was preparing to make a de­
fcent on England *, when intelligence of his brother's death, induced him to sail
immediately to London, where he was received in triumph, and acknowledged
King without opposition.

The first act of Hardicanute's government afforded the English a very bad
prognostic of his future conduct. He was so enraged at Harold, for depriving
him of his share of the kingdom, and for murdering his brother, Alfred, that,
in an impotent desire of revenge against the dead, he ordered his body to be dug
up, and to be thrown into the Thames: And when it was found by some fisher­
men, and buried in London, he ordered it again to be dug up, and to be thrown
again into the Thames: But it was filled up a second time, and then interred
with great secrecy †. Godwin, equally servile and insolent, submitted to be his
instrument, in this unnatural and brutal action.

That nobleman knew, that he was universally believed to have been an ac­
complice in Alfred's death, and that he was on that account very obnoxious to
the King; and perhaps he thought, by displaying this rage against Harold's
memory, to justify himself from having had any participation in his counsels.
But prince Edward, being invited over by the King his half brother ‡, imme­
diately on his appearance, entered an accusation against Godwin for the murder
of Alfred, and demanded justice upon him for that act of barbarity. Godwin,
in order to appease the King, made him a magnificent present of a galley with a
gilt stern, rowed by four-score men, who wore each of them a gold bracelet on his
arm, weighing sixteen ounces, and was armed and cloathed in the most sum­
ptuous manner. Hardicanute, pleased with the splendor of this spectacle, quickly
forgot his brother's murder; and on Godwin's swearing that he was innocent of
that crime, he allowed him to be acquitted ‡.

Tho' Hardicanute, before his accession, had been called over by the vows of
the English, he soon lost the affections of the nation by his misconduct; but noth­ing
appeared more grievous to them, than his renewing the imposition of

Danegelt,
Danegelt, and obliging the nation to pay a great sum of money to the fleet, which brought him over from Denmark. The discontents went high in many places; and in Worcester the populace rose, and put to death two of the collectors*. The King, enraged at this opposition, swore vengeance against the city, and ordered three noblemen, Godwin, duke of Wessex, Siward, duke of Northumberland, and Leofric, duke of Mercia, to execute his menaces with the utmost rigor. They were obliged to set fire to the city, and deliver it up to be plundered by their soldiers; but they saved the lives of the inhabitants; whom they confined in a small island of the Severn, called Beverey, till, by their intercession, they were able to appease the King, and obtain the pardon of the suppliants †.

This violent government was of very short duration. Hardicanute died in two years after his accession, at the marriage of a Danish lord, which he had honoured with his presence. His usual habits of intemperance and gluttony were so well known, that, notwithstanding his robust constitution, his sudden death gave as little surprise, as it did sorrow, to his subjects.

THE English, on the death of Hardicanute, saw a favourable opportunity offered for recovering their liberty, and for shaking off the Danish yoke, under which they had so long laboured. Sweyn, King of Norway, the eldest son of Canute, was absent; and as the two last kings had died without issue, there appeared none of that race, whom the Danes could support as successor to the throne. Prince Edward was fortunately at court on his brother's demise; and tho' the descendants of Edmond Ironside were the true heirs of the Saxon family, yet their absence in so remote a country as Hungary, appeared a sufficient reason for their exclusion to a people like the English, so little accustomed to observe a regular order in the succession of their monarchs. All delays might be dangerous; and the present occasion must hastily be embraced; while the Danes, without concert, without a leader, astonished at the present incident, and anxious only for their personal safety, dared not to oppose the united voice of the whole nation.

But this concurrence of circumstances in Edward's favour might have failed of its effect, had his succession been opposed by Godwin, whose power, alliances, and abilities gave him a great influence at all times, much more in those sudden

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Chap. III. emergencies, which always attend a revolution of government, and which, either seized or neglected, commonly prove so decisive. There were circumstances, which divided men's hopes and fears with regard to their expectations of Godwin's conduct. On the one hand, the credit of that nobleman lay chiefly in Wessex, which was almost entirely peopled with English; and it was therefore presumed, that he would second the wishes of his people, in restoring the Saxon line, and in humbling the Danes, from whom he, as well as they, had reason to dread, as they had already felt, the most grievous oppressions. On the other hand, there subsisted a declared animosity between Edward and Godwin, on account of Alfred's murder; of which the latter had publicly been accused by the prince, and which he might believe so deep an offence, as could never, on account of any subsequent merits, be sincerely pardoned. But their common friends here interposed; and representing the necessity of their good correspondence, obliged them to lay aside all jealousy and rancour, and concur in restoring liberty to their native country. Godwin only stipulated, that Edward, as a pledge of his sincere reconciliation, should promise to marry his daughter, Editha*; and having fortified himself by this alliance, he summoned at Gillingham a general council of the nation, and prepared every measure for securing the succession to Edward. The English were unanimous and zealous in their resolutions; the Danes were divided and dispirited: Any small opposition, which appeared in this assembly, was brow-beaten and suppressed; and Edward was crowned King with the highest demonstrations of duty and affection †.

The triumph of the English, upon this signal and decisive advantage, was at first attended with some insult and violence against the Danes; but the new King, by the mildness of his character, soon reconciled the latter to his administration, and the distinction between the two nations gradually disappeared. They were interfused with the English in most of the provinces; they spoke nearly the same tongue; they differed little in their manners and laws; the prevalence of domestic dissensions in Denmark, prevented, for a long time, any powerful invasion from thence ‡, which might awaken their animosities; and as the Norman conquest, which ensued soon after, reduced both nations to equal subjection, there is no farther mention in our histories of any difference between them. The joy, however, of their present deliverance made such impression on the minds of the

English, that they instituted an annual festival for celebrating that great event; Chap. III.

and it was observed in some counties, even to the age of Spellman *.

The popularity, which Edward enjoyed on his accession, was not destroyed by the first act of his administration, the resuming all the grants of his immediate predecessors; an attempt, which is commonly attended with the most dangerous consequences. The poverty of the crown convinced the nation, that this act of violence was become absolutely necessary; and as the loss fell chiefly on the Danes, who had obtained large grants from the late Kings, their countrymen, on account of their services in subduing the kingdom, the English were rather pleased to see them reduced to their primitive poverty. The King's severity also towards his mother the Queen-dowager, tho' exposed to some more censure, met not with very general disapprobation. He had hitherto lived on very indifferent terms with that princess: He accused her of neglecting him and his brother during their adverse fortune †: He remarked, that as the superior qualities of Canute, and his better treatment of her ‡, had made her entirely indifferent to the memory of Ethelred, she also gave the preference to her children of the second bed, and always regarded Hardicanute as her favourite. The same reasons had probably made her unpopular in England; and tho' her benefactions to the monks obtained her the favour of that order, the nation was not, in general, displeased to see her stripped by Edward of immense treasures which she had amassed §. He confined her, during the remainder of her life, to a monastery in Winchester; but carried no farther his rigor against her. The stories of his accusing her of a participation in her son, Alfred's murder, and of a criminal correspondence with the bishop of Winchester, and also of her justifying herself by treading unhurt with her bare feet over nine burning plow-shares, were the inventions of the monkish historians, and were propagated and believed from the silly wonder of posterity $.

The English flattered themselves, that, by the accession of Edward, they were delivered for ever from the dominion of foreigners; but they soon found, that that evil was not yet entirely removed. The King had been educated in Normandy; and had contracted many intimacies with the natives of that country, as well as an affection to their manners. The court of England was soon filled with Normans, who being distinguished, both by the favour of Edward, and

‡ W. Malm. p. 64, 80. Brompton, p. 506.
$ Higden, p. 277. ‡ Ingulph, p. 62.
HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

Chap. III. by a degree of cultivation somewhat superior to that of the English in those ages, soon rendered their language, customs and laws fashionable in the kingdom. The study of the French tongue became general among the people. The courtiers affected to imitate that nation in their dress, equipage and entertainments: Even the lawyers employed a foreign language in their deeds and papers*: But above all, the church felt the influence and dominion of these strangers; Ulf and William, two Normans, who had formerly been the King’s chaplains, were created bishops of Dorchester and London. Robert was promoted to the see of Canterbury †, and always enjoyed the highest favour of his master, of which his abilities rendered him not unworthy. And tho’ the King’s prudence or his want of authority, made him confer almost all the civil and military employments on the natives, the ecclesiastical preferments fell often to the share of the Normans; and as the latter possessed Edward’s confidence, they had secretly a great influence on public affairs, and excited the jealousy of the English, particularly of earl Godwin ‡.

This powerful nobleman, besides being duke or earl of Wessex, had annexed to his government the counties of Kent and Sussex. His eldest son, Sweyn, possessed the same authority in the counties of Oxford, Berks, Gloucester and Hereford: And Harold, his second son, was duke of East Anglia, augmented by the government of Essex ||. The exorbitant authority of this family was supported by immense possessions and powerful alliances; and the abilities, as well as ambition, of Godwin himself contributed to render it still more dangerous. A prince of greater capacity and vigour than Edward, would have found it difficult to support the dignity of the crown under such circumstances; and as the haughty temper of Godwin made him often forget the respect due to his prince, Edward’s animosity against him was grounded on personal as well as political considerations, on recent as well as more antient injuries. The King, in pursuance of his engagements, had indeed married Editha, the daughter of Godwin §; but this alliance became rather the source of enmity between them. Edward’s hatred of the father was transferred to that prince’s; and Editha, tho’ possessed of many amiable accomplishments, never could acquire the confidence and affection of her husband. It is even pretended, that, during the whole course of his life, he abstained from all commerce of love with her; and such was the absurd admiration, paid to an inviolable chastity, during those ages, that his con-

duct in this particular is highly celebrated by the monikish historians, and contributed to his acquiring the title of saint and confessor *.

The most popular pretence, on which Godwin could ground his discontents against the King and his administration, was to complain of the influence of the Normans in the government; and a declared opposition had thence arisen between him and these favourites. It was not long before this animosity broke out into action. Eustace, count of Boulogne, having paid a visit to the King, passed by Dover on his return; and one of his train, being refused access to a lodging, which had been assigned him, attempted to make his way by force, and he wounded the master of the house in the contest. The townsman revenged this insult by the death of the stranger; the count and his train took arms, and murdered the townsman within his own house; a tumult ensued; near twenty persons were killed on each side; and Eustace, being overpowered with numbers, was obliged by flight to save his life from the fury of the populace †. He hurried immediately to court; complained of the usage he had met with; the King entered zealously into the quarrel, and resented that a stranger of such distinction, whom he had invited over to his court, should, without any just cause, as he believed, have felt so sensibly the insolence and animosity of his people. He gave orders to Godwin, in whose government Dover lay, to go immediately to the place, and to punish the inhabitants for the crime: But Godwin, who desired rather to encourage, than to repress, the popular discontent against foreigners, refused obedience, and endeavoured to throw the whole blame on the count of Boulogne, and his retinue ‡. Edward, touched in so sensible a point, saw the necessity of exerting the royal authority; and he threatened Godwin, if he persisted in his disobedience, to make him feel the utmost effects of his resentment.

The earl, perceiving a rupture to be unavoidable, and pleased to embark in a cause, wherein he was likely to be supported by his countrymen, prepared for his own defence, or rather for an attack on Edward; and under pretence of repressing some disorders on the Welsh frontier, he secretly assembled a great army, and was approaching the King, who resided, without any military force, and without suspicion, at Gloucester ‡. Edward then applied for protection to Siward, duke of Northumberland, and Leofric, duke of Mercia, two powerful noblemen, whose jealousy of Godwin's greatness, as well as their duty to the crown, enga-

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ged them to defend the King in this extremity. They hastened to him with such
of their followers as they could assemble on the sudden; and finding the danger
still greater than they had apprehended, they issued orders for mustering all the
forces within their government, and for marching them without delay to the de-
fence of the King’s person and authority*. Edward, meanwhile, endeavoured to
protract time by negotiation; while Godwin, who thought the King entirely in
his power, and who was willing to save appearances, fell into the snare; and not
sensible, that he ought to have no farther reserve after he had proceeded so far,
he lost the favourable opportunity of rendering himself master of the govern-
ment.

The English, tho’ they had not a very high idea of Edward’s vigour and ca-
pacity, bore him great affection on account of his humanity, justice, and piety,
as well as of the long race of their native kings, from whom he was descended;
and they hastened from all quarters to defend him from the present danger. His
army was now so considerable, that he ventured to take the field; and marching
to London, he summoned a great council of the kingdom, to judge of the rebel-
lion of Godwin and his sons. These noblemen pretended at first that they were
willing to stand their trial; but having in vain endeavoured to make their adhe-
rents persist in rebellion†, they offered to come to London, provided they might
receive hostages for their safety‡: and this proposal being rejected, they were obli-
ged to disband the remains of their forces, and to have recourse to flight||. Bald-
win, earl of Flanders, gave protection to Godwin and his three sons, Gurth, Sweyn,
and Tosti; the latter of whom had married the daughter of that prince: Harold
and Leofwin, two others of his sons, took shelter in Ireland§. The estates of
the father and sons were confiscated: Their governments were given to others:
Queen Editha was confined to a monastery at Warewel: And the greatness of
this family, once so formidable, seemed now to be totally supplanted and over-
thrown¶.

But Godwin had fixed his authority on too firm a basis, and he was too
strongly supported by alliances both abroad and at home, not to occasion farther
disturbances, and make new efforts for his re-establishment. The earl of Flan-
ders allowed him to purchase and hire ships within his harbours; and Godwin,
having manned them with his followers, and with free-booters of all nations, put
to sea, and attempted to make a descent at Sandwich. The King, informed of

§ Hoveden, p. 444. Higden, p. 279. Aur. Beverl. p. 120.
his preparations, had equipped a considerable fleet, much superior to that of the enemy; and the earl hastily, before their appearance, made his retreat into the Flemish harbours. The English court, allured by the present security, and devoid of all vigorous councils, allowed the seamen to disband, and the fleet to go to decay; while Godwin, expecting this event, kept his men in a readiness for action. He put to sea immediately, and sailed to the isle of Wight, where he was joined by Harold with a squadron, which that nobleman had collected in Ireland. He was now master of the sea; and entering every harbour in the southern coast, he seized all the ships, and summoned his followers in those counties, which had so long been subjected to his government, to assist him in procuring justice to himself, his family, and his country, against the tyranny of foreigners. Reinforced by great numbers from all quarters, he entered the Thames; and appearing at London, threw every thing into confusion. The King alone seemed resolute to defend himself to the last extremity; but the interposition of the English nobility, many of whom favoured Godwin's pretensions, made Edward hearken to terms of accommodation; and the feigned humility of the earl, who disclaimed all intentions of offering violence to his sovereign, and defined only to justify himself by a fair and open trial, paved the way for his more easy admission. It was stipulated, that he should give hostages for his good behaviour, and that the primate and all the foreigners should be banished: And by this treaty, the present danger of a civil war was obviated, but the authority of the crown was considerably impaired, or rather entirely annihilated. Edward, sensible that he had not power sufficient to secure Godwin's hostages in England, sent them over to his kinsman, the young duke of Normandy.

Godwin's death, which happened soon after, while he was sitting at table with the King, prevented him from establishing fully the exorbitant authority which he had acquired, and from reducing Edward to still greater subjection. He was succeeded in the government of Westsex, Suffolk, Kent, and Essex, and in the office of steward of the household, a place of great power, by his son,
Harold, who was actuated by an ambition equal to that of his father, and was superior to him in address, in insinuation, and in virtue. By a modest and gentle demeanour, he acquired the good-will of Edward; at least, softened that hatred which the prince had so long borne his family*; and gaining every day new partizans by his bounty and affability, he proceeded, in a more silent, and therefore a more dangerous manner, to the increase of his authority. The King, who had not sufficient vigour directly to oppose his progress, knew of no other expedient than that hazardous one, of raising him a rival in the family of Leofric, duke of Mercia, whose son, Algar, was invested in the government of East-Anglia, which, before the banishment of Harold, had belonged to this latter nobleman. But this policy, of balancing opposite parties, required a more steady hand to manage it than that of Edward, and naturally produced faction, and even civil broils, among nobles of such mighty and independant authority. Algar was soon after expelled his government by the intrigues and power of Harold †; but being protected by Griffith prince of Wales, who had married his daughter, as well as by the power of his father, Leofric, he obliged Harold to submit to an accommodation, and was re-instituted in the government of East-Anglia. This peace was not of long continuance: Harold taking advantage of Leofric's death, which happened soon after, expelled Algar anew, and banished him the kingdom‡: And tho' that nobleman made a fresh irruption into East-Anglia with an army of Norwegians, and over-run the countryyll, his death, a short time after, freed Harold from the pretensions of so dangerous a rival. Edward his eldest son, was indeed advanced to the government of Mercia; but the balance, which the King desired to establish between these powerful families, was entirely lost, and the influence of Harold entirely preponderated.

The death of Siward, duke of Northumberland, made the way still more open to the ambition of that nobleman. Siward, besides his other merits, had acquired honour to England, by his successful conduct of the only foreign enterprise which was undertaken during the reign of Edward. Duncan, King of Scotland, was a prince of a very gentle disposition, but possessed not vigour sufficient to govern a country so turbulent, and so much infested by the intrigues and animosities of the great. Macbeth, a powerful nobleman, and nearly allied to the crown, not contented with curbing the King's authority, carried farther his pestilent ambition: He put his sovereign to death; chased Malcolm Ken-

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mure, his son and heir, into England; and usurped the crown. Siward, whose daughter was married to Duncan, embraced, by Edward's orders, the protection of this distressed family: He marched an army into Scotland; and having defeated and killed Macbeth in battle, he restored Malcolm to the throne of his ancestors*. This service, added to his former connections with the royal family of Scotland, brought great accession to the authority of Siward in the north; but as he had lost his eldest son, Ofbern, in the action with Macbeth, it proved in the issue fatal to his family. His second son, Walthoef, appeared, on his father's death, too young to be entrusted with the government of Northumberland; and Harold's influence obtained that dukedom to his brother, Toifi†.

There are two circumstances related of Siward, which discover his high sense of honour and his martial disposition. When intelligence was brought him of his son Ofbern's death, he was inconsolable; till he heard, that the wound was received in the breast, and that he had behaved with great gallantry in the action‡. When he found his own death approaching, he ordered his servants to clothe him in a complete suit of armour; and sitting erect on the couch, with a spear in his hand, declared, that, in that posture, the only one worthy of a warrior, he would patiently await the fatal moment§.

The King, now worn with cares and infirmities, felt himself far advanced in the decline of life; and having no issue himself, began to think of fixing a successor to the kingdom. He sent a deputation into Hungary, to invite over his nephew, Edward, son to his elder brother, and the only remaining heir of the Saxon line§. That prince, whose succession to the crown would have been easy and undisputed, came over to England with his children, Edgar, surnamed Atheling, Margaret, and Christina; but his death, which happened a few days after his arrival, threw the King into new difficulties. He saw, that the great power and ambition of Harold had tempted him to think of obtaining possession of the throne on the first vacancy, and that Edgar, on account of his youth and inexperience, was very unfit to oppose the pretensions of so popular and enterprising a rival. The animosity which he had long borne earl Godwin, made him averse to the succession of his son; and he could not, without extreme reluctance, think of an increase of grandeur to a family, which had risen on the ruins of royal authority, and which, by the murder of Alfred, his brother, had contributed so much to the weakening the Saxon line. In this uncertainty, he secretly cast his eye

eye towards his kinsman, William, duke of Normandy, as the only person whose
power, and character, and capacity, could support any destination which he
might make to the exclusion of Harold, and his family.

This famous prince was natural son of Robert, duke of Normandy, by Har-
lotta, daughter of a tanner in Falaise, and was very early established in that
grandeur, from which his birth seemed to have set him at so great a distance.
While he was but nine years of age, his father had resolved to undertake a pil-
grimage to Jerusalem; a fashionable act of devotion, which had taken place of
the pilgrimages to Rome, and which, as it was attended with more difficulty
and danger, and carried these religious adventurers to the first sources of Chris-
tianity, appeared to them much more pious and meritorious. Before his depar-
ture, he assembled the states of the duchy; and informing them of his purpose,
he engaged them to swear allegiance to his natural son, William, whom, as he
had no legitimate issue, he intended, in case he should die in the pilgrimage, to
leave successor to his dominions. As he was a prudent prince, he could not
but foresee the great inconveniencies which must attend his journey, and this set-
tlement of his succession; arising from the natural turbulence of the great, the
claims from other branches of the ducal family, and the power of the French
monarch: But all these views were superseded by the prevailing zeal for pilgri-
mares; and probably, the more important they were, the more would Robert
exult in sacrificing them to what he imagined to be his religious duty.

This prince, as he had apprehended, died in his pilgrimage; and the minor-
ity of his son was attended with all those inconveniencies, which were unavail-
able in his situation. The licentious nobles, freed from the awe of sovereign au-
thority, broke out into personal animosities against each other, and made the
whole country a scene of war and devastation. Roger, count of Tonie, and
Alain, count of Brittany, advanced pretensions to the dominion of the state; and
Henry I. King of France, thought the opportunity favourable for reducing the
power of a vassal, who had at first acquired his settlement in such a violent and
invidious manner, and who had long appeared formidable to his sovereign. The
regency established by Robert found great difficulties in supporting the go-
vernment against this complication of dangers; and the young prince, when he
came to age, found himself reduced to a very low condition. But the great qua-
}
Edward the Confessor

Cour and conduct prevailed in every action. He obliged the French King to grant him peace on reasonable terms; he expelled all pretenders to the sovereignty; and he reduced his turbulent barons to pay submission to his authority, and to suspend their mutual animosities. The natural severity of his temper appeared in a rigorous administration of justice; and having found the happy effects of this plan of government, without which the laws in those ages became totally impotent, he established it as a fixed maxim, that an inflexible conduct was the first duty of a sovereign.

The tranquillity which he had established in his dominions had given William leisure to pay a visit to the King of England during the time of Godwin's banishment; and he was received in a manner suitable to the great reputation which he had acquired, to the relation by which he was connected with Edward, and to the obligations which that prince had owed to his family *. On the return of Godwin, and the expulsion of the Norman favourites, Robert, archbishop of Canterbury, had, before his departure, persuaded Edward to think of adopting William as his successor; a council, which was favoured by the King's aversion to Godwin, his possessions towards the Normans, and his esteem of the duke. That prelate, therefore, received a commission to inform William of the King's intentions in his favour; and he was the first person who opened the mind of the prince to entertain these ambitious hopes †. But Edward, irresolute and feeble in his purpose, finding that the English would more easily acquiesce in the restoration of the Saxon line, had, in the mean while, invited his brother's descendants from Hungary, with a view of having them recognized heirs to the throne ‡. The death of his nephew, and the inexperience and unpromising qualities of young Edgar, made him resume his former intentions in favour of the duke of Normandy; though his aversion to hazardous enterprises engaged him to postpone the execution, and even to keep his purpose secret from all his ministers.

Harold, meanwhile, proceeded, after a more open manner, in increasing his popularity, in establishing his power, and in preparing the way for his advancement on the first vacancy of the throne; an event which, from the age and infirmities of the King, appeared not very distant. But there was still an obstacle, which it was requisite for him previously to overcome. Earl Godwin, when restored to his power and fortune, had given hostages for his good beha-

Chap. III. viiour; and among the rest one son and one grandson, whom Edward, for greater security, had sent over to be kept in Normandy. Harold, tho' he was not aware of the duke's being his competitor, was uneasy, that such near relations should be detained prisoners in a foreign country; and he was afraid, that William would, in favour of Edgar, retain these pledges as a check on the ambition of any other pretender*. He represented, therefore, to the King his unfeigned submission to royal authority, his steady duty to his prince, and the little necessity there was, after such an uniform trial of his obedience, to detain any longer those hostages, who had been required on the first composing of civil discords. By these topics, enforced by his great power, he extorted the King's consent to release them; and to effectuate his purpose he immediately proceeded, with a numerous retinue, on his journey to Normandy †. A tempest drove him on the territory of Guy, count of Ponthieu, who, being informed of his quality, immediately detained him prisoner ‡, and demanded an exorbitant sum for his ransom. Harold found means to convey intelligence of his condition to the duke of Normandy; and represented, that, while he was proceeding to his court, in execution of a commission from the King of England, he had met with this harsh treatment from the mercenary disposition of the count of Ponthieu.

William was immediately sensible of the importance of the incident. He foresaw, that, if he could once gain Harold, either by favours or menaces, his way to the throne of England would be open, and Edward would meet with no farther obstacle in executing the favourable intentions which he had entertained in his behalf. He sent, therefore, an ambassador to Guy, in order to demand the liberty of his prisoner; and that nobleman, not daring to refuse so great a prince, put Harold into the hands of the Norman ambassador, who conducted him to Rouen ||. William received him with every demonstration of respect and friendship; and after showing himself disposed to comply with his desire, in delivering up the hostages, he took an opportunity of disclosing to him the great secret, of his pretensions to the crown of England, and of the will which Edward intended to make in his favour. He desired the assistance of Harold in perfecting that design; he made professions of the utmost gratitude in return for so great an obligation; he promised that the present grandeur of Harold's family, which supported itself with difficulty under the jealousy and hatred of Edward, should receive new increase from a successor, who would be so sensibly beholden
to him for his advancement. Harold was surprized with this declaration of the duke; but being sensible, that he could never recover his own liberty, much less that of his brother and nephew, if he refused the demand, he signed a compliance with William, renounced all hopes of the crown for himself, and professed his sincere intention of supporting the will of Edward, and seconding the pretensions of the duke of Normandy. William, to tie him faster to his service, besides offering him his daughter in marriage *, required him to take an oath, that he would fulfil his promises; and in order to render that oath more binding, he employed an artifice, well suited to the ignorance and superstition of the age. He secretly conveyed under the altar, on which Harold agreed to swear, the reliques of some of the most respefted martyrs; and when Harold had taken the oath, he showed him the reliques, and admonished him to observe religiously an engagement, which had been ratified by so tremendous a sanction †. The English nobleman was astonished; but dissembling his concern, he renewed the same professions, and was dismissed with all the marks of mutual confidence by the duke of Normandy.

When Harold found himself at liberty, his ambition suggested casuistry sufficient to justify to him the violation of an oath, which had been extorted from him by fear, and which, if fulfilled, might be attended with the subjection of his native country to a foreign power. He continued still to practice every art of popularity; to increase the number of his partizans; to reconcile the minds of the English to the idea of his succession; to revive their hatred of the Normans; and by an ostentation of his power and influence, to deter the timorous Edward from executing his intended destination in favour of William. Fortune, about this time, threw two incidents in his way, by which he was enabled to acquire general favour, and to encrease the character, which he had already obtained, of virtue and capacity.

The Welsh, tho' a less formidable enemy than the Danes, had been long accustomed to infest the western borders; and after committing spoil on the low countries, they usually made a hasty retreat into their mountains, where they were sheltered from the pursuit of their enemies, and were ready to seize the first favourable opportunity of renewing their depredations. Griffith, their present prince, had much distinguished himself in these incursions; and his name had become so terrible to the English, that Harold found he could do nothing more:

acceptable to the public, and more honourable to himself, than the suppressing so dangerous an enemy. He formed the plan of an expedition against Wales; and having prepared some light armed foot to pursue the natives into their fastnesses, some cavalry to scour the open country, and a squadron of ships to attack the sea-coast, he employed at once all these forces against the Welsh, prosecuted his advantages with vigour, made no intermission in his assaults, and at last reduced the enemy to such distress, that, in order to prevent their total destruction, they made a sacrifice of their prince, whose head they cut off, and sent to Harold; and they were contented to receive as their sovereigns two Welsh noblemen appointed by Edward to rule over them*. The other incident was no less honourable to Harold.

Tofti, the elder brother of this nobleman, had been created duke of Northumberland; but being of a violent, tyrannical temper, had practised such cruelty and injustice over the inhabitants, that they rose in rebellion against him, and chased him from his government. Morcar and Edwin, two brothers, who possessed great power in those quarters, and who were grandsons of the great duke, Leofric, concurred in the insurrection; and the former, being elected duke, advanced with an army, to oppose Harold, who was commissioned by the King to reduce and punish the Northumbrians. Before the armies came to action, Morcar, well acquainted with the generous disposition of the English commander, endeavoured to justify his conduct; and represented to him, that Tofti had behaved in a manner unworthy of the station to which he was advanced, and no one, not even a brother, could support such tyranny, without participating, in some degree, of the infamy attending it; that the Northumbrians, accustomed to a legal administration, and regarding it as their birth-right, were willing to submit to the King, but required a governor who would pay regard to their rights and privileges; that they had been taught by their ancestors, that death was preferable to servitude, and had come to the field determined to perish, rather than bear a renewal of those indignities, to which they had been so long exposed; and they trusted, that Harold, on reflection, would not defend in another that violent conduct, from which, in his own government, he had always kept at so great a distance†. This vigorous remonstrance was accompanied with such a detail of facts, so well supported, that Harold found it prudent to abandon his brother's cause; and returning to Edward, he persuaded him to pardon the Northumbrians, and to confirm Morcar in the government‡. He even married the sister of that

† Higden, p. 283.
nobleman*; and by his interest procured Edwin, the younger brother, to be elected into the government of Mercia. To foil in a rage departıed the kingdom, and took shelter in Flanders with earl Baldwin, his father-in-law †.

By this marriage, Harold broke all measures with the duke of Normandy; and William clearly perceived, that he could no longer rely on the oaths and promises, which he had extorted from him. But the English nobleman thought himself now in such a situation, that it was no longer necessary for him to dissimulate. He had in his conduct against the Northumbrians given such a specimen of his moderation as had gained him the affections of his countrymen. He saw, that almost all England was under the command of himself or his friends; while he possessed the government of Wessex, Morcar that of Northumberland, and Edwin that of Mercia. He now openly aspired to the succession; and insisted, that, since it was necessary, by the confession of all, to set aside the royal family, on account of the imbecility of Edgar, the sole surviving heir, there was no one so capable of filling the throne, as a nobleman, of great power, of mature age, of long experience, of approved courage and ability, who being a native of the kingdom, would effectually secure it against the dominion and tyranny of foreigners. Edward, broken with age and infirmities, saw the difficulties too great for him to encounter; and tho' his inveterate pretensions kept him from seconding the pretensions of Harold, he took but feeble and irresolute steps for securing the succession to the duke of Normandy ‡.

While he continued in this uncertainty, he was surprized by sickness, which brought

* Order Vitalis, p. 492.
‡ The whole story of the transactions between Edward, Harold, and the duke of Normandy is told so differently by the ancient writers, that there are few important passages of the English history liable to so great uncertainty. I have followed the account, which appeared to me the most consistent and probable. It does not seem likely, that Edward ever executed a will in the duke's favour, much less that he got it ratified by the states of the kingdom, as is affirmed by some. The will would have been known to all, and would have been produced by the Conqueror, to whom it gave so plausible, and really so just a title; but the doubtful and ambiguous manner in which he seems always to have mentioned it, proves, that he could only plead the known intentions of that monarch in his favour, which he was defirous to call a will. There is indeed a charter of the Conqueror, preferred by Dr. Hicke, vol. i, where he calls himself rex hereditarius, meaning heir by will; but a prince, possessed of so much power, and attended with so much success, may employ what pretences he pleases: It is sufficient to refute his pretences to observe, that there is a great difference and variation among the historians with regard to a point, which, had it been real, must have been agreed upon by all of them.

Again, some historians, particularly Malmesbury and Matthew Welfminder, affirm that Harold had no intention of going over to Normandy, but that taking the air in a pleasure-boat on the coast, he
brought him to his grave, on the fifth of January 1066, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and twenty-fifth of his reign.

This prince, to whom the monks gave the title of saint and confessor, was the last of the Saxon line, who ruled in England; and tho' his reign was peaceful and fortunate, he owed this prosperity less to his own ability than to the conjunctures of the times. The Danes, employed in other enterprises, attempted not those incursions, which had been so troublesome to all his predecessors, and fatal to some of them. The facility of his disposition made him acquiesce under the government of Godwin and his son Harold; and the capacity, as well as the power of these noblemen, enabled them, while they were intrusted with authority, to preserve domestic peace and tranquility. The most commendable circumstance of Edward's government was his attention to the administration of justice, and his compiling for that purpose a body of laws, which he collected from the laws of Ethelbert, Ina, and Alfred. This compilation, tho' now lost (for the laws that pass under Edward's name were composed afterwards *) were long the objects of affection to the English nation.

Edward the Confessor was the first who touched for the King's evil: The opinion of his sanctity procured belief to this cure among the people; and his successors regarded it as a part of their power and grandeur to uphold the same opinion. It has been continued down to our time; and the practice was first dropped by the present royal family, who observed, that it could no longer give amazement even to the populace, and was attended with ridicule in the eyes of all men of understanding.

Harold had so well prepared matters before the death of the King, that he immediately stepped into the vacant throne; and his accession was attended

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* Spelm. in verbo Ballivus.
tended with as little opposition and disturbance, as if he had succeeded by the most undoubted hereditary title. The citizens of London were his zealous partizans: The bishops and clergy had adopted his cause: And all the most powerful nobility, connected with him by alliance or friendship, willingly seconded his pretensions. The title of Edgar Atheling was scarce ever mentioned: Much less, the claim of the duke of Normandy: And Harold, assembling the council, received the crown from their hands, without waiting for any regular meeting of the states, or submitting the question to their free choice or determination *. If there were any malecontents at this resolution, they were obliged to conceal their sentiments; and the new prince, taking a general silence for consent, and founding his title on the supposed suffrages of the people, which appeared unanimous, was, on the day immediately succeeding Edward's death, crowned and anointed King, by Aldred, archbishop of York. The whole nation seemed joyfully to swear allegiance to him.

The first symptoms of danger, which the King discovered, came from abroad, and from his own brother, Tostig, who had submitted to a voluntary banishment in Flanders. Enraged at the successful ambition of Harold, to which he himself had fallen a sacrifice, he filled the court of Baldwin with complaints of the injustice, which he had suffered: He engaged the interest of that family against his brother: He endeavoured to form intrigues with some malecontent nobility of England: He sent his emissaries to Norway, in order to rouse to arms the freebooters of that kingdom, and excite their hopes of reaping advantage from the unsettled state of affairs on the usurpation of the new King: And that he might render the combination more formidable, he made a journey to Normandy; in expectation, that the duke, who had married Matilda, another daughter of Baldwin, would, in revenge of his own injuries, as well as those of Tostig, second, by his councils and forces, the projected invasion of England †.

The duke of Normandy, when he first received intelligence of Harold's intrigues and accession, had been moved to the highest pitch of indignation; but that he might give the better colour to his pretensions, he sent over an embassy to England, upbraiding that prince with his breach of faith, and summoning him to resign immediately possession of the kingdom. Harold replied to the Norman ambassadors, that the oath with which he was reproached, had been extorted by


† Order. Vitalis, p. 492.
the well-grounded fear of violence, and could never, for that reason, be regarded as obligatory: That he had had no commission, either from the late King or the states of England, who alone could dispose of the crown, to make any tender of the succession to the duke of Normandy; and if he, a private person, had assumed so much authority, and had even voluntarily sworn to support the duke's pretensions, the oath was unlawful, and it was his duty to seize the first opportunity of breaking it: That he had obtained the crown by the unanimous suffrages of the people; and should show himself totally unworthy of their favour, did he not strenuously maintain those national liberties, with which they had entrusted him: And that the duke, if he made any attempt by force of arms, should experience the power of an united nation, conducted by a prince, who, sensible of the obligations, imposed on him by his royal dignity, was determined, that the same moment should put a period to his life and to his government.*

This answer was no other than William expected; and he had previously fixed his resolution of making an attempt upon England. Consulting only his courage, his resentment, and his ambition, he overlooked all the difficulties, which must attend an attack of a great kingdom by such inferior force, and he saw only the circumstances, which would facilitate his enterprise. He considered, that England, ever since the accesion of Canute, had enjoyed a most profound tranquillity, during a period of near fifty years; and it would require time for its soldiers, enervated by long peace, to learn discipline, and its generals experience. He knew, that it was entirely unprovided of fortified towns, by which it could prolong the war; but must venture its whole fortune in one decisive action against a veteran enemy, who, being once master of the field, would be in a condition to over-run the kingdom. He saw, that Harold, tho' he had given proofs of vigor and bravery, had newly mounted a throne, which he had acquired by faction, from which he had excluded a very antient royal family, and which was likely to totter under him by its own instability, much more if shaken by any violent external impulse. And he hoped, that the very circumstance of his crossing the seas, quitting his own country, and leaving himself no hopes of retreat; as it would astonish the enemy by the boldness of the enterprise, would inspirit his soldiers from despair, and rouze them to sustain the reputation of the Norman arms.

The Normans, as they had long been distinguished by valour among all the European nations, had at this time attained to the highest pitch of military renown and glory. Besides acquiring by arms such a noble territory in France,

besides defending it against continual attempts of the French monarch and all its neighbours, besides exerting many actions of vigor under their present sovereign; they had, about this very time, revived their ancient fame, by the most hazardous exploits, and the most wonderful successes, in the other extremity of Europe. A few Norman adventurers in Italy had acquired such an ascendancy, not only over the Italians and Greeks, but the Germans, and Saracens, that they expelled these foreigners, procured to themselves ample establishments, and laid the foundation of the opulent kingdom of Naples and Sicily *. These enterprizes of men, who were all of them vassals in Normandy, many of them banished for faction and rebellion, excited the ambition of the haughty William; who disdained, after such examples of fortune and valour, to be deterred from making an attack on a neighbouring country, where he could be supported by the whole force of his principality.

The situation also of Europe inspired William with hopes, that besides his brave Normans, he might employ against England the flower of the military force, which was dispersed in all the other states. France, Germany and the Low Countries, by the progress of the feudal institutions, were divided and subdivided into many small principalities and baronies; and the possessors, enjoying the civil jurisdiction within themselves, as well as the right of arms, acted, in many respects, as independant sovereigns, and maintained their properties and privileges, less by the authority of laws, than by their own force and valour. A military spirit had universally diffused itself throughout Europe; and the several leaders, whose minds were elevated by their princely situation, greedily embraced the most adventurous enterprizes, and being accustomed to nothing from their infancy but recitals of the successes attending wars and battles, they were prompted by a natural ambition to imitate those adventures, which they heard so much celebrated, and which were so much exaggerated by the credulity of the age. United, however loosely, by their duty to one superior lord, and by their connexions with the great body of the community, to which they belonged, they desired to spread their fame each beyond his own district; and, in all assemblies, whether instituted for civil deliberations, for military expeditions, or merely for show and entertainment, to outshine each other by the reputation of strength and prowess. Hence their genius for chivalry; hence their impatience of peace and tranquility; and hence their readiness to embark in any hazardous enterprize, however little interested in its failure or success.

William, by his power, his courage, and his abilities, had long maintained a pre-eminence among those haughty chieftains; and every one who desired to

Chap. III. distinguished himself by his address in military exercises, or his valor in action; had been ambitious of acquiring a reputation in the court and in the armies of Normandy. Entertained with that hospitality and courtesy, which distinguished the age, they had formed attachments with the prince, and greedily attended to the prospects of glory and advantage, which he promised them in return for their concurrence in an expedition against England. The more grandeur appeared in the attempt, the more it suited their romantic spirit: The fame of the intended invasion was already diffused everywhere: Multitudes crowded to tender to the duke their service, with that of their vassals and retainers: And William found less difficulty in completing his levies, than in choosing the most veteran and experienced forces, and in rejecting the offers of those, who were impatient to acquire fame under so renowned a leader.

Besides these advantages, which William owed to his personal valor and good conduct; he was beholden to fortune for procuring him some assistances, and for removing many obstacles, which it was natural for him to expect in an undertaking, where all his neighbours were so deeply interested. Conan, duke of Brittany, was his mortal enemy; and in order to throw a damp upon his enterprise, he chose this juncture for reviving his claim to Normandy itself; and he required, that, in case of William's success against England, the possession of that duchy might devolve to him. But Conan died suddenly after making this demand; and Howel, his successor, instead of adopting the malignity, or rather the prudence, of his predecessor, zealously seconded the duke's views, and sent his eldest son, Alain Fergusant, to serve under him with a force of five thousand Britons. The counts of Anjou, and of Flanders, encouraged their subjects to engage in the expedition; and even the court of France, tho' it might justly fear the aggrandizement of so dangerous a vassal, pursued not its interests on this occasion with sufficient vigor and resolution. Philip I., the reigning French monarch, was a minor; and William, having communicated his project to the council, having desired assistance, and offered to do homage, in case of his success, for the crown of England, was indeed ordered to lay aside all thoughts of the enterprise; but the earl of Flanders, his father-in-law, being at the head of the regency, favored under-hand his levies, and encouraged the enterprising nobility to inlist under the standard of the duke of Normandy.

The Emperor, Henry IV. besides giving openly all his vassals permission to embark in this expedition, which so much engaged the attention of Europe, promised his protection to the duchy of Normandy during the absence of the prince,

† Gul. Geier, lib. 7. cap. 33.
and thereby enabled him to draw his whole force to the attack of England.

But the most important ally, whom William gained by his negotiations, was the pope, who had a mighty influence over the ancient barons, no less devout in their religious principles than valorous in their military enterprises. The Roman pontiff, after an insensible progress during several ages of darkness and ignorance, began now to lift his head openly above all the princes of Europe; to assume the office of a mediator, or even an arbiter, in the quarrels of the greatest monarchs; to interpose himself in all secular affairs; and to obtrude his dictates as sovereign laws on his obsequious disciples. It was a sufficient motive to Alexander II. the reigning pope, for embracing William's quarrel, that he alone had made an appeal to his tribunal, and rendered him umpire of the dispute between him and Harold; but there were other advantages, which, that pontiff foresaw, must result from the conquest of England by the Norman arms. That kingdom, tho' at first converted by Romish missionaries, tho' it had afterwards advanced some further steps towards subjection under Rome, maintained still a great independance in its ecclesiastical administration; and forming a world within itself, entirely separated from the rest of Europe, it had hitherto proved inaccessible to those exorbitant claims, which supported the grandeur of the papacy. Alexander, therefore, hoped, that the French and Norman barons, if successful in their enterprise, might import into that country a more devoted reverence to the holy see, and bring the English churches to a nearer conformity with those of the rest of Europe. He declared immediately in favour of William's claim; pronounced Harold a perjured usurper; denounced excommunication against him and his adherents; and the more to encourage the duke of Normandy in his enterprise, he sent him a consecrated banner, and a ring with one of St. Peter's hairs in it. Thus were all the ambition and violence of that invasion covered over safely with the broad mantle of religion.

But the greatest difficulty, which William had to encounter in his preparations, arose from his own subjects in Normandy. The states of the duchy were assembled at Lislebonne; and supplies being demanded for the intended enterprise, which promised so much glory and advantage to their country, there appeared a reluctance in many members, both to grant sums so much beyond the common measure of taxes in that age, and to set a precedent of performing their military service out of their own country. The duke finding it dangerous to solicit them in a body, conferred separately with the richest persons in the pro-

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‡ Baker. p. 22. edit. 1684.
and beginning with those whose affections he most relied on, he gradually engaged all of them to advance the sums demanded. The count of Longueville seconded him in this negotiation, the count of Mortaigne, Odo bishop of Bayeux, and especially William Fitz-Ofborne, count of Bretagne, and constable of the dutchy. Every person, when he himself was once engaged, endeavoured to bring over others; and at last the states themselves, after stipulating that this concession should be no precedent for the future, voted, that they would assist their prince to the utmost in his intended enterprise.

William had now assembled a fleet of 3000 vessels, great and small, and had selected an army of 60,000 men from among those numerous supplies, which from every quarter solicited to be received into his service. The camp bore a splendid, yet a martial appearance, from the discipline of the men, the vigour of the horses, the lustre of the arms and accoutrements of both; but above all, from the high names of nobility, who engaged under the banners of the duke of Normandy. The most celebrated were Euftace, count of Boulogne, Aimeri de Thouars, Hugh d'Estaples, William d'Evreux, Geoffrey de Rotrou, Roger de Beaumont, William de Warenne, Roger de Montgomeri, Hugh de Granmefnil, Charles Martel, and Geoffrey Giffard. To these bold chieftains William held up the spoils of England as the prize of their valour; and pointing to the opposite shore, called to them, that there was the field, on which they must erect trophies to their name, and fix their establishments.

While he was making these mighty preparations, the duke, that he might increase the number of Harold's enemies, excited the inveterate rancour of Tofti, and encouraged him, in concert with Harold Halflager, King of Norway, to infest the coast of England. Tofti, having collected about sixty vessels in the ports of Flanders, put to sea; and after committing some depredations on the south and east coasts, he failed to Northumberland, and he was there joined by Halflager, who came over with a great armament of three hundred sail. The combined fleets entered the Humber, and disembarked the troops, who began to extend their depredations on all sides; when Morcar earl of Northumberland, and Edwin earl of Mercia, the King's brothers-in-law, having hastily collected some troops, ventured to give them battle. The action ended with the total defeat and flight of these two noblemen.

† Gal. Gemet, lib. 7. cap. 34. j Ordericus Vitalis, p. 501.

HAROLD
HAROLD, informed of this misfortune, hastened with an army to the protection of his people; and expressed the utmost ardour to show himself worthy of the crown, which had been conferred upon him. This prince, tho' he was not sensible of the full extent of his danger, from the great combination against him, had employed every art of popularity to acquire the affections of the public; and he gave so many proofs of an equitable and prudent administration, that the English found no reason to repent of the choice which they had made of a sovereign. They flocked from all quarters to join his standard; and as soon as he reached the enemy at Stanford, he found himself in a condition of giving them battle. 25th Sept.

The action was very bloody; but the victory was decisive on the side of Harold, and ended with the total rout of the Danes, together with the death of Tosti and Halfager. Even the Danishe fleet fell into the hands of Harold; who had the generosity to give prince Olave, the son of Halfager, his liberty, and allow him to depart with twenty vessels. But he had scarce time to rejoice for this victory, when he received intelligence, that the duke of Normandy was landed with a great army in the south of England.

The Norman fleet and army had been assembled, early in the summer, at the mouth of the small river Dive, and all the troops had been instantaneously embarked; but the winds proved long contrary, and detained them in that harbour. The authority, however, of the duke, the good discipline maintained among the seamen and soldiers, and the great care of supplying them with provisions, had prevented any disorder; when at last the wind became favourable, and enabled them to sail along the coasts, till they reached St. Valori. There were, however, several vessels lost in this short passage; and as the winds again proved contrary, the army began to imagine, that heaven had declared against them, and that, notwithstanding the Pope's benediction, they were destined to certain ruin. These bold warriors, who despised real dangers, were very subject to the dread of imaginary ones; and many of them began to mutiny, and some of them even to desert their colours; when the duke, in order to support their drooping hopes, ordered a procession to be made with the relics of St. Valori, and prayers to be said for more favourable weather. The winds instantly changed; and as this incident happened on the eve of the feast of St. Michael, the tutelar saint of Normandy,
...the soldiers, fancying they saw the hand of heaven in all these concurring circumstances, set out with the greatest alacrity: They met with no opposition on their voyage: A great fleet, which Harold had assembled, and which had cruized all summer off the Isle of Wight, had been dismissed, on his receiving false intelligence, that William, discouraged by the contrary winds and other accidents, had laid aside his preparations. The Norman armament, proceeding in great order, arrived, without any material loss, at Pevensey in Sussex; and the army quietly disembarked. The duke himself, as he leaped on shore, happened to stumble and fall; but had the presence of mind to turn the omen to his advantage, by calling aloud, that he had taken possession of the country. And a soldier, running to a neighbouring cottage, plucked some thatch, which, if giving him seizure of the kingdom, he presented to his general. The joy and alacrity of William and his whole army was so great, that they were nowise discouraged, even when they heard of Harold's great victory over the Danes; and they seemed rather to wait with impatience for the arrival of the enemy.

The victory of Harold, tho' great and honourable, had proved in the main prejudicial to his interests, and may be regarded as the immediate cause of his ruin. He lost many of his bravest officers and soldiers in the action; and he disgusted the rest, by refusing to distribute the Danish spoils among them: A conduct which was little agreeable to his usual generosity of temper; but which his desire of sparing the people, in the war which impended over him from the duke of Normandy, had probably occasioned. He hastened by quick marches to reach this new invader; but tho' he was reinforced at London and other places with fresh troops, he found himself also weakened by the desertion of his old soldiers, who, from fatigue and discontent secretly withdrew from their colours. His brother Gurth, a man of bravery and conduct, began to entertain apprehensions of the event; and remonstrated with the King, that it would be better policy to prolong the war, or, at least, to spare his own person in the action. He urged to him, that the desperate situation of the duke of Normandy made it requisite for that prince to bring matters to a speedy decision, and put his whole fortune on the issue of a battle; but that the King of England, in his own country, beloved by his subjects, provided of every supply, had more infallible and less dangerous methods of ensuring to himself the victory: That the Norman troops, elevated on the one hand with the highest hopes, and seeing, on the other, no resource in case of a discomfiture, would fight to the last extremity; and being the flower of all the warriors of the continent, must be regarded as formidable to...
the English: That if their first fire and spirit, which is always most dangerous, were allowed to languish for want of action; if they were harassed with small skirmishes, straitned in provisions, and fatigued with the bad weather and deep roads during the winter-season, which was approaching, they must fall an easy and a bloodless prey to their enemy: That if a general action was delayed, the English, sensible of the imminent danger, to which their properties, as well as liberties, were exposed from these rapacious invaders, would hasten from all quarters to his assistance, and would render his army invincible: That at least, if he thought it necessary to hazard a battle, he ought not to expose his own person; but reserve, in case of disastrous accidents, some resource to the liberty and independance of the kingdom: And that having once been so unfortunate, as to be constrained to swear, and that upon the holy relics, to support the pretensions of the duke of Normandy, it were better that another person should command the army, who, not being bound by these sacred ties, might give the soldiers more certain hopes of a prosperous issue to the quarrel.

HAROLD was deaf to all these remonstrances; and being elated with his past prosperity, as well as stimulated by his native courage, he resolved to give battle in person; and for that purpose, he drew near to the Normans, who had removed their camp and fleet to Hastings, where they fixed their quarters. He was so confident of success, that he sent a message to the duke, promising him a sum of money, if he would depart the kingdom without effusion of blood: But his offer was rejected with disdain; and William, not to be behind with his enemy in vaunting, sent him a message by some monks, requiring him either to resign the kingdom, or to hold it of him in fealty, or to submit their cause to the arbitration of the Pope, or to fight him in single combat. Harold replied, that the God of battles would soon be the arbiter of all their differences.

The English and Normans now prepared themselves for this important decision; but the aspect of things, on the night before the battle, was very different in the two camps. The English spent the time in riot, and jollity, and disorder; the Normans in silence and in prayer, and in the functions of their religion. On the morning, the duke called together the most considerable of his chieftans, and made them a speech suitable to the occasion. He represented to them, that the event which they and he had long wished for, was approaching; and the whole fortune of the war now depended on their sword, and would


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be decided in a single action: That never army had greater motives for exerting a vigorous courage, whether they considered the prize which would attend their victory, or the inevitable destruction which must ensue upon their discomfiture: That if their martial and veteran bands could once break those raw soldiers, who had rashly dared to approach them, they conquered a kingdom at one blow, and were justly intitled to all its possessions as the reward of their prosperous valour: That, on the contrary, if they remitted in the least their wonted prowess, an enraged enemy hung upon their rear, the sea met them in their retreat, and an ignominious death was the certain punishment of their imprudent cowardice: That by collecting so numerous and brave a host, he had ensured every human means of conquest; and the commander of the enemy, by his criminal conduct, had given him just cause to hope for the favour of Heaven, in whose hands alone lay the event of wars and battles: And that a perjured usurper, anathematized by the sovereign pontiff, and conscious of his own breach of faith, would be struck with terror on their appearance, and would prognosticate to himself that fate which his multiplied crimes had so justly merited. The duke next divided his army into three lines: The first, headed by Montgomery, consisted of archers and light-armed infantry: The second, commanded by Martel, was composed of his bravest battalions, heavy armed, and ranged in close order: His cavalry, at whose head he placed himself, formed the third line; and were so disposed, that they stretched beyond the infantry, and flanked each wing of the army. He ordered the signal of battle to sound; and the whole army, moving at once, and singing the hymn or song of Roland, the famous peer of Charlemagne, advanced, in order and with alacrity, towards the enemy.

Harold had seized the advantage of a rising ground, and having besides drawn some trenches to secure his flanks, he resolved to stand upon the defensive, and to avoid all action with the cavalry, in which he was inferior. The Kentish men were placed in the van; a post which they had always claimed as their due: The Londoners guarded the standard: And the King himself, accompanied by his two valiant brothers, Gurth and Leofwin, dismounting from horseback, placed himself at the head of his infantry, and expressed his resolution to conquer or to perish in the action. The first attack of the Normans was desperate, but was received with equal valour by the English; and after a furious combat, which remained long undecided, the former, overcome by the difficulty.


of the ground, and hard pressed by the enemy, began first to relax their vigour, then to give ground; and confusion was spreading among the ranks; when William, who found himself on the brink of destruction, hastened with a select band, to the relief of his dismayed forces *. His presence restored the action; the English were obliged to retreat with loss; and the duke, ordering his second line to advance, renewed the attack with fresh forces and with redoubled courage. Finding, that the enemy, aided by the advantage of ground, and animated by the example of their prince, still made a vigorous resistance, he tried a stratagem, which was very delicate in its management, but which seemed advisable in his desperate situation, when, if he gained not a decisive victory, he was totally undone: He ordered his troops to make a hasty retreat, and to allure the enemy from their ground by the appearance of flight. The artifice succeeded against these unexperienced troops, who, heated by the action, and sanguine in their hopes, precipitantly followed the Normans into the plain †. William gave orders, that at once the infantry should face about upon their pursuers, and the cavalry make an assault upon their wings, and both of them pursue the advantage, which the surprise and terror of the enemy must give them in that critical and decisive moment. The English were repulsed with great slaughter, and drove back to the hill; where being rallied again by the bravery of Harold, they were able, notwithstanding their loss, to maintain the post and continue the combat. The duke tried the same stratagem a second time with the same success; but even after this double advantage, he still found a great body of the English, who maintaining themselves in firm array, seemed determined to dispute the victory to the last extremity. He ordered his heavy armed infantry to make the assault upon them; while his archers, placed behind, should gall the enemy, who were exposed by the situation of the ground, and who were intent in defending themselves against the swords and spears of the assailants ‡. By this disposition he at last prevailed: Harold was slain by an arrow, while he was combating with great bravery at the head of his men §: His two brothers shared the same fate; and the English, discouraged by the fall of their princes, gave ground on all sides, and were pursued with great slaughter by the victorious Normans. A few troops however of the vanquished dared still to turn upon their pursuers; and taking them in deep and miry ground, obtained some revenge for the slaughter and dishonour of the day §. But the appearance of the duke obliged them to

‡ Diceto, p. 480.
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Chap. II. seek their safety by flight, and darkness saved them from any farther pursuit by the enemy.

Thus was gained by William, duke of Normandy, the great and decisive victory of Hastings, after a battle which was fought from morning till sunset *, and which seemed worthy, by the heroic feats of valour displayed by both armies, and by both commanders, to decide the fate of a mighty kingdom. William had three horses killed under him; and there fell near fifteen thousand men on the side of the Normans †: The loss was still more considerable on that of the vanquished; besides the death of the King and his two brothers. The dead body of Harold was brought to William, and was generously restored without ransom to his mother ‡. The Norman army left not the field of battle without giving thanks to heaven, in the most solemn manner, for their victory: And the prince, having refreshed his forces, prepared to push to the utmost his advantage against the divided, dismayed, and discomfited English.

APPENDIX I.

The Anglo-Saxon Government and Manners.


The government of the Germans, and that of all the northern nations who established themselves on the ruins of Rome, was always extremely free; and those fierce people, accustomed to independence and enured to arms, were more guided by persuasion than authority, in the submission which they paid their princes. The military despotism, which had taken place in the Roman empire, and which, previously to the irruption of these conquerors, had sunk the genius of men, and destroyed every noble principle of science and virtue, was unable to resist the vigorous efforts of a free people; and Europe, as from a new epoch, rekindled her ancient spirit, and shook off the base servitude to arbitrary will and authority, under which it had so long laboured. The free constitutions then established, however impaired by the encroachments of succeeding princes, still preserve an air of independence and legal administration, which distinguish the European nations; and if that part of the globe maintain sentiments of liberty, honour, equity, and valour, superior to the rest of mankind, it owes these advantages chiefly to the seeds implanted by those generous barbarians.

The Saxons, who subdued Britain, as they enjoyed great liberty in their own country, obstinately retained that invaluable possession in their new settlement; and they imported into this island the same principles of independence, which they had inherited from their ancestors. The chiefains (for such they were more properly than kings or princes) who commanded them in those military expeditions, still possessed a very limited authority; and as the Saxons exterminated, rather than subdued, the ancient inhabitants, they were indeed transplanted into a new territory, but preserved unaltered all their civil and military institutions. The language was pure Saxon; even the names of places, which often remain while the tongue entirely changes, were almost all affixed by the new conquerors; the manners and customs were wholly German; and the same picture of a fierce
Appendix I. fierce and bold liberty, which is drawn by the masterly pencil of Tacitus, will apply to these founders of the English government. The King, so far from being entitled to an arbitrary power, was only considered as the first among the citizens; his authority depended more on his personal qualities than on his station; he was even so far on a level with the other inhabitants, that a stated price was affixed to his head, and a legal fine was levied from his murderer, which, tho' proportioned to his station, and superior to that paid for the life of a subject, was a sensible mark of his subordination to the community.

Succession of the kings.

It is easy to imagine, that an independant people, so little restrained by laws, and cultivated by science, would not be very strict in maintaining a regular succession of their princes. Tho' they paid a great respect to the royal family, and ascribed to them an undoubted superiority, they either had no rule, or none that was steadily observed in filling the vacant throne; and present convenience in that emergency was more attended to than general principles. We are not however to suppose, that the crown was considered as altogether elective; and that a regular plan was traced by the constitution for supplying, by the suffrages of the people, every vacancy made by the decease of the first magistrate. If any King on his death left a son of an age and capacity fit for government, the young prince naturally stepped into the throne: If he was a minor, his uncle, or the next prince of the blood, was promoted to the government, and left the sceptre to his posterity: Any sovereign, by taking previous measures with the leading men, had it greatly in his power to appoint his successor: All these changes, and indeed the ordinary administration of government, required the express concurrence, or at least the tacit consent of the people; but present possession, however obtained, went far towards procuring their obedience, and the idea of any right which was once excluded, was but feeble and imperfect. This is so much the case in all barbarous monarchies, and occurs so often in the history of the Anglo-Saxons, that we cannot consistently entertain any other notion of their government. The idea of an hereditary succession in authority is so natural to men, and is so much fortified by the usual rule in transmitting private possessions, that it must retain a great influence on every society, who do not exclude it by the refinements of a republican constitution. But as there is a sensible difference between government and private possessions, and every one is not equally qualified for exercising the one as for enjoying the other, a people, who are not sensible of the general advantages attending a fixed rule, are apt to make great leaps in the succession, and frequently to pass over the person, who, had he possessed the requisite years and abilities, would have been thought entitled to the authority. Thus, these monarchies are not, strictly speaking, either elective or hereditary; and tho' the destination of a prince may often
often be followed in appointing his successor, they can as little be regarded as wholly testatory. The suffrages of the states may sometimes establish a sovereign; but they more frequently recognize him whom they find established: A few great men take the lead; the people, overawed and influenced, acquiesce in the government; and the reigning prince, provided he be of the royal family, passes undisputably for the legal sovereign.

It is confessed, that our knowledge of the Anglo-Saxon history and antiquities is too imperfect to afford us means of determining with certainty all the prerogatives of the crown and privileges of the people, or of giving an exact delineation of that government. It is probable also, that the constitution might be somewhat different in the different nations of the Heptarchy, and that it changed considerably during the course of six centuries, which elapsed from the first invasion of the Saxons till the Norman conquest. But most of these differences and changes, with their causes and effects, are unknown to us: It only appears, that, at all times, and in all the kingdoms, there was a national council, called a Witenagemot or assembly of the wise men, (for that is the import of the term) whose consent was requisite for the enacting laws, and for ratifying the chief acts of public administration. The preambles to all the laws of Ethelbert, Ina, Alfred, Edward the elder, Athelftan, Edmond, Edgar, Ethelred, and Edward the Confessor; even those to the laws of Canute, tho' a kind of conqueror, put this matter beyond controversy, and carry proofs every where of a limited and legal government. But who were the constitutent members of this Witenagemot has not been determined with certainty by antiquarians. It is agreed, that the bishops and abbots were an essential part; and it is also evident, from the tenor of these ancient laws, that the Witenagemot enacted statutes which regulated the ecclesiastical as well as civil government, and that those dangerous principles, by which the church is totally severed from the state, were hitherto unknown to the Anglo-Saxons.

* We know of one change, not inconsiderable in the Saxon constitution. The Saxon annals, p. 45., inform us, that it is the prerogative of the King to name the dukes, earls, alderman and sheriffs of the counties. After, a contemporary writer, informs us, that Alfred deposed all the ignorant aldermen, and appointed men of more capacity in their place: Yet the laws of Edward the Confessor, § 35., say expressly, that the heretoghs or dukes, and the sheriff, were chosen by the freeholders in the folkmote, a county court, which was assembled once a year, and where all the freeholders swore allegiance to the King.

† Sometimes abbesses were admitted; at least, they often sign the King's charters of grants. Spellm. Gloss., in verbo Parliamentum.

‡ Wilkins passim.
App. IX. after the Danish times, were often called earls *, were admitted into this council, and gave their consent to the public statutes. But besides the prelates and aldermen, there is also mention of the wites or wise-men, as a distinct branch of the Wittenagemot; but who these were is not so clearly ascertained by the laws or the history of that period. The matter would probably be of difficult discussion, even were it examined impartially; but as our parties have chosen to divide on this head, the question has been disputed with the greater acrimony, and the arguments on both sides have become, on that account, the more captious and deceitful. Our monarchical faction maintain, that these wites or sapientes were the judges or men learned in the law: The popular party assert them to be representatives of the boroughs, or what we now call the commons.

The expressions, employed by all the antient historians in mentioning the Wittenagemot, seem to contradict the latter supposition. The members are almost always called the principes, fatræpe, optimates, magnates, proceres; terms which seem to suppose an aristocracy, and to exclude the commons. The boroughs also, from the low state of commerce, were so small and poor, and the inhabitants lived in such dependence on the great men, that it seems nowise probable they would be admitted as a part of the national councils. The commons are well known to have had no share in the governments established by the Franks, Burgundians, and other northern nations; and we may conclude, that the Saxons, who remained longer barbarous and uncivilized than these tribes, would never think of conferring such an extraordinary privilege on trade and industry. The military profession alone was honourable among all those conquerors: The warriors subsisted by their possessions in land: They became considerable by their influence over their vassals, retainers, tenants, and slaves: And it had need of

* It appears from the antient translations of the Saxon annals and laws, and from King Alfred's translation of Bede, as well as from all the antient historians, that comes in Latin, alderman in Saxon, and earl in Dano-Saxon were quite synonymous. There is only a clause of a law of King Athelstan's (see Spelm. Conc. p. 406.) which has puzzled some antiquaries, and has made them imagine that an earl was superior to an alderman. The weregild or the price of an earl's blood is there fixed at 15,000 thirmeas, equal to that of an archbishop, whereas that of a bishop and alderman is only 8000 thirmeas. To solve this difficulty we must have recourse to Selden's conjecture, (see his Titles of Honour, chap. 5. p. 603, 604.) that the term of earl was in the age of Athelstan just beginning to be of use in England, and fixed at that time for the atheling or prince of the blood, heir to the crown. This he confirms by a law of Canute, § 55. where an atheling and an archbishop are put upon the same footing. In another law of the same Athelstan the weregild of the prince or atheling is said to be 15,000 thirmeas. See Wilkins, p. 71. He is therefore the same who is called earl in the former law.

† Brady's treatise of English boroughs. p. 3, 4, 5, &c.
strong proofs to convince us that they would admit any of a rank so much inferior as the burghers, to share with them in the legislative authority. Tacitus indeed affirms, that, among the antient Germans, the consent of all the members of the community was required in every important deliberation; but he speaks not of representatives; and this antient practice, mentioned by the Roman historians, could only have place in small tribes, where every citizen might without inconvenience be assembled upon any extraordinary emergency. After principalities became more extensive; after the differences of property had formed distinctions more important than those arising from personal strength and valor; we may conclude, that the national assemblies must have been more limited in their number, and composed only of the more considerable citizens.

But tho' we must exclude the burghers or commons from the Saxon Wit-sentagemot; there is some necessity for supposing, that this assembly consisted of other members beside the prelates, abbots, aldermen, and the judges or privy council. For as all these, excepting some of the ecclesiastics *, were antiently appointed by the King, had there been no other legislative authority, the royal power had been in a great measure despotic, contrary to the tenor of all the historians, and to the practice of all the northern nations. We may, therefore, conclude, that the more considerable proprietors of land were, without any election, constituent members of the national assembly; and there is reason to think, that forty hydes, or about four or five thousand acres, was the estate requisite for intitling the possessor to this honourable privilege. There is a passage of an antient author † from which it appears, that a person of very noble birth, even one allied to the crown, was not esteemed a princeps (the term usually employed by antient historians when the Wittenagemot is mentioned) till he had acquired a fortune of that extent. Nor need we imagine, that the public council would become disorderly or confused by admitting so great a multitude. The landed property of England was probably in few hands during the Saxon times; at least, during the latter part of that period: And as men had small ambition of attending these public councils, there was no danger of the assembly's becoming too numerous for the dispatch of the little business, which was brought before them.

* There is some reason to think, that the bishops were sometimes chosen by the Wittenagemot, and confirmed by the King. Eddius, cap. 2. The abbots in the monasteries of the royal foundation were antiently named by the King; tho' Edgar gave the monks the election, and only reserved to himself the ratification. This destination was afterwards frequently violated; and the abbots as well as bishops were afterwards all appointed by the court; as we learn from Inglolf, a writer contemporary to the conquest.

† Hist. Elenfis, cap. 36. 40. This passage is remarked by Dugdale, (pref. to his Baron. vol. 1.) and he draws the same inference from it.
Appendix I.

The aristocracy.

It is certain, that, whatever we may determine concerning the constituent members of the Wittenagemot, in whom the legislature resided, the Anglo-Saxon government, in the period preceding the Norman conquest, was become extremely aristocratical: The royal authority was very limited; the people, even if admitted to that assembly, were of little or no weight or consideration. We have hints given us in the historians of the great power and riches of particular noblemen: And it could not but happen, after the abolition of the Heptarchy, when the King lived at a distance from the provinces, that these great proprietors, who resided on their estates, would much augment their authority over their vassals and retainers, and over all the inhabitants of the neighbourhood. Hence the immeasurable power assumed by Harold, Godwin, Leofric, Siward, Morcar, Edwin, Edric, and Alfric, who controlled the authority of the kings, and rendered themselves quite necessary in the government. The two latter, tho' detested by the people, on account of their joining a foreign enemy, still preserved their power and influence; and we may therefore conclude, that their authority was founded, not on popularity, but on family rights and possessions. There is one Athelitan, mentioned in the reign of the king of that name, who is called alderman of all England, and is said to be half-king; tho' the monarch himself was a prince of great valour and ability. And we find, that in the latter Saxon times, and in these alone, the great offices went from father to son, and became, in a manner, hereditary in the families.

The circumstances, attending the invasions of the Danes, would also serve much to increase the power of the principal nobility. These freebooters made unexpected inroads on all quarters; and there was a necessity, that each county should resist them by its own force, and under the conduct of its own magistrates, and nobility. For the same reason, that a general war, managed by the united efforts of the whole state, commonly increases the power of the crown; these private wars and inroads turned to the advantage of the aldermen and nobles.

Among that military and turbulent people, so averse to commerce and the arts, so little enured to industry, justice was commonly very ill executed, and great oppression and violence seem to have prevailed. These disorders would be increased by the exorbitant power of the aristocracy; and would, in their

† Roger Hoveden, giving the reason why William the Conqueror made Coftpatic earl of Northumberland says, *Nam ex mater ex janguis atthinebat ad eum honor ilius comitati. Era enim ex mater Algiba, filia Uthredi comitis.* See also Sim. Dun. p. 205. We see in those instances, the same tendency towards rendering offices hereditary, which took place, during a more early period, on the continent; and which had already operated its full effect.
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turn, contribute to increase it. Men, not daring to rely on the guardianship of Appendix I.
the laws, were obliged to devote themselves to the service of some chieftain, whose
orders they followed even to the disturbance of the government or the injury of
their fellow citizens, and who afforded them in return protection from any insult
or injustice by strangers. Hence we find, by the extracts which Dr. Brady has
given us from Domesday, that almost all the inhabitants even of boroughs, had
placed themselves in the clientage of some particular nobleman, whose patronage
they purchased by annual payments, and whom they were obliged to consider
as their sovereign, more than the King himself, or even the legislature *. A client,
Tho' a freeman, was supposed to much to belong to his patron, that his murderer
was obliged by law to pay a fine to the latter, as a compensation for his loss; in
like manner as he paid a fine to his master for the murder of his slave †. Men,
who were of a more considerable rank, but not powerful enough, each to support
himself by his own independent authority, entered into formal confederacies together, and composed a kind of separate republic, which rendered itself formidable to all aggressors. Dr. Hicks has preserved a very curious Saxon bond of this kind, which he calls a Sodalitium, and which contains many particulars, characteristic of the manners and customs of the times ‡. The associates are there said to be all of them gentlemen of Cambridgeshire; and they swear before the holy relics to observe their confederacy, and to be faithful to each other: They promise to bury any of the associates who dies, in whatever place he had appointed; to contribute to his funeral charges, and to attend at his interment; and whoever is wanting to this last duty, binds himself to pay a measure of honey. When any of the associates is in danger, and calls for the assistance of his fellows, they promise, besides flying to his succour, to give information to the sheriff; and if he be negligent in protecting the person exposed to hazard, they engage to levy a fine of one pound upon him: If the president of the society himself be wanting in this particular, he binds himself to pay one pound; unless he has the reasonable excuse of sickness, or of duty to his superior. When any of the associates is murdered, they are to exact eight pounds from the murderer; and if he refuses to pay it, they are to prosecute him for the sum at their joint expence. If any of the associates, who happens to be poor, kills a man, the society are to contribute by a certain proportion to pay his fine: A mark a-piece, if the fine be 700 shillings; less, if the person killed be a clown or ceorle;

* Brady's Treatise of Boroughs, 3, 4, 5, &c. The case was the same with the freemen in the country. See pref. to his hist. p. 8, 9, 10, &c.
Appendix I.

The several orders of men.

The German Saxons, as the other nations of that continent, were divided into three ranks of men, the noble, the free, and the slaves. This distinction they brought over with them into Britain.

The nobles were called thanes; and were of two kinds, the King's thanes and lesser thanes. The latter seem to have been dependant on the former; and to

† Nithard. hist. lib. 4.

have
have received lands, for which they paid rent, services, or attendance in peace and war. We know of no other title, which raised any one to the rank of thane, except noble birth and the possession of land. The former was always much regarded by all the German nations even in their most barbarous state; and as the Saxon nobility had few expensive pleasures to dissipate their fortune, and the commons little trade or industry by which they could accumulate riches, these two ranks of men, even tho' they were not separated by positive laws, might remain long distinct, and the noble families continue many ages in opulence and splendor. There were no middle rank of men, who could mix gradually with their superiors, and procure to themselves insensibly honour and distinction. If by any extraordinary accident, a mean person acquired riches, a circumstance so singular made him be known and remarked; he became the object of envy, as well as indignation, to all the nobles; he would have great difficulty to defend what he had acquired; and he would find it impossible to protect himself from oppression, except by courting the patronage of some great chieftain, and paying a large price for his safety.

There are two statutes among the Saxon laws, which seem calculated to confound these different ranks of men; that of Athelfstan, by which a merchant, who had made three long sea-voyages on his own account, was intitled to the quality of thane; and that of the same prince, by which a ceorle or husbandman, who had been able to purchase five hydes of land, and had a chapel, a kitchen, a hall and bell, was raised to the same distinction. But the opportunities were so few, by which a merchant or ceorle could thus exalt himself above his rank, that the law could never overcome the reigning prejudices; the distinction between noble and base blood would still be indelible; and the well-born thanes would entertain the highest contempt for those legal and factitious ones. Tho' we are not informed of any of these circumstances by ancient historians, they are so much founded on the nature of things, that we may admit them as a necessary and infallible consequence of the situation of the kingdom during those ages.

The cities appear by Domesday-book to have been at the conquest little better than villages. York itself, tho' it was always the second, at least the third.

* Spelm. Feuds and Tenures, p. 40.
† Wilkins, p. 71.
‡ Selden Titles of Honour, p. 515. Wilkins, p. 70.
§ Winchester, being the capital of the West-Saxon monarchy, was antiently a considerable city.

$ Norwich contained 738 houses, Exeter, 315, Ipswich, 538, Northampton, 60, Hertford, 146, Canterbury, 262, Bath, 64, Southampton, 84, Warwick, 113. See Brady of Boroughs, p. 3, 4, 5, 6, &c. These are the most considerable he mentions. The account of them is extracted from Domesday-book.
Appendix I. city in England, and was the capital of a great province, which never was thoroughly united with the rest, contained then but 1418 families *. Malmesbury tells us †, that the great distinction between the Anglo-Saxon nobility and the French or Norman, was that the latter built magnificent and stately castles; whereas the former consumed their immense fortunes on riot and hospitality in mean houses. We may thence infer, that the arts in general were much less advanced in England than in France; a greater number of idle servants and retainers lived about the great families; and as these, even in France, were powerful enough to disturb the execution of the laws, we may judge of the authority, acquired by the aristocracy in England. When earl Godwin besieg'd the Confessor in London, he summoned together from all parts his huscarles, or house-ceorles and retainers, and obliged his sovereign to accept of the conditions, which he was pleased to impose upon him.

The lower rank of freemen were denominated ceorles among the Anglo-Saxons; and where they were industrious, they were chiefly employed in husbandry: Whence a ceorle, and a husbandman, became in a manner synonymous terms. They cultivated the farms of the nobility or thanes, for which they paid rent; and they seem to have been removable at pleasure. For there is little mention of leases among the Anglo Saxons: The pride of the nobility, together with the general ignorance of writing, must have rendered these contracts very rare, and, must have kept the husbandmen in a very dependant condition. The rents of farms were then chiefly paid in kind ‡.

But the most numerous rank by far in the community seems to have been the slaves or villains, who were the property of their lords, and were consequently incapable, themselves, of all property. Dr. Brady assures us, from a survey of Domesday-book ‡‡, that, in all the counties of England, the far greater part of the land was occupied by them, and that the husbandmen, and still more the socmen, who were tenants, that could not be removed at pleasure, were very few in comparison. This was not the case with the German nations, as far as we can collect from the account given us by Tacitus. The perpetual wars in the

* Brady's treatise of boroughs, p. 102. There were six wards, besides the archbishop's palace; and five of these wards contained the number of families here mentioned, which at the rate of five persons to a family makes about 7000 souls. The sixth ward was laid waste.
† P. 102. See also de Gest. Angl. p. 333.
‡ LL. Ine. § 70. These laws fixed the rents for a hide; but it is difficult to convert it into modern measures.
‡‡ General preface to his hist. p. 7, 8, 9, &c.
heptarchy, and the depredations of the Danes, seem to have been the cause of this Appendix. The great alteration with the Anglo-Saxons. The prisoners taken in battle, or carried off in the frequent inroads, were reduced to slavery; and became, by right of war *, entirely at the disposal of their lords. Great property in the nobles, especially if joined to an irregular administration of justice, naturally favours the power of the aristocracy; but still more so, if the practice of slavery be admitted, and has become very common. The nobility not only possess the influence which always attend riches, but also the power which the laws give them over their slaves and villains. It becomes then difficult, and almost impossible, for a private man to remain altogether free and independant.

There were two kind of slaves among the Anglo-Saxons; household slaves, after the manner of the antients, and prædial or rufitic, after the manner of the Germans †. These latter resembled the serfs, which are at present met with in Poland, Denmark, and some places in Germany. The power of a master over his slaves was not unlimited among the Anglo-Saxons, as it was among their ancestors. If a man beat out his slave's eye or teeth, the slave recovered his liberty ‡: If he killed him, he paid a fine to the King; provided the slave died within a day after the wound or blow: Otherwise it passed unpunished †. The selling themselves or children into slavery was always the practice with the German nations §, and was continued by the Anglo-Saxons ¶.

The great lords and abbots among the Anglo-Saxons possessed a criminal jurisdiction within their territories, and could punish without appeal any thieves or robbers whom they caught there *. This institution must have had a very contrary effect to that intended, and must have procured robbers a sure protection in the lands of such noblemen as did not sincerely mean to discourage these irregularities.

But tho' the general strain of the Anglo-Saxon government seems to have become aristocratical, there were still considerable remains of the antient democracy, since which were not indeed sufficient to protect the lowest of the people, without the patronage of some great lord, but might give securitie, and even some degree of dignity, to the gentry or inferior nobility. The administration of justice, in particular, by the courts of the Decemnancy, the Hundred, and the County, were well calculated to defend general liberty, and to restrain the exorbitant power of the nobles. In the county-courts of shiremotes, all the freeholders were asem-
bled twice a-year, and received appeals from the other inferior courts. They there decided all causes, ecclesiastical as well as civil; and the bishop, together with the alderman or earl, presided over them*. The affair was determined in a summary manner, without much pleading, formality, or delay, by a majority of voices; and the bishop and alderman had no further authority than to keep order among the freeholders, and interpose with their opinion †. Where justice was denied during three sessions by the hundred, and then by the County-court, there lay an appeal to the King's court‡; but this was not practised on slight occasions. The alderman had a third of the fines levied in these courts; and as most of the punishments were then pecuniary, this perquisite formed a considerable part of the profits belonging to his office. The two thirds also, which went to the King, made no contemptible share of the public revenue. Any freeholder was fined who absented himself thrice from these courts §.

As the extreme ignorance of the age made deeds and writings very rare, the County or Hundred court was the place where the most remarkable civil transactions were finished, in order to preserve a memorial of them, and prevent all future disputes. Here testaments were promulgated, slaves manumitted, bargains of sale concluded; and sometimes, for greater security, the most considerable of these deeds were inserted in the blank leaves of the parish bible, which thus became a kind of register, too sacred to be falsified. It was not usual to add to the deed an imprecation on all such as should be guilty of that crime.

Among a people, who lived in so simple a manner as the Anglo-Saxons, the judicial power is always of greater importance than the legislative. There were few or no taxes imposed by the states; there were few statutes enacted; and the nation was less governed by laws, than by customs, which admitted a great latitude of interpretation. Thou’ it should, therefore, be allowed, that the Witenagemot was altogether composed of the principal nobility, the county-courts, where all the freeholders were admitted, and which regulated all the daily occurrences of life, formed a very wide basis for the government, and were no contemptible check on the aristocracy. But there is another power still more important than either the judicial or legislative; that is the power of injuring or serving by immediate force and violence, for which it is difficult to obtain redress in courts of justice. In all extensive governments, where the execution of the laws is feeble, this power naturally falls into the hands of the principal nobility.

‡ Hickes Differt. Epist.
and the degree of it which prevails, cannot be determined so much by the public Appendix I. statutes, as by small strokes of history, by particular customs, and sometimes by the reason and nature of things. The highlands of Scotland have been long entitled by law to every privilege of British subjects; but it was not till very lately that the common people could in fact enjoy these privileges.

The powers of all the members of the Anglo-Saxon government are disputed among historians and antiquarians; and the extreme obscurity of the subject, even tho' faction had never entered into the question, would naturally have begot those controversies. But the great influence of the lords over their slaves and tenants, the clientship of the burgheers, the total want of a middling rank of men, the total want also of lawyers who did not then form a separate profession, the extent of the monarchy, the loose execution of the laws, the continued disorders and convulsions of the state; all these circumstances evince, that the Anglo-Saxon government became at last extremely aristocratical; and the events, during the period immediately preceding the conquest, confirm this inference or conjecture.

Both the punishments inflicted on crimes by the Anglo-Saxon courts of judicature, and the methods of proof employed in all causes, appear somewhat singular, and are very different from those which prevail at present among all civilized nations.

We must conceive, that the antient Germans were very little removed from the original state of nature: The social confederacy among them was more martial than civil: They had chiefly in view the means of attack or defence against public enemies, not those of protection against their fellow-citizens: Their possessions were so slender and so equal, that they were not exposed to great danger; and the natural bravery of the people made every man trust to himself and to his particular friends for his defence or vengeance. This defect in the political union drew much closer the knot of particular confederacies: An insult upon any man was regarded by all his relations and associates as a common injury: They were bound, by honour as well as by a sense of general interest, to revenge his death, or any violence which he had suffered: They retaliated on the aggressor by like violences; and if he was protected, as was natural and usual, by his own clan, the quarrel was spread still wider, and bred endless disorders in the nation.

The Frisians, a tribe of the Germans, had never advanced beyond this wild and imperfect state of society; and the right of private revenge still remained among them unlimited and uncontroled *. But the other German nations, in the age of Tacitus, had made one step farther towards completing the political or

* L. Fris. tit. 2. apud Lindenbrog. p. 491.

Vol. I. civil
Appendix I. civil union. Tho' it still continued to be an indispensible point of honour for every clan to revenge the death or injury of their fellow, the magistrate had acquired a right of interposing in the quarrel, and of accommodating the difference. He obliged the person maimed or injured, and the relations of one killed, to accept of a present from the aggressor and his relations *, as a compensation for the injury †, and to drop all farther prosecution of revenge. That the accommodation of one quarrel might not be the source of more, this present was fixed and certain, according to the rank of the person killed or injured, and was commonly paid in cattle, the chief property of those rude and uncultivated nations. A present of this kind gratified the revenge of the injured clan by the loss which the aggressor suffered: It satisfied their pride by the submission which it expressed: It diminished their regret for the loss or injury of a kinsman by their acquisition of new property: And thus general peace was for a moment restored to the society ‡.

But when the German nations had been settled some time in the provinces of the Roman empire, they made still a new step towards a more cultivated life, and their criminal justice gradually improved and refined itself. The magistrate, whose office it was to guard public peace and to suppress private animosities, conceived himself to be injured by every injury done to any of his people; and besides the compensation to the person who suffered, or to his clan, he thought himself entitled to exact a fine, called the Fridwit, as an atonement for the breach of peace, and as a reward for the pains which he had taken in accommodating the quarrel. When this idea, which is so natural, was once suggested, it was readily received both by magistrate and people. The numerous fines which were levied, augmented the profits of the King: And the people were sensible, that he would be more vigilant in interposing with his good offices, when he reaped such immediate advantage by them; and that injuries would be less frequent, when, besides compensation to the person injured, they were exposed to this additional penalty §.

This brief abstract contains the history of the criminal jurisprudence of the northern nations for several centuries. The state of England in this particular, during the period of the Anglo-Saxons, may be judged of by the collection of...

* LL. Æthelb. § 23. LL. Ælf. § 27. † Called by the Saxons megboto.
‡ Tacit. de mor. Germ. The author says, that the price of the composition was fixed; which must have been by the laws and the interposition of the magistrate.
§ Besides paying money to the relations of the deceased and to the King, the murderer was also obliged to pay the master of a slave or vassal a sum as a compensation for his loss. This was called the manbute. See Spell. Gloss. in verb. Freiam, Manbute.
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ancient laws, published by Lambard and Wilkins. The chief purport of these Appendix I. laws is not to prevent or suppress entirely private quarrels, which the legislators knew to be impossible, but only to regulate and moderate them. The laws of Alfred enjoin, that if any one knows, that his enemy or aggressor, after doing him an injury, resolves to keep within his own house and his own lands, he shall not fight him, till he require compenfation for the injury. If he be strong enough to besiege him in his house, he may do it for seven days without attacking him; and if the aggressor is willing, during that time, to surrender himself and his arms, his adversary may detain him thirty days, but is afterwards obliged to restore him safe to his kindred, and be contented with the compenfation. If the criminal fly to the temple, that sanctuary must not be violated. Where the affailant has not force sufficient to besiege the criminal in his house, he must apply to the alderman for affiftance; and if the alderman refuses aid, the affailant must have recourfe to the King: And he is not allowed to affault the house, til after a refufal of affiftance from this supreme magiftrate. If any one meets with his enemy, and is ignorant that he was resolved to keep within his own lands, he muft, before he attacks him, require him to surrender himself a prisoner, and deliver up his arms; in which cafe he may detain him thirty days: But if he refuses to deliver up his arms, it is then lawful to fight him. A slave may fight in his matter’s quarrel: A father may fight in his fon’s with any one, except with his matter.

It was enacted by King Ina, that no man should take revenge of an injury till he had firft demanded compenfation, and had been refufed it.

King Edmond, in the preamble to his laws, mentions the general dissatisfaction, occasioned by the multiplicity of private feuds and battles; and he establishes several expedients to remedy this grievance. He ordains, that if any one murders another, he may, with the affiftance of his kindred, pay within a twelve-month the fine of his crime; and if they abandon him, he shall alone fustain the deadly feud or quarrel with the kindred of the murdered perfon: His own kindred are free from the feud, but on condition that they neither converse with the criminal, nor supply him with meat or other necessaries: If any of them, after renouncing him, receive him into their house, or give him affiftance, they are finable to the King, and are involved in the feud. If the kindred of the murdered perfon take revenge of any but the criminal himself, after he is abandoned by his kindred, all their property is forfeited, and they are declared to be enemies to the King and all his friends. It is also ordained, that the fine for murder shall

* The addition of these last words in Italics appears necessary from what follows in the fame law.
† LL.Ælf. § 28. Wilkins, p. 43. † LL. Inæ. § 9. ‡ LL. Edm. § 1. Wilkins, p. 73.
never be remitted by the King*; and that no criminal shall be killed who flies to the church, or any of the King's towns †; and the King himself declares, that his house shall give no protection to murderers, till they have satisfied the church by their penance, and the kindred of the deceased by making compensation ‡. There follows the method appointed for transacting this composition ¶.

These attempts of Edmond to contract and diminish the feuds, were contrary to the antient spirit of the northern barbarians, and were an advance towards a more regular administration of justice. By the Salic law, any man might, by a public declaration, exempt himself from his family-quarrels: But then he was considered by the law as no longer belonging to the family; and he was deprived of all right of succession, as a punishment of his cowardice §.

The price of the King's head, or his wergild, as it was then called, was by law 30,000 thrifmas, a species of coin whose value is uncertain. The price of the prince's head was 15,000 thrifmas; that of a bishop's or alderman's 8000; a sheriff's 4000; a thane's or clergyman's 2000; a ceorle's 266. These prices were fixed by the laws of the Angles. By the Mercian law, the price of a ceorle's head was 200 shillings; that of a thane's six times as much; that of a King's six times more †. By the laws of Kent, the price of the archbishop's head was higher than that of the King's *. Such respect was then paid to the ecclesiastics! It must be understood, that where a person was unable to pay the fine, he was put out of the protection of law, and the kindred of the deceased had liberty to punish him as they thought proper.

Some antiquarians ‡ have thought, that these compensations were only given for manslaughter, not for wilful murder: But no such distinction appears in the laws; and it is contradicted by the practice of all the other barbarous nations ‡, by that of the antient Germans §§, and by that curious monument above mentioned of Saxon antiquity, preferred by Hickes. There is indeed a law of Alfred's, making wilful murder capital §; but this seems only to have been an attempt of that great legislator for establishing a better police in the kingdom, and to have remained without execution. By the laws of the same prince, a conspiracy against the life of the King might be redeemed by a fine ¶.

* LL. Edm. § 3. † LL. Edm. § 2. ‡ LL. Edm. § 4. § LL. Edm. § 7.
† Tit. 63. ‡ Wilkins, p. 71, 72. §§ LL. Ethled, apud Wilkins, p. 110.
§ Tac. de mor. Germ.
® LL. Ælf. § 12. Wilkins, p. 29. It is probable, that by wilful murder Alfred means a treacherous murder, committed by one who has no declared feud with another.

† LL. Ælf. § 4. Wilkins, p. 35.

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The price of all kinds of wounds was likewise fixed by the Saxon laws: A wound of an inch long under the hair was paid with one shilling; one of a like size on the face, two shillings; thirty shillings for the loss of an ear; and so forth *. There seems not to have been any difference made, according to the dignity of the person. By Ethelbert's laws, any one who committed adultery with his neighbour's wife was obliged to pay him a fine, and buy him another wife †.

These institutions are not peculiar to the antient Germans. They seem to be the necessary progress of criminal jurisprudence among every free people, where the will of the sovereign is not implicitly obeyed. We find them among the antient Greeks during the time of the Trojan war. Compositions for murder are mentioned in Nêstor's speech to Achilles in the ninth Iliad, and are called σπηλαλώνες. The Irish, who never had any connexion with the German nations, adopted the same practice till very lately; and the price of a man's head was called among them his eric; as we learn from Sir John Davis. The same custom seems also to have prevailed among the Jews ‡.

THEFT and robbery were very frequent among the Anglo-Saxons. To impose some check upon these crimes, it was ordained that no man should sell or buy any thing above twenty pence value, except in open market §; and every bargain of sale must be executed before witnesses $. Gangs of robbers much disturbed the peace of the country; and the law determined, that a tribe of banditti, consisting of between seven and thirty-five persons, was to be called a turma, or troop: Any greater company was denominated an army †. The punishments for this crime were various, but none of them capital *. If any man could track his stolen cattle into another's ground, the latter was obliged to show the tracks out of it, or pay their value ‡.

TREASON and rebellion, to whatever excess they were carried, were not then capital, but might be redeemed by a sum of money ‡. The legislators, knowing it impossible to prevent all disorders, only imposed a higher fine on breaches of the peace committed in the King's court, or before an alderman or bishop. An ale-houfe too seems to have been considered as a privileged place; and any quarrels that arose there were more severely punished than elsewhere §§.

* LL. Ælfir. § 40. See also LL. Ethelb. § 34, &c. † LL. Ethelb. § 32.
‡ Exod. cap. 21. 29, 30. § LL. Æthelb. § 12.
* LL. Ine, § 37. ‡ LL. Æthelb. § 2. Wilkins, p. 63.
‡ LL. Ethelredi, apud Wilkins, p. 110. LL. Ælff. § 4. Wilkins, p. 35.
§§ LL. Hloth & Eadm. § 12, 13. LL. Ethelb. apud Wilkins, p 117.
HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

Appendix I. If the punishments of crimes among the Anglo-Saxons appear singular, the proofs were no less so; and were also the natural result of the situation of these people. Whatever we may imagine concerning the usual truth and sincerity of men, who live in a rude and barbarous state, there is much more falsehood, and even perjury, among them than among civilized nations; and virtue, which is nothing but a more enlarged and more cultivated reason, never flourishes to any degree, nor is founded on steady principles of honour, except where a good education becomes general; and men are taught the pernicious consequences of vice, treachery, and immorality. Even superstition, tho' more prevalent among ignorant nations, is but a poor supply for the defects of knowledge and education; and our European ancients, who employed every moment the expedient of swearing on extraordinary crosses and relics, were less honourable in all engagements than their posterity, who from experience have omitted those intellectual securities. This general proneness to perjury was much increased by the usual want of discernment in judges, who could not discurse an intricate evidence, and were obliged to number, not weigh, the testimony of the witnesses*. Hence the ridiculous practice of obliging men to bring compurgators, who as they did not pretend to know any thing of the fact, expressed upon oath that they believed the person spoke true; and these compurgators were in some cases multiplied to the number of three hundred †. The practice also of single combat was employed by most nations on the continent as a remedy against false evidence ‡; and tho' it was frequently dropped, from the opposition of the clergy, it was continually revived, from the experience of the falsehood attending the testimony of witnesses §. It became at last a species of jurisprudence; and the cases were determined by law, in which the party might challenge his adversary, or the witnesses, or the judge himself $: And tho' these customs were absurd, they were rather an improvement on the methods of trial, which had formerly been practised among these barbarous nations, and which still prevailed among the Anglo-Saxons.

When any controversy about a fact became too intricate for these ignorant judges to unravel, they had recourse to what they called the judgment of God, that is, to fortune; and their methods for consulting this oracle were various.

* Sometimes the laws fixed easy general rules for the weighing the credibility of witnesses. A man whose life was estimated at 120 shillings counterbalanced six eorles, each of whose lives was only valued at 20 shillings, and his oath was esteemed equivalent to that of all the six. See Wilkins, p. 72.
† Praef. Nicol ad Wilkins, p. 11.
‡ LL. Burgund. cap. 45. LL. Lomb. lib. 2. tit. 55. cap. 34.
§ LL. Longob. lib. 2. tit. 55. cap. 23. apud Lindenb. p. 661.
$ See Desfontaines and Beaumanoir.

One
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One of them was the decision by the cross; and it was practised in this manner. Appendix I. When a person was accused of any crime, he first cleared himself by oath, attended by eleven compurgators: He next took two pieces of wood, one of which was marked with the sign of the cross; and wrapping both up in wool, he placed them on the altar, or some celebrated relique. After solemn prayers for the success of the experiment, a priest, or in his stead some unexperienced youth, took up one of the pieces of wood, and if he happened upon that marked with the figure of the cross, the person was pronounced innocent; if otherwise, guilty *. This practice, as it arose from superstition, was abolished by it in France. The Emperor, Lewis the Debonnaire, prohibited that method of trial.

The ordeal was another established method of trial among the Anglo-Saxons. It was practised either by boiling water or red-hot iron. The water or iron was consecrated by many prayers, masses, fastings, and exorcisms ‡; after which, the person accused either took up a stone sunk into the water to a certain depth, or carried the iron a certain distance; and his hand being wrapped up, and the covering sealed for three days, if there appeared on examining it no marks of burning, he was pronounced innocent; if otherwise, guilty $. The trial by cold water was different: The person was thrown into consecrated water; if he swam, he was guilty; if he sunk, innocent ¼. It is difficult for us to conceive, how any innocent person could ever escape by the one trial, or any criminal be convicted by the other. But there was another usage admirably calculated for allowing every criminal to escape, who had confidence enough to try it. A consecrated cake, called a conosed, was produced; which if the person could swallow and digest, he was pronounced innocent *

The feudal law, if it had place at all among the Anglo-Saxons, which is military, doubtfully certainly was not extended over all the landed property, and was not at-force, attended with those consequences of homage, reliefs †, wardship, marriage, and other burthens, which were inseparable from it in the kingdoms of the con-

¶ Spellm. in verb. Ordealium.
† On the death of an alderman, a greater or lesser thing, there was a payment made to the King of his best arms; and this was called his heriot: But this was not of the nature of a relief. See Spellm. of tenures, p. 32. The value of this heriot was fixed by Carute's laws, § 69.
As the Saxons expelled or destroyed entirely the antient Britains, they planted themselves in this island on the same footing with their ancestors in Germany, and found no occasion for the feudal institutions *, which were calculated to maintain a kind of standing army, always in readiness to suppress any insurrection of the conquered people. The trouble and expense of defending the state in England lay equally upon all the land; and it was usual for every five hydes to equip a man for the service. The trinoda necessitas, as it was called, or the burden of expeditions, of repairing high-ways, and of building and supporting bridges, was inseparable from landed property, even tho' it belonged to the church or monasteries, unless exempted by a particular charter †. The eorles or husbandmen were provided with arms, and were obliged to take their turn in military duty ‡. There were computed to be 243,600 hydes in England §; and consequently the ordinary military force of the kingdom consisted of 48,720 men; tho' no doubt, on extraordinary occasions, a greater power might be assembled. The King and nobility seem to have had some military tenants, who were called Sith-cunmen $. And there were probably some lands annexed to the office of alderman, and to some other offices; but these seem not to have been of a great extent, and were possessed only during pleasure, as in the commencement of the feudal law in other countries of Europe.

The revenue of the King seems to have consisted chiefly in his demesnes, which were large; and in the tolls and imposts which he probably levied at discretion on the boroughs and sea-ports, that lay within his demesnes. He could not alienate any part of his land, even to religious uses, without the consent of the states ¶. Danegelt was a land-tax of a shilling a hyde, imposed by the states *, either for payment of the sums exacted by the Danes, or for putting the kingdom in a posture of defence against these invaders †.

The Saxon pound, as likewise those coined for some centuries after the conquest, were three times the weight of our present money: There were forty-eight shillings in their pound, and five pence in a shilling ‡; and consequently a Saxon shilling was a fifth larger than ours, and a Saxon-penny three times as large §. As to the value of money in those times, compared to the necessaries of

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* Brafinia de Acqu. rer. dom. lib. 2. cap. 16. See more fully Spellman of feuds and tenures, and Crasius de jure Rudi. lib. 1. dieg. 7.
† Spellm. Conc. vol. 1. p. 256. ‡ Inx § 51.
¶ Fleetwood's Chron. Pesticum, p. 27, 28, &c.
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life, there are some, tho' not very certain means of computation. A sheep by Appendix I.
the laws of Athelftan was estimated at a shilling; that is, fifteen-pence of our
money. The fleece was two-fifths of the value of the whole sheep*; much
above its present estimation; of which the reason probably was, that the Saxons,
like the antients, were little acquainted with any other cloathing but that made of
wool. Silk and cotton were quite unknown: Linen was not much used. An
ox was computed at fix times the value of a sheep; a cow at four†. If we sup-
pose, that the cattle in that age, from the defects of husbandry, were not so large
as they are at present in England, we may compute that money was then near
ten times of greater value. A horse was valued at about thirty-six shillings, of
our money, or thirty Saxon shillings‡; a mare a third less. A man at three
pounds§. The board-wages of a child the first year was eight shillings, a cow's
pasture in summer, and an ox in winter§. William of Malmesbury mentions it
as a high price that William Rufus gave fifteen marks for a horse, or about thirty
pounds of our present money †. Between the years 900 and 1000, Eadnoth
bought a hide of land for about 118 shillings*. This was a little more than a
shilling an acre, which indeed appears to have been the usual price, as we may
learn from other accounts †. A palfrey was sold for twelve shillings about the
year 966 †. The value of an ox, in King Ethelred's time, was between seven and
eight shillings; a cow about six shillings §. Gervas of Tilbury, says, that in Henry
first's time, bread during a day for a hundred men was rated at three shillings, or
a shilling of that age; for it is thought that soon after the conquest a pound
sterling was divided into twenty shillings: A sheep was rated at a shilling, and so
of other things in proportion. In Athelftan's time a ram was valued at a shilling,
or four-pence Saxon §. The tenants of Shireburn were obliged, at their choice, to
pay either six-pence or four hens †. About 1232, the abbot of St. Albans, going
on a journey, hired seven handsome four horses; and agreed, if any of them died
on the road to pay the owner 30 shillings apiece of our present money *.
It is
to be remarked, that in all antient times, corn, being a species of manufactory,
bore always a higher price, compared to cattle, than it does in our times †.
The Saxon Chronicle tells us ‡, that in the reign of Edward the Confessor there
was the most terrible famine ever known; infomuch that a quarter of wheat rose
to sixty-pennies, or about fifteen shillings of our present money. Consequcntly it


* LL. Inæ, 469. † Wilkins, p. 66. ‡ Wilkins, p. 126.
† Fleetwood, p. 83. 94. 96. 98. 1 P. 157. Y was
Appendix I. was as dear as if it now cost seven pounds ten shillings sterling. This much exceeds the great famine in the end of Queen Elizabeth, when a quarter of wheat was sold for four pounds. Money in this last period was nearly of the same value as in our time. These enormous famines are a certain proof of bad husbandry.

On the whole, there are three things to be considered, wherever a sum of money is mentioned in antient times. First, the change of denomination, by which a pound has been reduced to the third part of its antient weight in silver. Secondly, the change in value by the greater plenty of money, which has reduced the same weight of silver to ten times less value, compared to commodities; and consequently, a pound sterling to the thirtieth part of the antient value. Thirdly, the fewer people and less industry, which were then to be found in every European kingdom. This circumstance made even the thirtieth part of the sum more difficult to levy, and caused any sum to have more than thirty times more weight and influence both abroad and at home, than in our times; in the same manner that a sum, an hundred thousand pounds for instance, is at present more difficult to levy in a small state, such as Bavaria, and can operate greater effects on such a small community, than on England. This last difference is not easy to be calculated: But allowing, that England has now above five times more industry, and three times more people than it had at the conquest and for some reigns after it, we are, upon that supposition, to conceive, taking all circumstances together, every sum of money mentioned by historians, as if it were multiplied more than an hundred-fold above a sum of the same denomination at present.

In the Saxon times, land was divided equally among all the male-children of the deceased, according to the custom of Gavelkind. Entails were sometimes practised in those times. Lands were chiefly of two kinds, beockland, or land held by book or charter, which were regarded as full property, and descended to the heirs of the possessor; and folkland, or the land held by the ceorles and common people, who were removable at pleasure, and were indeed only tenants during the will of their lords.

The first attempt, which we find in England to separate the ecclesiastical from the civil jurisdiction, was that law of Edgar, by which all disputes among the clergy were ordered to be carried before the bishop. The penances were then very severe; but as a man could buy them off by money, or might substitute others to perform them, they lay very easy upon the rich.

* LL. Ælf. § 37. apud Wilkins, p. 43.
† Wilkins, p. 83.
APPENDIX I.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons we can say little, but Appendix I. that they were in general a rude, uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, un-Manners. skilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to submissiion under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. Their best quality was their military courage, which yet was not supported by discipline or conduct. Their want of fidelity to the prince, or to any trust reposed in them, appears strongly in the history of their latter period; and their want of humanity in all their history. Even the Norman historians, notwithstanding the low state of the arts in their own country, speak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invasion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. The conquest put the people in a situa- tion of receiving slowly from abroad the rudiments of science and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners.
NOTHING could exceed the consternation, which seized the English, when they received intelligence of the unfortunate battle of Haflings, the death of their King, the slaughter of their principal nobility, and of their bravest warriors, and the rout and dispersion of the remainder. But tho' the losis, which they had sustained in that fatal action, was considerable, it might easily have been repaired by a great nation; where the people were generally armed, and where there resided so many powerful noblemen in every province, who could have assembled their retainers, and have obliged the duke of Normandy to divide his army, and probably to waste it in a multitude of factions and encounters. It was thus, that the kingdom had formerly resisted, for many years, its invaders, and had been gradually subdued, by the continued efforts of the Romans, Saxons, and Danes; and equal difficulties might have been apprehended by William in this bold and hazardous enterprise. But there were several vices in the Anglo-Saxon constitution which rendered it difficult for the English to defend their liberties in so critical an emergency. The people had in a good measure lost all national pride and spirit, by their recent and long subjection to the Danes; and as Canute had, in the course of his administration, much abated the rigors of conquest, and had governed them equitably by their own laws, they regarded with the less terror the ignominy of a foreign yoke, and deemed the inconveniences of submision less formidable than those of bloodshed, war, and resistance. Their attachment also to the antient royal family had been much weakened by their
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habit of submission to the Danish princes, and by their late election of Harold, or their acquiescence in his usurpation. And as they had long been accustomed to regard Edgar Atheling, the only heir of the Saxon line, as unfit to govern them even in times of order and tranquillity; they could entertain small hopes of his being able to repair such great losses as they had sustained, or to resist the victorious arms of the duke of Normandy.

That they might not, however, be altogether wanting to themselves in this extreme necessity, the English took some steps towards adjusting their disjointed government, and uniting themselves against the common enemy. The two potent earls, Edwin and Morcar, who had fled to London with the remains of the broken army, took the lead on this occasion; and in concert with Strigand, archbishop of Canterbury, a man possessed of great authority, and of ample revenues, proclaimed Edgar King, and endeavoured to put the people in a posture of defence, and encourage them to resist the Normans*. But the terror of the late defeat, and the near neighbourhood of the invaders, increased the confusion, inseparable from great revolutions; and every resolution proposed was hasty, fluctuating, variable; disconcerted by fear or faction; ill planned, and worse executed.

William, that his enemies might not have leisure to recover their consternation or unite their councils, immediately put himself in motion after his victory, and resolved to prosecute an enterprise, which nothing but celerity and vigor could render finally successful. His first attempt was against Romney, whose inhabitants he severely punished on account of their cruel treatment of some Norman seamen and soldiers, who had been carried thither by stress of weather or by a mistake in their course†: And foreseeing that his conquest of England might still be attended with many difficulties and with much opposition, he thought it necessary, before he should advance farther into the country, to make himself master of Dover, which would both secure him a retreat in case of adverse fortune, and afford him a safe landing-place for such supplies as might be requisite for affisting him to push his advantages. The terror, diffused by his victory at Hastings, was so great, that the garrison of Dover, the numerous and well provided of every thing, immediately capitulated; and as the Normans, rushing in to take possession of the town, hastily set fire to some of the houses, William, who was desirous to conciliate the minds of the English by an appearance of lenity and justice, made reparation to the inhabitants for their losses‡.

† Gul. Pictav. p. 264.
‡ Ibid.
Chap. IV. The Norman army, being much distressed with a dysentery, was obliged to remain here for eight days; and the duke, on their recovery, advanced with quick marches towards London, and by his approach encreased the confusions, which were already so prevalent in the English councils. The ecclesiastics in particular, whose influence was great over the people, began to declare in his favour; and as most of the bishops and dignified clergymen were even then Frenchmen or Normans, the pope's bull, by which his enterprize was avowed and consecrated, was now openly insisted on as a reason for general submission. The superior learning of these prelates, by which, during the Confessor's reign, they had raised themselves above the ignorant Saxons, made their opinions be received with implicit faith; and a young prince, like Edgar, whose personal qualities were so mean, was but ill qualified to resist the impression, which they made on the minds of the people. A repulse, which a body of Londoners received from five hundred Norman horse, renewed the terror of the great defeat at Hastings*; the easy submission of all the inhabitants of Kent was an additional discouragement to them†; the burning of Southwark before their eyes made them dread a like fate of their own city; and no man any longer entertained thoughts but of immediate safety and of self-preservation. Even the earls, Edwin and Morcar, in despair of making effectual resistance, retired northwards with their troops to their own provinces‡; and the people thenceforth disposed themselves unanimously to yield to the victor. As soon as William passed the Thames at Wallingford, and reached Berkamstead, Stigand, the primate, made submissions to him; and before the prince came within sight of the city, all the chief nobility, and Edgar Atheling himself, the new elected King, came into his camp, and declared their intention of yielding to his authority§. They requested him to accept of their crown, which they now considered as vacant; and declared to him, that, as they had always been ruled by regal power, they desired to follow, in this particular, the example of their ancestors, and knew of no one more worthy than himself to hold the reins of government.§

Tho' this was the great object, to which the duke's enterprize tended, he seemed to deliberate on the offer; and being desirous, at first, of preserving the appearance of a legal administration, he wished to obtain a more express and formal consent both of his own army and of the English nation‡: But

† Gul. Pictav. p. 205. It is pretended, that the Kentishmen capitulated for the preservation of their privileges. See Thom. Spott, apud Wilkins Gloss. in verbo Boecian.
Aimar of Aquitain, a man equally respected for his valor in the field, and for his prudence in council, remonstrating with him on the danger of delay in so critical a conjunction, he laid aside all farther scruples, and accepted of the crown which was proffered to him. Orders were immediately issued to prepare every thing for the ceremony of his coronation; but as he was yet afraid to place entire confidence in the Londoners, who were numerous and warlike, he meanwhile commanded fortresses to be erected, in order to curb the inhabitants, and to secure his person and government.

Stigand was not much in the duke's favour, both because he had intruded into the see on the expulsion of Robert, the Norman, and because he possessed such influence and authority over the English † as might be dangerous to a new established monarch. William, therefore, pretending that the primate had obtained his pall in an irregular manner from pope Benedict IX. who was himself an usurper, refused to be consecrated by him ‡, and conferred that honour on Aldred, archbishop of York. Westminster abbey was the place appointed for that magnificent ceremony; the most considerable of the nobility, both English and Norman, attended the duke on this occasion; Aldred in a short speech asked the former, whether they agreed to accept of William as their King; the bishop 26th Dec. of Constance put the same question to the latter; and both being answered with acclamations §§, Aldred administered to the duke the usual coronation oath, by which he bound himself to protect the church, to administer justice, and to repress violence; and he then anointed him and put the crown upon his head §. There appeared nothing but joy in the countenance of the spectators: But in that very moment, there burst forth the strongest symptoms of the jealousy and animosity which prevailed between the nations, and which continually increased during the reign of this prince. The Norman soldiers, who were placed without in order to guard the church, hearing the shout within, fancied that the English were committing violence on their duke; and they immediately assaulted the populace, and set fire to the neighbouring houses. The alarm was conveyed to the nobility who surrounded the prince; both English and Normans, full of apprehensions, rushed out to secure themselves from the present danger; and it was with difficulty, that William himself was able to appease the tumult †.

|| Order. Vitalis, p. 503.
§ Malmesbury, p. 271, says, that he also promised to govern the Normans and English by equal laws; and this addition to the usual oath seems not improbable, considering the circumstances of the times.

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The King, thus possessed of the throne by a pretended destination of King Edward, and by an irregular election of the people, but still more by force of arms, retired from London to Berkin in Essex; and there received the submissions of all the nobility, who had not attended his coronation. Edric, surnamed the Forester, grand-nephew to that Edric, so noted for his repeated acts of perfidy during the reigns of Ethelred and Edmond; earl Coko, a man famous for bravery; even Edwin and Morcar, earls of Mercia and Northumberland; with the other principal noblemen of England, came and swore fealty to him; were received into favour; and were confirmed in the possession of their estates and dignities *.

Every thing bore the appearance of peace and tranquillity; and William had no other occupation than to give contentment to the foreigners who had helped him to the throne, and to his new subjects, who had so readily submitted to him.

He had got possession of the treasure of Harold, which was considerable; and being also supplied with rich presents from the opulent men in all parts of England, who were solicitous to gain the favour of their new sovereign, he distributed great sums among his troops, and by this liberality gave them hopes of obtaining at length those more durable establishments, which they had expected from his enterprise †. The ecclesiastics, both at home and abroad, had much forwarded his success; and he failed not, in return, to express his gratitude and devotion in the manner which was most acceptable to them: He sent Harold's standard to the Pope, accompanied with many valuable presents: All the considerable monasteries and churches in France, where prayers had been put up for his success, now tasted of his bounty ‡: The English monks found him well disposed to favour their order; and he built a new convent near Hastings, which he called Battle-abbey, and which, on pretence of supporting monks to pray for his own soul, and that of Harold, served as a perpetual memorial of his victory §.

He introduced into England that strict execution of justice, for which his administration had been so celebrated in Normandy; and even during this violent revolution, every disorder or oppression met with the most rigorous punishment ‖. His own army in particular was governed with severe discipline; and notwithstanding the insolence of victory, care was taken to give as little offence as possible to the jealousy of the vanquished ¶. The King appeared solicitous to unite in an amicable manner the Normans and the English, by intermarriages and alliances:

ances; and all his new subjects who approached his person were received with affability and regard. No signs of suspicion appeared, not even towards Edgar Atheling, the heir of the antient royal family, whom he confirmed in the honours of earl of Oxford, conferred on him by Harold, and whom he affected to treat with the highest kindness, as nephew to the Confeffor, his great friend and benefactor *. Tho' he forfeited the estates of Harold, and of those who had fought in the battle of Haftings on the side of that prince, whom he represented as an usurper, he seemed willing to admit of every plausible excuse for past opposition to his pretentions †, and received many into favour, who had carried arms against him. He confirmed the liberties and immunities of London and the other cities of England; and appeared desirous of replacing every thing on antient estabishments. In his whole administration, he bore the semblance of the lawful prince, not of the Conqueror‡; and the English began to flatter themselves, that they had changed, not the form of their government, but only the succession of their sovereigns, a matter which gave them small concern. And the better to reconcile his new subjects to his authority, he made a progress thro' some parts of England; and besides a splendid court and majestic presence, which overawed the people, already struck with his military fame, the appearance of his clemency and justice gained the approbation of the wise, who were attentive to the first steps of their new sovereign.§

But amidst this confidence and friendship, which he expressed for the English, the King took care to place all real power in the hands of his Normans, and still to keep possession of the sword, to which, he was sensible, he had owed his advancement to sovereign authority. He disarmed the city of London and other places, which appeared most warlike and populous§; and building fortresses and citadels in that capital, as well as in Winchester, Hereford, and the cities best situated for commanding the kingdom, he quartered Norman soldiers in all of them, and left no where any power able to resist or oppose him¶. He bestowed the forfeited estates on the most powerful of his captains, and established funds for the payment of his soldiers *. And thus, while his civil administration carried the face of a legal magistrate, his military institutions were those of a master and tyrant; at least of one, who referred to himself, whenever he pleased, the power of assuming that character.

By this mixture, however, of vigour and lenity, he had so pacified the minds of the English, that he thought he might safely revisit his native country, and enjoy the triumph and congratulation of his ancients subjects. He left the administration in the hands of his uterine brother, Odo, bishop of Baieux, and of William Fitz Osbern*; and that their authority might be exposed to less danger, he carried over with him all the most considerable nobility of England, who both served to grace his court by their presence and magnificent retinues, and were retained as hostages for the fidelity of the nation†. Among these, were Edgar Atheling, Stigand the primate, the earls Edwin and Morcar, Waltheof, the son of the famous and brave earl Siward, with others, eminent for the greatness of their fortunes and families, or for their ecclesiastical and civil dignities‡. He was visited at the abbey of Fécamp, where he resided during some time, by Rodulph, uncle to the French King§, and by many powerful princes and nobles, who, having contributed to his enterprize, were desirous of participating in the joy and advantages of its success. His English courtiers, willing to ingratiate themselves with their new sovereign, endeavoured to outshine each other in equipages and entertainments; and made a display of riches, which struck the foreigners with astonishment. William of Poictiers, a Norman historian.§ who was present, speaks with admiration of the beauty of their persons, the size and workmanship of their silver plate, the coUine§ of their embroideries, an art in which the English then excelled; and he expresses himself in such terms, as would much exalt our idea of the opulence and cultivation of the people. But tho’ every thing bore the face of joy and festivity, and William himself treated his new courtiers with great appearance of kindnes, it was impossible to prevent altogether the insolence of the Normans; and the English nobles received small pleasure from those entertainments, where they considered themselves as led in triumph by their ostentatious conqueror.

Discontents of the English.

Affairs in England took still a worse turn during the absence of the sovereign. Discontents and complaints multiplied every where; secret conspiracies were entered into against the government; hostilities were already begun in many places; and every thing seemed to menace a revolution as rapid as that which had placed

§ As the historian chiefly insists on the silver plate, his panegyrics on the English magnificence shews only how incompetent a judge he was of the matter. Silver was then of ten times the value, and was more than twenty times more rare than at present; and consequently, of all species of luxury, plate must have been the rarest.

William
William on the throne. The historian above-mentioned, who is a panegyrist of his master, throws the blame entirely on the fickle and mutinous disposition of the English, and highly celebrates the justice and lenity of Odo's and Fitz Oibern's administration. But other historians, with more probability, impute the cause chiefly to the Normans, who, despising a people that had so easily submitted to the yoke, envying their riches, and grudging the restraints imposed upon their own rapine, were desirous of provoking them to a rebellion, by which they hoped to acquire new confiscations and forfeitures, and to satisfy those unbounded hopes, which they had formed in entering on this enterprise.

It is evident, that the chief reason of this alteration in the sentiments of the English must be ascribed to the departure of William, who was alone capable of curbing the violence of his captains, and of overawing the mutinies of the people. Nothing indeed appears more strange, than that this prince, in less than three months after the conquest of a great, warlike, and turbulent nation, should absent himself, in order to revisit his own country, which remained in profound tranquillity, and was not menaced by any of its neighbours; and should leave so long his jealous subjects at the mercy of an insolent and licentious army.

Were we not assured of the solidity of his genius, and the good sense displayed in all other circumstances of his conduct, we might ascribe this measure to a vain ostentation, which rendered him impatient to display his pomp and magnificence among his antient courtiers. It is therefore more natural to believe, that in so extraordinary a step, he was guided by a concealed policy; and that tho' he had thought proper at first to allure the people to submission by the semblance of a legal administration, he found, that he could neither satisfy his rapacious captains nor secure his unstable government without exerting farther the rights of conquest, and feizing the possessions of the English. In order to give a pretence for this violence, he endeavoured, without discovering his intention, to provoke and allure them into insurrections, which, he thought, could never prove dangerous, while he detained all the principal nobility in Normandy, while a great and victorious army was quartered in England, and while he himself was so near to suppress any tumult or rebellion. But as no antient writer has ascribed this tyrannical purpose to William, it scarce seems allowable, from conjecture alone, to throw such an imputation upon him.

But whether we are to account for that measure from the King's vanity or from his policy, it was the immediate cause of all the calamities which the English endured during this and the subsequent reigns, and gave rise to those mutual jealousies.
loufies and animosities between them and the Normans, which were never appeased, till a long tract of time had gradually united the two nations, and had made them one people. The inhabitants of Kent, who had first submitted to the conqueror, were the first who attempted to throw off the yoke; and in confederacy with Eustace, count of Bologne, who had also been disgusted by the Normans, made an attempt, tho' without success, on the garrison of Dover *. Edric, the Forester, whose possessions lay on the banks of the Severne, being provoked at the depredations of some Norman captains in his neighbourhood, formed an alliance with Blethyn and Rowallan, two Welsh princes; and endeavoured, with their assistance, to repel force by force †. But tho' these open hostilities were not very considerable, the disaffection was general among the English, who had become sensible, tho' too late, of their defenceless condition, and began already to experience those insults and injuries, which a nation must always expect, that allows itself to be reduced to that deplorable situation. A secret conspiracy was entered into to perpetrate in one day a general assassination of the Normans, like that which had been formerly executed against the Danes ‡; and the quarrel was become so universal and national, that the vassals of earl Coxo, having desired him to head them in an insurrection, and finding him resolute in maintaining his fidelity to William, put him to death as a traitor to his country III. The King, informed of these dangerous discontents, hastened over to England; and by his presence, and the vigorous measures which he pursued, disconcerted all the schemes of the conspirators. Such of them as had been more open in their mutiny betrayed their guilt, by flying or concealing themselves; and the confiscation of their estates, while it increased the number of malecontents, both enabled William to gratify farther the rapacity of his Norman captains, and gave them the prospect of new forfeitures and attainders §. The King began to regard all his English subjects as inveterate and irreclaimable enemies; and thenceforth either embraced, or was more fully confirmed in his resolution, of seizing their possessions, and of reducing them to the most abject slavery. Tho' the natural violence and severity of his temper made him incapable of feeling any feruples in the execution of this tyrannical purpose, he had art enough to conceal his intention, and to preserve still some appearance of justice in his oppressions. He ordered all the English, who had been arbitrarily expelled by the Normans, du-

ring his absence, to be restored to their estates *. But at the same time, he imposed a general tax on the people, that of Danegelt, which had been abolished by the Confessor, and which had always been extremely odious to the nation †.

As the vigilance of William overawed the malecontents, their insurrections were more the result of an impatient humour in the people, than of any regular conspiracy, which could give them a rational hope of success against the established power of the Normans. The inhabitants of Exeter, instigated by Githa, mother to King Harold, refused to admit a Norman garrison, and betaking themselves to arms, were strengthened by the accession of the neighbouring inhabitants of Devonshire and Cornwall ‡. The King hastened with his forces to chastise this revolt; and on his approach, the wiser and more considerable citizens, sensible of the unequal contest, persuaded the people to submit, and to deliver hostages for their obedience. A sudden mutiny of the populace broke this agreement; and William, appearing before the walls, ordered the eyes of one of the hostages to be put out, as an earnest of that severity, which the rebels must expect, if they persevered in their revolt §. The inhabitants were anew seized with terror, and surrendering at discretion, threw themselves at the King’s feet, and entreated for clemency and forgiveness. William was not devoid of generosity, when his temper was not hardened either by policy or passion: He was prevailed on to pardon the rebels, and he set guards on all the gates, in order to prevent the rapacity and insolence of his soldiers ¶. Githa escaped with her treasures to Flanders ‖. The insurgents of Cornwall imitated the example of Exeter, and met with like treatment: And the King having built a citadel in that city, which he put under the command of Baldwin, son of Earl Gilbert *, returned to Winchester, and dispersed his army into their quarters. He was here joined by his wife, Matilda, who had not yet visited England, and whom he now ordered to be crowned by archbishop Aldred †. Soon after, she brought him an accession to his family, by the birth of a fourth son, whom he named Henry ‡. His three elder sons, Robert, Richard, and William, still resided in Normandy.

But tho’ the King appeared thus fortunate both in public and domestic life, the discontents of his English subjects augmented daily; and the injuries, committed.

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* Chron. Sax. p. 173. This fact is a full proof, that the Normans had committed great injustice, and were the real cause of the insurrections of the English.
‡ Order. Vital. p. 510. ¶ Ibid. § Ibid.
‡ M. Weft. p. 226.
mitted and suffered on both sides, rendered the quarrel between them and the Normans absolutely incurable. The insolence of victorious masters, dispersed throughout the kingdom, seemed intolerable to the natives; and wherever they found the Normans, separate or assembled in small bodies, they secretly set upon them, and gratified their vengeance by the slaughter of their enemies. But an insurrection in the north drew thither the general attention, and seemed to promise more important consequences. Edwin and Morcar appeared at the head of this rebellion; and these potent noblemen, before they took arms, stipulated for foreign succours, from their nephew Blethin, prince of North-Wales, from Malcolm, King of Scotland, and from Sweyn, King of Denmark. Besides the general discontent, which had seized all the English; the two earls were instigated to this revolt by private injuries. William, in order to ensure them to his interests, had, on his accession, promised his daughter in marriage to Edwin; but either he had never seriously intended to perform this engagement, or having changed his plan of administration in England from clemency to rigor, he thought it was to little purpose, if he gained one family, while he enraged the whole nation. When Edwin, therefore, renewed his application, he gave him an absolute refusal; and this disappointment, added to so many other reasons of disgust, induced that nobleman and his brother to concur with their enraged countrymen, and to make one effort for the recovery of their ancient liberties. William knew the importance of celerity in quelling an insurrection, supported by such powerful leaders, and so agreeable to the wishes of the people; and having his troops always in readiness, he advanced by great journeys to the north. On his march, he gave orders to fortify the castle of Warwick, of which he left Henry de Beaumont governor, and that of Nottingham, which he committed to the custody of William Peverell, another Norman captain. He reached York before the rebels were in any condition for resistance, or were joined by any of the foreign succours, which they expected, except a small reinforcement from Wales; and the two earls found no other means of safety, but having recourse to the clemency of the victor. Archill, a potent nobleman in those parts, imitated their example, and delivered his son as a hostage of his fidelity; nor were the people, thus deserted by their leaders, able to make any farther resistance. But the treatment, which William gave the chieftains and their followers, was very different. He observed religiously the terms, which he had granted the former; and allowed them, for the present, to keep possession of their estates; but he extended the rigors of his confiscations over the latter, and gave away their lands to his foreign adventurers.

adventurers, who, being planted thro' the whole country, and being possessed of the military power, left Edwin and Morcar, whom he pretended to spare, destitute of all support, and ready to fall, whenever he should think proper to command their ruin. A peace, which he made with Malcolm, who did him homage for Cumberland, seemed, at the same time, to deprive them of all prospect of foreign assistance *.

The English were now sensible, that their final destruction was intended; and that instead of a sovereign, whom they had at first hoped to gain by their submissions, they had tamely surrendered themselves, without resistance, to a tyrant and a conqueror. Tho' the early confiscation of Harold's followers might seem iniquitous; being extended towards men who had never sworn fidelity to the duke of Normandy, who were ignorant of his pretensions, and who only fought in defence of the government, which they themselves had established in their own country: Yet were these rigors, however contrary to the antient Saxon laws, excused on account of the urgent necessities of the prince; and those who were not involved in the present ruin, hoped that they would thenceforth enjoy without molestation their possessions and their dignities. But the successive destruction of so many other families convinced them, that the King intended to rely entirely on the support and affections of foreigners; and they forebode new forfeitures, attainders, and violences as the necessary result of this destructive plan of administration. They observed, that no Englishman possessed his confidence, or was intrusted with any command or authority; and that the strangers, whom a rigorous discipline could have but ill contained, were encouraged in every act of insolence and tyranny against them. The easy submission of the kingdom on its first invasion had expos'd the natives to contempt; the subsequent proofs of their animosity and resentment had made them the object of hatred; and they were now deprived of every expedient, by which they could hope to make themselves either regarded or beloved by their sovereign. Impressed with the sense of this dismal situation, many Englishmen fled into foreign countries, with an intention of passing their lives abroad free from oppression, or of returning on a favourable opportunity to assist their friends in the recovery of their native liberties †. Edgar Atheling himself, dreading the insidious carefles of William, was persuaded by Cospatric, a powerful Northumbrian, to escape with him into Scotland; and he carried thither his two sisters, Margaret and Christina. They were well received by Malcolm, who soon after espoused Margaret, the elder sister ‡; and


partly
partly with a view of strengthening his kingdom by the accession of so many
strangers, partly in hopes of employing them against the growing power of Wil-
liam, he gave great countenance to all the English exiles *. Many of them set-
tied there; and laid the foundations of families, which afterwards made a figure
in that kingdom.

While the English suffered under these oppressions, even the foreigners were
not much at their ease; but finding themselves surrounded on all hands by en-
raged enemies, who took every advantage against them, and menaced them with
still more bloody effects of the public resentment, they began to wish again for
the tranquility and security of their native country. Hugh de Gremefnil, and
Humphrey de Teliol, tho’ entrusted with great commands, desired to be dismis-
fed the service; and some others imitated their example: A defertion which was
highly resented by the King, and which he punished by the confiscation of all
their possessions †. But William’s bounty to his followers could not fail of
alluring many new adventurers into his service; and the rage of the vanquished
English served only to excite the attention of the King and these warlike chief-
tains, and kept them in readiness to suppress every commencement of domestic
rebellion or foreign invasion.

It was not long before they found occupation for their prowess and military
conduct. Godwin, Edmond, and Magnus, three sons of Harold, had, imme-
diately after the defeat at Haltings, sought a retreat in Ireland; and having
met with a kind reception from Dermot and other princes of that country, they
projected an invasion of England ‡, and hoped that all the exiles from Denmark,
Scotland, and Wales, assisted with forces from these several countries, would at
once commence hostilities, and rouse the indignation of the English against their
haughty conquerors. They landed in Devonshire; but found Brian, son of the
count of Brittany, ready to oppose them at the head of some foreign troops; and
being defeated in several actions, they were obliged to retreat to their ships, and
to return with great loss into Ireland §. The efforts of the Normans were now
directed to the north, where affairs had fallen into the utmost confusion. The im-
patient Northumbrians had attacked Robert de Comyn, who was appointed go-
vernor of Durham; and gaining the advantage over him from his negligence,
they put him to death in that city with seven hundred of his followers *. This example animated the inhabitants of York, who, rising in arms, flew Robert Fitz-Richard, their governor †; and besieged in the castle William Mallet, on whom the command now devolved. A little after, the Danish troops landed from 300 vessels, under the command of Olberne, brother to King Sweyn, and accompanied by Harold and Canute, the two sons of that monarch ‡. Edgar Atheling appeared from Scotland, and brought along with him Colspatie, Waltheof, Siward, Bearne, Merleswain, Adelin, and other chieftains §, who partly from the hopes which they gave of Scotch succours, partly from their authority in those parts, easily persuaded the warlike and discontented Northumbrians to join the insurrection. Mallet, that he might better provide for the defence of the citadel of York, set fire to some houses, which lay contiguous §; but this expedient proved the immediate cause of his destruction. The flames spreading into the neighbouring streets, reduced the whole city to ashes; and the enraged inhabitants, aided by the Danes, took advantage of the confusion to attack the castle, which they carried by assault; and they put the garrison, amounting to the number of 3000, to the sword without mercy ¶.

This success proved a signal to many other parts of England, and gave the people an opportunity of showing their malevolence to the Normans. Hereward, a nobleman in East-Anglia, celebrated for valour, assembled his followers, and taking shelter in the Isle of Ely, made inroads on all the neighbouring country *. The English in the counties of Somerfet and Dorfet rose in arms, and assaulted Montacute, the Norman governor; while the inhabitants of Cornwall and Devon invested Exeter, which, from the memory of William's clemency, still remained faithful to him †. Edric, the Forester, calling in the assistance of the Welsh, laid siege to Shrewsbury, and made head against earl Brient and Fitz-Olberne, who commanded in those quarters ‡. The English, everywhere, repenting of their former easy submission, seemed determined to make by concert one great effort for the recovery of their liberty, and for the expulsion of their oppressors.

† Order. Vital, p. 514. 1 Ibid.
WILLIAM, undismayed amidst this scene of confusion, assembled his forces, and animating them with the prospect of new confiscations and forfeitures, he marched against the insurgents in the north, whom he regarded as the most formidable, and whose defeat, he knew, would strike a terror into all the other rebels. Joining policy to force, he tried, before his approach, to weaken the enemy, by detaching the Danes from them; and he engaged Osberne, by large presents, and by offering him the liberty of plundering the sea-coast, to retire without committing farther hostilities into Denmark *. Cospatric, in despair of success, imitated the example; and making his submissions to the King, and paying a sum of money as an atonement for his insurrection, was received into favour, and even invested with the earldom of Northumberland. Waltheof, who long defended York with great courage, was allured with this appearance of clemency; and as William knew how to esteem valour even in an enemy, that nobleman had no reason to repent of this confidence †. Even Edric, compelled by necessity, made his submissions to the Conqueror, and received forgiveness, which was soon after followed by some degree of trust and favour ‡. Malcolm, coming too late to support his confederates, was constrained to retire; and all the English insurgents in other parts, except Hereward, who still kept in his fastnesses, dispersed themselves, and left the Normans undisputed masters of the kingdom. Edgar Atheling, with his followers, fought again a retreat in Scotland, with the pursuit of his enemies §.

But the seeming clemency of William towards the English leaders proceeded only from artifice, or from his esteem of individuals: His heart was hardened against all compassion towards the people; and he scrupled no measure, however violent or severe, which seemed requisite to support his plan of tyrannical administration. Sensible of the restles dispossession of the Northumbrians, he determined to incapacitate them ever after from giving him disturbance, and he issued orders for laying entirely waste that fertile country, which, for the extent of sixty miles, lies between the Humber and the Tees §. The houses were reduced to ashes by the merciless Normans, the cattle seized and driven away, the instruments of husbandry destroyed; and the inhabitants compelled either to seek for a

subsistence in the southern parts of Scotland, or if they lingered in England, from a reluctance to abandon their antient habitations, they perished miserably in the woods from cold and hunger. The lives of an hundred thousand persons are computed to have been sacrificed to this stroke of barbarous policy *, which, by seeking a remedy for a temporary evil, thus inflicted a lasting wound on the power and populousness of the nation.

But William, finding himself entirely master of a people, who had given him such sensible proofs of their impotent rage and animosity, now resolved to proceed to extremities against all the natives of England; and to reduce them to a condition, in which they should no longer be formidable to his government. The insurrections and conspiracies in so many parts of the kingdom had involved the bulk of the landed proprietors more or less, in the guilt of treason; and the King took advantage of executing against them, with the utmost rigor, the laws of forfeiture and attainder. Their lives indeed were commonly spared; but their estates were confiscate, and either annexed to the royal demesnes, or conferred with the most profuse bounty on the Normans and other foreigners †. While the King's declared intention was to deprive or rather entirely extirpate the English gentry ‡, it is easy to believe, that scarce a form of justice would be attended to in these violent proceedings §; and that any suspicions served as the most undoubted proofs of guilt against a people thus devoted to destruction. It was crime sufficient in an Englishman to be opulent or noble or powerful; and the policy of the King, concurring with the rapacity of foreign adventurers, produced almost a total revolution in the landed property of the kingdom. Antient and honourable families were reduced to beggary; the nobles themselves were everywhere treated with ignominy and contempt; they had the mortification of seeing their castles and manors possessed by Normans of the meanest birth and lowest stations §, and


|| There is a paper or record of the family of Sharneborne, which pretends, that that family, which was Saxon, was restored upon proving their innocence, as well as other Saxon families, which were in the same situation. Thou this paper was able to impose on such great antiquarians as Spelman (see Gloss. in verbo Dresges) and Dugdale, (see Baron. vol. i. p. 118.) it is proved by Dr. Brady (see answ. to Petyr. p. 11, 12) to have been a forgery; and is allowed for such by Tyrrel, tho' a pertinacious defender of his party notions, (see his hist. vol. ii. intro. p. 51, 73.) Ingulf, p. 70, tells us, that very early Hereward, tho' absent during the time of the conquest, was turned out of all his estate, and could not obtain redress. William even plundered the monasteries. Flor. Wig. p. 636. Chron. Abb. St. Petri de Burgo. p. 48. M. Paris. p. 5. Sim. Dun. p. 200. Dedit. p. 432. Bromptor. p. 96. Knighton. p. 234. Alur. Bev. p. 130. We are told by Ingulf, that Ivo de Taillebois plundered the monastery of Croyland of a great part of its land; and no redress could be obtained.

As power naturally follows property, this revolution alone gave great security to the foreigners; but William, by the new institutions, which he established, took also care to retain for ever the military authority in those hands, which had enabled him to subdue the kingdom. He introduced into England the feudal law, which he found established in France and Normandy, in which, during that age, was the foundation both of the stability and of the disorders in most of the monarchical governments of Europe. He divided all the lands of England, with very few exceptions, except the royal demesnes, into baronies; and he conferred these, with the reservation of stated services and payments, on the most considerable of his adventurers. These great barons, who held immediately of the crown, shared out a great part of their lands to other foreigners, who were denominated knights or vassals, and who paid their lord the same duty and submission in peace and war, which he himself owed to his sovereign. The whole kingdom contained about 700 chief tenants, and 60,215 knights fees; and as none of the native English were admitted into the first rank, the few, who retained their landed property, were glad to be received into the second, and under the protection of some powerful Norman, to load themselves and their posterity with this grievous burthen, for estates which they had received free from their ancestors. The small mixture of English, which entered into this civil or military fabric, (for it partook of both species) was so restrained by subordination under the foreigners, that the Norman dominion seemed now to be fixed on the most durable basis, and to defy all the efforts of its enemies.

The better to unite the parts of the government, and to bind them into one system, which might serve both for defence against foreigners, and for the support of domestic tranquillity, William reduced the ecclesiastical revenues under the same feudal law; and tho' he had courted the church on his first invasion and accession, he now subjected it to burdens, which the clergy regarded as a grievous slavery, and as totally unbefitting their profession. The bishops and abbots

* The obliging all the inhabitants to put out their fires and lights at certain hours, upon the sounding of a bell, called the curfew, is represented by Polydore Virgil, lib. 9, as a mark of the servitude of the English. But this was a law of police, which William had previously established in Normandy. See du Moulin, hist. de Normandie, p. 160. The same law had place in Scotland. Ll. Burgor, cap. 86.
were obliged, when required, to furnish to the King during war a number of knights or military tenants, proportioned to the extent of property possessed by each see or abbey; and they were liable, in case of failure, to the same penalties which were exacted from the laity. The Pope and the ecclesiastics exclaimed against this tyranny, as they called it; but the King's authority was so well established over the army, who held every thing from his bounty, that superstition itself, even in that age, when it was most prevalent, was constrained to bend under his superior influence.

But as the great body of the clergy were still natives, the King had much reason to dread the effects of their resentment; and he therefore used the precaution of expelling the English from all the considerable dignities, and of advancing foreigners in their place. The partiality of the Confeffor towards the Normans had been so great, that, aided by their superior learning, it had promoted them to many of the fees of England; and even before the period of the conquest, scarce more than six or seven of the prelates were natives of the country. But among these was Stigand, archbishop of Canterbury; a man, who, by his address and vigour, by the greatness of his family and alliances, by the extent of his possessions, as well as by the dignity of his office, and his authority over the English, gave great jealousy to the King. Tho' William had, on his accession, affronted this prelate, by employing the archbishop of York to officiate at his consecration, he was careful, on other occasions, to load him with honours and cares, and to avoid the giving him farther offence, till the opportunity should offer of effectuating his final destruction. The suppression of the late rebellions, and the total subjection of the English, made him hope, that an attempt against Stigand, however violent, would be recovered by his great successes, and be overlooked amidst the other important revolutions, which affected so deeply the property and liberty of the kingdom. Yet notwithstanding these mighty advantages, he did not think it safe to violate the reverence usually paid the primate, but under cover of a new superstition, which he was the great instrument of introducing into England.

The doctrine which exalted the papacy above all human power, had gradually diffused itself from the city and court of Rome; and was, during this age, much more prevalent in the southern than in the northern kingdoms of Europe. Pope Alexander, who had assisted William in his conquest of England, reasonably expected, that the French and Normans would import into England the same reverence for his sacred character, with which they were imbued in their own coun-

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† Parker, p. 161.  
‡ Parker, p. 164. Knyghton, p. 3344.
try; and would break the spiritual, as well as civil independency of the Saxons, who had hitherto conducted their ecclesiastical government, with an acknowledgment indeed of primacy in the see of Rome, but without much idea of its title to dominion or authority. As soon, therefore, as the Norman prince seemed fully established on the throne, the Pope dispatched Ermenfroy, bishop of Sion, as his legate into England; and this prelate was the first, who had ever appeared with that character in any part of the British islands. The King, tho' he was probably led by principle to pay this submission to Rome, determined, as is usual, to employ the incident as a means of serving his political purposes, and of degrading those English prelates, who were become obnoxious to him. The legate submitted to become the instrument of his tyranny; and naturally thought, that the more violent the exertion of power, the more certainly did it confirm the authority of that court from which he derived his commission. He summoned, therefore, a council of the prelates and abbots at Winchester; and being assisted by two cardinals, Peter and John, he cited before him Stigand, archbishop of Canterbury, to answer for his conduct*. The primate was accused of three crimes; the holding the see of Winchester together with that of Canterbury; the officiating in the pall of Robert, his predecessor; and the having received his own pall from Benedict IX. who was afterwards deposed for simony, and for intrusion into the papacy†. These crimes of Stigand were mere pretences; since the first had been a practice not unusual in England, and was never anywhere subject to a higher penalty than a resignation of one of the sees; the second was a pure ceremonial; and as Benedict was the only Pope who then officiated, and his acts were never rescinded, all the prelates of the church, especially those who lay at a distance, were very excusable for making their applications to him. Stigand's ruin, however, was resolved on, and was prosecuted with great severity. The legate degraded him from his dignity, and the King confiscated his estate, and cast him into prison, where he continued, in great poverty and want, during the remainder of his life. Like rigour was exercised against the other English prelates: Agelric, bishop of Seley, and Agelmare, of Elham, were deposed by the legate, and imprisoned by the King‡. Many considerable abbots shared the same fate§. Egelwin, bishop of Durham, fled the kingdom$: Wulfan, of Worcester, a man of an inoffensive character, was the

• only
only English prelate who escaped this general proscription*, and remained in possession of his dignity. Aldred, archbishop of York, who had set the crown on William's head, had died a little before of sorrow and vexation, and had left his malediction to that prince, on account of the breach of his coronation-oath, and of the extreme tyranny, with which he saw he was determined to treat his English subjects‡.

It was a fixed maxim in this reign, as well as in some of the subsequent, that no native of the island should ever be advanced to any dignity, ecclesiastical, civil, or military; and the King therefore, upon Stigand's deposition, promoted Lanfranc, a Milanese monk, celebrated for his learning and piety, to the vacant see. This prelate was very rigid in defending the prerogatives of his station; and after a long process before the Pope, he obliged Thomas, a Norman monk, who had been appointed to the see of York, to acknowledge the primacy of the archbishop of Canterbury. Where ambition can be so happy as to cover its attempts, even to the person himself, under the appearance of principle, it is the most incurable and inflexible of all human passions. Hence Lanfranc's zeal to promote the interests of the papacy, by which he himself augmented his own authority, was indefatigable*; and met with proportionable success. The devoted attachment to Rome continually increased in England; and being favoured by the sentiments of the conquerors, as well as by the monastic establishments formerly introduced by Edred, and settled by Edgar, it soon reached the same height, at which, during some time, it had stood in France and Italy. It afterwards went much farther; being favoured by that very remote situation, which had at first obstructed its progress; and being left checked by knowledge and a liberal education, which were still somewhat more common in the southern countries.

* Brompton relates, that Wulfstan was also deprived by the synod; but refusing to deliver his pastoral staff and ring to any but the person from whom he first received it, he went immediately to King Edward's tomb, and stuck the staff so deeply into the stone, that none but himself was able to pull it out: Upon which he was allowed to keep his bishopric. This instance may serve, instead of many, as a specimen of the monkish miracles. See also the Annals of Burton, p. 284.


* Selden in Fleta, cap. 6.

† M. Weft. p. 228. Lanfranc wrote in defence of the real presence against Berengarius; and in those ages of stupidity and ignorance, he was greatly applauded for that performance.

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The prevalence of this superstitious spirit became very dangerous to some of William's successors, and very incommodious to most of them; but the arbitrary power of this King over the English, and his extensive authority over the foreigners, kept him from feeling any present inconveniences from it. He retained the church in great subjection, as well as his lay subjects; and would allow none, of whatever character, to dispute his sovereign will and pleasure. He prohibited his subjects to acknowledge any one for Pope whom he himself had not previously received: He required, that all the ecclesiastical canons, voted in any synod, should first be laid before him, and be ratified by his authority: Even bulls or letters from Rome, before they were produced, must receive the same sanction: And none of his ministers or barons, whatever offences they were guilty of, must be subjected to spiritual censures, till he himself had given his consent to their excommunication *. These regulations were worthy of a sovereign, and kept united the civil and ecclesiastical powers, which the principles introduced by this prince had an immediate tendency to separate.

But the English had the cruel mortification to find, that their King's authority, however acquired or however extended, was all employed to their oppression; and that the scheme of their subjection, attended with every circumstance of insult and indignity †, was deliberately formed by the prince, and wantonly prosecuted by his followers ‡. William had even entertained the difficult project of totally abolishing the English language; and, for that purpose, he ordered, that in all the schools throughout the kingdom, the youth should be instructed in the French tongue, a practice which was continued from custom till after the reign of Edward III. and was never indeed totally discontinued in England. The pleadings in the supreme courts of judicature were in French: The deeds were often drawn in the same language: The laws were composed in that idiom §: No other tongue was used at court: It became the language of all fashionable societies; and the English themselves, ashamed of their own country, affected to excel in that foreign dialect. From this attention of William, and from the great foreign dominions, long annexed to the crown of England, proceeded that great mixture of French, which is at present to be found in the English tongue, and which composes the greatest and best part of our language. But amidst these endeavours to depress the English nation, the King, moved by the remonstrances of some of his prelatures, and by the earnest desires of the people, restored a few

of the laws of King Edward*; which, tho' seemingly of no great consequence towards the protection of general liberty, gave them extreme satisfaction, as a memorial of their antient government, and an unusual mark of complaisance in their imperious conquerors †.

The situation of the two great earls, Morcar and Edwin, became now very disagreeable. Tho' they had retained their allegiance, during the general insurrection of their countrymen, they had not gained the King's confidence, and they found themselves exposed to the malignity of the courtiers, who envied them on account of their opulence and greatness, and at the same time involved them in that general contempt which they bore the English. Sensible that they had entirely lost their dignity, and could not even hope to remain long in safety; they determined, tho' too late, to run the same hazard with their countrymen ‡; and while Edwin retired to his estate in the north, with a view of commencing an insurrection, Morcar took shelter in the Isle of Ely with the brave Hereward, who, secured by the inaccessible situation of that place, still defended himself against the Normans §. But this attempt served only to accelerate the ruin of the few English, who had hitherto been able to preserve their rank or fortune during the past convulsions. William employed all his endeavours to subdue the Isle of Ely; and having surrounded it with flat-bottomed boats, and made a causeway thro' the morasses for the extent of two miles, he obliged the rebels to surrender at discretion. Hereward alone forced his way, sword in hand, thro' the enemy; and still continued his hostilities by sea against the Normans, till at last William, charmed with his bravery, received him into favour, and restored him to his estate. Earl Morcar, and Egelwin, bishop of Durham, who had joined the malecontents, were thrown into prison, and the latter soon after died in con-

† What these laws were of Edward the Confessor, which the English, every reign during a century and a half, desired so passionatly to have restored, is much disputed by antiquarians, and our ignorance of them seems one of the greatest defects in the antient English history. The collection of laws in Wilkins, which pass under the name of Edward, are plainly a posterior and an ignorant compilation. Those to be found in Ingulf are genuine; but so imperfect, and contain so few clauses favourable to the subject, that we see no great reason for contending for them so vehemently. It is probable, that the English meant the common law, as it prevailed during the reign of Edward; which we may conjecture to have been more indulgent to liberty than the Norman institutions. The most material articles of it were comprehended in Magna Charta.
Edwin, attempting to make his escape into Scotland, was betrayed by some of his followers; and was killed by a party of Normans, to the great affliction of the English, and even to that of William, who paid a tribute of generous tears to the memory of this gallant and beautiful youth. The King of Scotland, in hopes of profiting by these convulsions, had fallen upon the northern counties; but on the approach of William, he retired; and when the King entered his country, he was glad to make peace, and to pay the usual homage to the English crown. To complete the King's prosperity, Edgar Atheling himself, despairing of success, and weary of a fugitive life, submitted to his enemy; and receiving a handsome allowance, was permitted to live in England unmolested. But these acts of generosity towards the leaders were disgraced, as usual, by William's rigour against the inferior malecontents. He ordered the hands to be lopt off, and the eyes to be put out, of many of the prisoners, whom he had taken in the Isle of Ely; and he sent them in that miserable condition thro' the country, as monuments of his severity.

The province of Maine in France had, by the will of Herbert, the last count, fallen under the dominion of William some years before his conquest of England; but the inhabitants, dissatisfied with the Norman government, and instigated by Fulk, count of Anjou, who had some pretensions to the succession, had risen in rebellion, and expelled the magistrates, whom the King had placed over them. The full settlement of England now afforded him leisure to punish this insult on his authority; but being unwilling to remove his Norman forces from this island, he carried over a considerable army, composed almost entirely of English, and after joining them to some troops levied in Normandy, he entered the revolted province. The English appeared ambitious of distinguishing themselves on this occasion, and of recovering that character of valour, which had long been national among them; but which their late easy subjection under the Normans had somewhat degraded and obscured. Perhaps too they hoped, by their zeal and activity, to recover the confidence of their sovereign, as their ancestors had formerly, by like means, gained the affections of Canute; and to conquer his inveterate prejudices in favour of his own countrymen. The King's military conduct, seconded by such brave troops, soon overcame all opposition in
Maine: The inhabitants were obliged to submit, and the count of Anjou relinquish his pretensions.

But during these transactions, the government of England was greatly disturbed; and that too by those very foreigners, who owed every thing to the King's bounty, and who were the sole object of his friendship and regard. The chieftains, who had engaged with the duke of Normandy in the conquest of England, were endowed with the most independant spirit; and tho' they obeyed their leader in the field, they would have regarded with disdain the richest acquisitions, had they been required, in return, to submit, in their civil government, to the arbitrary will of one man. But the imperious character of William, encouraged by his absolute dominion over the English, and often impelled by the necessity of his affairs, had prompted him to stretch his authority over the Normans themselves, beyond what the free genius of that victorious people could easily bear. The discontents were become very general among those haughty nobles; and even Roger, earl of Hereford, son and heir of Fitz-Osberne, the King's chief favourite, was strongly infected by them. This nobleman, intending to marry his sister to Ralph de Guader, earl of Norfolk, had thought it his duty to inform the King of his purpose, and to desire the royal consent; but meeting with a refusal, he proceeded nevertheless to finish the nuptials, and assembled all his friends, and those of Guader, to attend the solemnity *. The two earls, disgusted with the denial of their request, and dreading William's resentment for their disobedience, here prepared matters for a revolt; and during the gaiety of the festival, while the company was heated with wine, they opened the design to their guests. They inveighed against the arbitrary conduct of the King; his tyranny towards the English, whom they affected on this occasion to commiserate; his imperious behaviour to his barons of the noblest birth; and his apparent intention of reducing the victors and the vanquished to a like ignominious servitude †. Amidst their complaints, the indignity of submitting to a bastard ‡ was not forgot; the certain prospect of success in a revolt, by the assistance of the Danes and the discontented English, was insinuated; and the whole company, inflamed with the same sentiments, and warmed by the jollity of the entertainment, entered, by a solemn engagement, into the design of shaking off the royal authority §. Even earl Waltheof, who was present, inconsistent.

‡ William was so little ashamed of his birth, that he assumed the appellation of bastard in some of his letters and charters. Spellm. Gloff. in verb. Baffardus. Camden in Richmondshire.
rately expressed his approbation of the conspiracy, and promised his concurrence towards its success*.

**This** nobleman, the last of the English who, for some generations, possessed any power or authority, had, after his capitulation at York, been received into favour by the Conqueror, had even married Judith, niece to that prince, and had been promoted to the earldoms of Huntington and Northampton †. Cophatric, earl of Northumberland, having, on some new disgust from William, retired into Scotland, where he received the earldom of Dunbar from the bounty of Malcolm; Waltheof was appointed his successor in that important command, and seemed still to possess the confidence and friendship of his sovereign ‡. But as he was a man of generous principles, and loved his country, it is probable, that the tyranny exercised over the English lay heavy upon his mind, and destroyed all the satisfaction which he could reap from his own grandeur and advancement. When a prospect, therefore, was opened of retrieving their liberty, he hastily embraced it; while the fumes of the liquor, and the ardour of the company, prevented him from reflecting on the consequences of that rash attempt. But after his cool judgment returned, he forewarned that the conspiracy of these discontented barons was not likely to prove successful against the established power of William; or if it did, that the slavery of the English, instead of being alleviated by that event, would become more grievous, under a multitude of foreign leaders, factious and ambitious, whose union or discord would be equally oppressive to the people. Tormented with these reflections, he opened his mind to his wife, Judith, of whose fidelity he entertained no suspicion, but who, having secretly fixed her affections on another, took this opportunity of ruining her easy and credulous husband. She conveyed intelligence of the conspiracy to the King, and aggravated every circumstance, which, she believed, would tend to enrage him against Waltheof, and render him absolutely impacable §. Meanwhile, the Earl, still unsatisfied with regard to the part which he should act, discovered the secret in confession to Lanfranc, on whose probity and judgment he had a great reliance; and was persuaded by the prelate, that he owed no fidelity to those rebellious barons, who had by surprize gained his consent to a crime; that his first duty was to his sovereign and benefactor, his next to himself and his family; and that if he seized not the opportunity of making atonement for his guilt, by revealing it, the temerity of the conspirators was so great, that they would give

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Ypod. Neufl. p. 439. *
some other person the means of acquiring the merit of the discovery. Waltheof, convinced by these arguments, went over to Normandy *; but, tho' he was well received by the King, and thanked for his fidelity, the account previously conveyed by Judith had sunk deep into William's mind, and destroyed all the merit of her husband's repentance.

The conspirators, hearing of Waltheof's departure, immediately concluded their designs to be betrayed; and they flew to arms, before their schemes were ripe for execution, and before the arrival of the Danes, in whose aid they placed their chief confidence. The earl of Hereford was checked by Walter de Lacy, a great baron in those parts, who, supported by the bishop of Worcester and the abbot of Evesham, raised some forces, and prevented the earl from passing the Severne, or advancing into the heart of the kingdom †. The earl of Norfolk was defeated at Fagadun, near Cambridge, by Odo, the regent, assisted by Richard de Bienfaite, and William de Warrenne, the two justiciaries of the kingdom ‡. The prisoners taken in this action had their right foot cut off, as a punishment of their treason: The earl himself escaped to Norwich, thence to Denmark; where the Danish fleet, who had made an unsuccessful attempt upon the coast of England §, soon after arrived, and informed him, that all his confederates were suppressed, and were either killed, fled, or taken prisoners $. Ralph retired in despair to Brittany, where he possessed a large estate, and noble jurisdictions ¶.

The King, who hastened over to England, in order to suppress the insurrection, found, that nothing remained but the punishment of the criminals, which he executed with great severity. Many of the rebels were hanged; some had their eyes put out; others their hands cut off * But William, agreeable to his usual maxims, showed more lenity to the leader, the earl of Hereford, who was only condemned to a forfeiture of his estate, and to imprisonment during the King's pleasure. The King seemed even disposed to remit this last part of the punishment; had not Roger, by a fresh insolence, provoked him to render his confinement perpetual †. But Waltheof, being an Englishman, was not treated with
with so much humanity, tho' his guilt, which was always much inferior to that of the other conspirators, was atoned for by a very early repentance and return to his duty. William, instigated by his niece, as well as by his rapacious courtiers, who longed for so rich a forfeiture, ordered him to be tried, condemned, and executed*. The English, who considered this nobleman as the last resource of their nation, grieviously lamented his fate, and fancied that miracles were wrought by his relics, as a testimony of his innocence and sanctity †. The infamous Judith, falling soon after under the King's displeasure, was abandoned by all the world, and passed the rest of her life in contempt, remorse, and misery‡.

Nothing remained to complete William's satisfaction but the punishment of Ralph de Guader; and he hastened over to Normandy, in order to gratify his vengeance on that criminal. But tho' the contest seemed very unequal between that nobleman and the King of England, Ralph was so well defended, both by the earl of Brittany and the King of France, that William, after besieging him for some time in Dol, was obliged to abandon the enterprise, and make with those powerful princes a peace, in which Ralph himself was included §. England, during his absence, remained in tranquility; and nothing remarkable occurred, except two ecclesiastical synods, which were summoned, one at London, another at Winchester. In the former, the precedence among the episcopal sees was settled, and the seat of some of them was removed from small villages to the most considerable town within the diocese $. In the second was transacted a business of some more importance.

The industry and perseverance are surprising, with which the Popes had been tressuring up powers and pretentions during so many ages of ignorance; while each pontiff employed every fraud for advancing purposes of imaginary piety, and cherished all claims which might turn to the advantage of his successors, tho' he himself could not expect ever to reap any benefit from them. All this immense store of spiritual and civil authority was now devolved on Gregory VII. of the name of Hildebrand, the most enterprising pontiff who had ever filled that chair, and the least restrained by fear, decency, or moderation. Not contented with shaking off the yoke of the Emperors, who had hitherto exercised the power of appointing the Pope on every vacancy, or at least of ratifying his election; he undertook the arduous task of disjoining entirely the ecclesiastical from the civil power, and of excluding profane laymen from the right, which they had afflu-

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

The sovereigns, who had long exercised this power, and who had attained it, not by encroachments on the church, but on the people, to whom it originally belonged, made great opposition to this claim of the court of Rome; and Henry IV. the present Emperor, defended the prerogative of his crown with a vigour and resolution suitable to its importance. The few offices, either civil or military, which the feudal institutions left the sovereign the power of bestowing, made the prerogative of conferring the pastoral ring and staff the most invaluable jewel of the royal diadem; especially as the general ignorance of the age bestowed a weight on the ecclesiastical offices, even beyond the great extent of power and property which belonged to them. Superstition, the child of ignorance, invested the clergy with an authority almost sacred; and as they possessed the little learning of the age, their interference became requisite in all civil business, and a real usefulness in common life was thus superadded to the spiritual sanctity of their character.

When the usurpations, therefore, of the church had come to such a maturity as to embolden her to attempt extorting the right of investitures from the temporal power, Europe, especially Italy and Germany, was thrown into the most violent convulsions, and the Pope and Emperor waged implacable war against each other. Gregory even dared to fulminate the sentence of excommunication against Henry and his adherents, to pronounce him rightfully deposed, to free his subjects from their oaths of allegiance; and instead of shocking mankind with this gross encroachment on the civil authority, he found the stupid people ready to second his most exorbitant pretensions. Every minister, servant, or vassal of the Emperor, who received any disgust, covered his rebellion under the pretence of principle; and even the mother of this monarch, forgetting all the ties of nature, was seduced to countenance the insolence of his enemies. Princes themselves, unattentive to the pernicious consequences of these papal claims, employed them for their present purposes; and the controversy, spreading into every city of Italy, engendered the parties of Guelf and Ghibbelin; the most durable and inveterate factions that ever arose from the mixture of ambition and superstition. Besides numberless assassinations, tumults, and convulsions, to which they gave rise, it is computed that the quarrel occasioned no less than sixty battles in the reign of Henry IV. and eighteen in that of his successor, Henry V. when the claims of the sovereign pontiff finally prevailed.

† Padre Paolo sopra benef. ecleie. p. 30.  
‡ Padre Paolo, ibid. p. 113.
But the bold spirit of Gregory, not dismayed with the vigorous opposition, which he met with from the Emperor, extended his usurpations all over Europe; and well knowing the nature of mankind, whose astonishment ever inclines them to yield to the most impudent pretensions, he seemed determined to set no bounds to the spiritual, or rather temporal monarchy, which he had undertaken to erect. He pronounced the sentence of excommunication against Nicephorus, Emperor of the East: Robert Guiscard, the adventurous Norman, who had acquired the dominion of Naples, was attacked by the same dangerous weapon: He degraded Boleslas, King of Poland, from the rank of King: and even deprived Poland of the title of a kingdom: He attempted to treat Philip, King of France, with the same rigour, which he had employed against the Emperor*: He pretended to the entire property and dominion of Spain; and he shared it out amongst adventurers, who undertook to conquer it from the Saracens, and to hold it in vassalage of the see of Rome †: Even the Christian bishops, on whose aid he relied in subduing the temporal princes, saw that he was determined to reduce them to servitude; and by assuming the whole legislative and judicial power of the church, to concentrate all authority in the sovereign pontiff ‡.

William the Conqueror, the most potent, the most haughty, and the most vigorous prince in Europe, was not, amidst all his splendid successes, secured from the attacks of this enterprising prelate. Gregory wrote him a letter, requiring him to fulfil his promise in doing homage for the kingdom of England to the see of Rome, and to send him over that tribute, which all his predecessors had been accustomed to pay to the vicar of Christ. By the tribute, he meant Peter's pence; which, tho' at first a charitable donation of the Saxon princes, was interpreted, according to the usual practice of the Roman court, to be a badge of subjection acknowledged by the kingdom. William replied, that the money should be remitted as usual; but that he neither had promised to do homage to Rome, nor was it in the least his purpose to impose that servitude on his state. And the better to show Gregory his independance, he refused, notwithstanding the frequent complaints of the Pope, the English bishops liberty to attend a general council, which that pontiff had summoned against his enemies.

But tho' the King showed this vigour in supporting the royal dignity, he was infected with the general superstition of the age, and he did not discover the ambitious scope of those institutions, which, under the cover of strictness in religion,

* Epist. Greg. XII. epift. 32, 35. lib. 2. epift. 5.
‡ Spileg. Selden ad Eadmer, p. 164.

were
were introduced or promoted by the Roman pontiff, Gregory, while he was throwing all Europe into combustion by his violence and impostures, affected an anxious care for the purity of manners; and even the chaste pleasures of the marriage-bed were inconsistent, in his opinion, with the sanctity of the sacerdotal character. He had issued a decree prohibiting the marriage of priests, excommunicating all clergymen who retained their wives, declaring all such unlawful commerce to be fornication, and rendering it criminal in the laity to attend divine worship when such profane priests officiated at the altar*. This point was a great object in the politics of the Roman court; and it cost them infinitely more pains to establish it, than the propagation of any speculative absurdity, which they had ever attempted to introduce. Many synods were summoned in different parts of Europe, before it was finally settled; and it was there constantly remarked, that the younger clergymen complied cheerfully with the Pope’s decrees in this particular, and that the chief reluctance appeared in those who were more advanced in years: An event so little conformable to men’s first expectations, that it could not fail to be glossed on, even in that blind and superstitious age. William allowed the Pope’s legate to assemble, in his absence, a synod at Winche-ster, in order to settle the celibacy of the clergy; but the church of England could not yet be carried the whole length expected; and the synod was content with decreeing, that the bishops should not thenceforth ordain any priests or deacons without exacting from them a promise of celibacy; but that none, except those who belonged to collegiate or cathedral churches, should be obliged to separate from their wives.

The King passed some years in Normandy; but his long residence there was not entirely owing to his declared preference of that duchy: His presence was necessary for composing those disturbances, which had arisen in that favourite territory, and which had even originally proceeded from his own family. Robert, his eldest son, surnamed Gambaron or Courthofe, from his short legs, was a prince, who inherited all the bravery of his family and nation; but without that policy and dissimulation, by which his father was so much distinguished; and which, no less than his military valor, had contributed to his great successes. Greedy of fame, impatient of contradiction, without reserve in his friendships, declared in his enmities, this prince could endure no control even from his imperious father, and openly aspired to that independance, to which his temper, as well as some circumstances in his situation, strongly invited him‡. When William first received the submissions of the province of Maine, he had promised the

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inhabitants that Robert should be their prince; and before he undertook the expedition against England, he had, on the application of the French court, declared him his successor in Normandy, and had obliged the barons of that duchy to do him homage as their future sovereign. By this artifice, he had endeavoured to appease the jealousy of his neighbours, as affording them a prospect of separating England from his dominions on the continent; but when Robert demanded of him the execution of these engagements, he gave him an absolute refusal, and told him, according to the homely saying, that he never intended to throw off his cloaths, till he went to bed *. Robert openly declared his discontent; and was suspected of secretly intriguing the King of France and the earl of Brittany to the opposition which they made to William, and which had formerly frustrated his attempts upon the town of Dol. And as the quarrel still augmented, Robert proceeded to entertain a strong jealousy of his two surviving brothers, William and Henry, (for Richard was killed in hunting by a stag) who, by greater submission and complaisance, had acquired the affections of their father. In this disposition, the greatest trifle sufficed to produce a rupture between them.

The three princes, residing with their father in the castle of l’Aigle in Normandy, were one day engaged in sport together; and after much frolic, the two younger took it in their head to throw over some water on Robert as he passed thro’ the court on leaving their apartment †; a pastime which he would naturally have regarded as innocent, had it not been for the suggestions of Alberic de Grentmesnil, son of that Hugh de Grentmesnil, whom William had formerly deprived of his fortunes, when that baron deserted him during his greatest difficulties in England. This young nobleman, mindful of the injury, persuaded the prince, that this action was meant as a public affront, which it behoved him in honour to resent; and the choleric Robert, drawing his sword, ran up stairs, with an intention of taking revenge on his brothers ‡. The whole castle was full of tumult, which the King himself, who hasted from his apartment, found some difficulty to appease. But he could by no means appease the resentment of his eldest son, who, complaining of his partiality, and fancying that no proper atonement had been made him for the insult, left the court that very evening, and hastened to Rouen, with an intention of seizing the citadel of that place §. But being disappointed in this view by the precaution and vigilance of Roger de Ivery, the governor, he fled to Hugh de Neufchatel, a powerful Norman baron, who gave him protection in his castles; and he openly levied war against his father ¶. The popular character of the prince, and a sympathy in manners,
engaged all the young nobility of Normandy and Maine, as well as of Anjou and Brittany, to take part with him; and it was suspected, that Matilda, his mother, whose favourite he was, supported him in his rebellion by secret remittances of money, and by the encouragement, which she gave his partizans.

All the hereditary provinces of William, as well as his family, were during several years thrown into convulsion by this war; and he was at last obliged to have recourse to England, where that species of military government, which he had established, gave him greater authority than the antient feudal institutions permitted him to exercise in Normandy. He called over an army of English under his antient captains, who soon expelled Robert and his adherents from their retreats, and restored the sovereign’s authority in all his dominions. The young prince was obliged to take shelter in the castle of Gerberoy in the Beauvoisis, which the King of France, who secretly fomented all these discords, had provided for him. In this fortress he was closely besieged by his father, against whom, having a strong garrison, he made a gallant defence. There past under the walls of this place many encounters, which resembled more the single combats of chivalry, than the military actions of armies; but one of them was remarkable for its circumstances and its event. Robert happened to encounter with the King, who was concealed by his helmet; and both being valiant, a fierce combat ensued, till at last the young prince wounded his father in the arm, and threw him from his horse. Calling for assistance, his voice discovered him to his son; who struck with remorse for his past crime, and astonished with the apprehensions of one much greater, which he had so nearly incurred, instantly threw himself at his father’s feet, craved pardon for his offences, and offered to purchase forgiveness by any atonement*. The resentment, harboured by William, was so inveterate, that he did not immediately correspond to this dutiful submission of his son with like tenderness; but giving him his malediction, departed for his own camp, on Robert’s horse, which that prince had affiited him to mount †. He soon after railed the siege, and marched with his army to Normandy; where the interposition of the Queen and other common friends brought about a reconciliation, which was probably not a little forwarded by the generosity of the son’s behaviour in this action, and by the returning sense of his past misconduct. The King seemed so fully appeased, that he even carried over Robert with him into England; where he intrusted him to repel an inroad of Malcolm King of


Scots.
Scots, and to retaliate by a like inroad into that country. The English prince was successful, and obliged the enemy to make submissions. The Welsh, unable to resist William's power, were, about the same time, necessitated to make satisfaction for their incursions*; and every thing was reduced to a full tranquility in this island.

This state of affairs gave William leisure to begin and finish an undertaking, which proves his great and extensive genius, and does honour to his memory: It was a general survey of all the lands in the kingdom, their extent in each district, their proprietors, tenures, value; the quantity of meadow, pasture, wood, and arable land, which they contained; and in some counties the number of tenants, cottagers, and slaves of all denominations, who lived upon them. He appointed commissioners for this purpose, who entered every particular in their register by the verdict of juries; and after a labour of six years (for the work was so long in finishing) brought him an exact account of all the landed property of his kingdom†. This monument, called Domesday-book, the most valuable piece of antiquity, possessed by any nation, is still preserved in the Exchequer; and tho' only some extracts of it have hitherto been published, it serves to illustrate to us in many particulars the antient state of England. The great Alfred had finished a like survey of the kingdom in his time, which was long kept at Winchester, and which probably served as a model to William in this undertaking‡.

The King was naturally a great economist; and tho' no prince had ever been so bountiful to his officers and servants, it was merely because he had rendered himself universal proprietor of England, and had a whole kingdom to bestow. He reserved a very ample revenue for the crown; and in the general distribution of land among his followers, he kept possession of no less than 1422 manors in different parts of England§, which paid him rent either in money, or in corn, cattle, and the usual produce of the land. An antient historian computes, that his annual fixed income, besides escheats, fines, reliefs, and other casual profits to a great value, amounted to near 400,000 pounds a year; a sum, which, if all circumstances be attended to, will appear wholly incredible.

‡ Ingulf. p. 8.
§ Weft's enquiry into the manner of creating peers, p. 24.
§ Order. Vital. p. 523. He says 1060 pounds and some odd shillings and pence a day.

A pound
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A pound in that age, as we have before observed, contained three times the weight of silver that it does at present; and the same weight of silver, by the most probable computation, would purchase ten times more of the necessaries of life, tho’ not in the same proportion of the finer manufactures. This revenue, therefore, of William would be equivalent to at least nine or ten millions at present; and as that prince had neither fleet nor army to support, the former being only a casual expence, and the latter maintained, without any charge to him, by his military vassals, we must hence conclude, that no emperor or prince, in any age or nation, was ever to be compared to the Conqueror in opulence and riches. This leads us to suspect a great mistake in the computation of the historian; tho’, if we consider that avarice is always imputed to William as one of his vices *, and that having by the sword rendered himself master of all the lands in the kingdom, he would certainly in the partition retain a great proportion for his own share; we can scarce be guilty of any error in ascertaining, that no King of England was ever so opulent, was so able to support by his revenue the splendor and magnificence of a court, or could bestow so much on his pleasures or in liberalities to his servants and favourites †.

There was one pleasure, to which William, as well as all the Normans, and the new fo-antient Saxons, was extremely addicted; and that was hunting: But this pleasure he indulged more at the expense of his unhappy subjects, whose interests he always disregarded, than to the loss or diminution of his own revenue. Not contented with those large forests, which the former Kings possessed in all parts of England; he resolved to make a new forest near Winchester, the usual place of his residence: And for that purpose, he laid waste the country in Hampshire for an extent of thirty miles, expelled the inhabitants from their houses, seized their property, even demolished churches and convents, and made the sufferers no compensation for the injury ‡. At the same time, he enacted new laws, by which he prohibited all his subjects from hunting in any of his forests, and rendered the penalties much more severe than ever had been inflicted for such offences. The killing of a deer or boar, or even of a hare, was punished with the loss of the delinquent’s eyes §; and that at a time, when the killing of a man could be atoned for by paying a moderate fine or composition.

The transactions, recorded during the remainder of this reign, may be considered more as domestic occurrences, which concern the prince, than as national

† Fortescue de Dom. reg. & politic. cap. 111.
events, which regard England. Odo, bishop of Baieux, the King's uterine brother, whom he had created earl of Kent, and whom he had entrusted with a great share of power during his whole reign *, had amassed immense riches; and agreeable to the usual progress of human wishes, he began to regard his present acquisitions but as a step to farther grandeur. He had formed the chimerical project of buying the papacy; and tho' Gregory, the present Pope, was not of very advanced years, the prelate had confided so much in the predictions of an astrologer, that he made certain account of the pontiff's death, and of attaining, by his intrigues and money, that envied state of greatness †. He resolved, therefore, to transmit all his riches to Italy, and had persuaded many considerable barons, and, among the rest, Hugh earl of Chester, to take the same course, in hopes, that when he should mount the papal throne, he would bestow on them more considerable establishments in that country ‡. The King, from whom all these projects had been carefully concealed, at last got intelligence of the design, and ordered Odo to be arrested. His officers, respecting the immunities, to which the ecclesiastics now pretended, scrupled to execute the command, till the King himself was obliged in person to seize him; and when Odo insisted that he was a prelate, and exempt from all temporal jurisdiction, William replied, that he arrested him, not as bishop of Baieux, but as earl of Kent §. He was sent prisoner into Normandy; and notwithstanding all the remonstrances and menaces of Gregory, was detained in custody during the remainder of this reign §.

Another domestic event gave the King much more concern: It was the death of Matilda, his consort, whom he tenderly loved, and for whom he had ever preserved the most sincere friendship. Three years afterwards, he passed into Normandy, and carried with him Edgar Atheling, to whom he very willingly granted permission to make a pilgrimage into the holy land ¶. He was detained on the continent by a misunderstanding, which broke out between him and the King of France, and which was occasioned by inroads made into Normandy by some French barons on the frontiers *. It was little in the power of princes at that time to restrain their licentious nobility; but William suspected, that these barons dared not to have provoked his indignation, had they not been assured of the countenance and protection of Philip. His displeasure was increased by the account he received of some railleries, which that monarch had thrown out against him.

‡ Ibid. ¶ Chron. Abb. St. Petri de Burgo, p. 51. W. Malmes. p. 120.
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William, who was become corpulent, had been detained in bed some time by sickness; upon which Philip expressed his surprize that his brother of England should be so long in being delivered of his great belly. The King sent him word, that, as soon as he was up, he would present so many lights at Notre-dame, as would perhaps give little pleasure to the King of France; alluding to the usual practice at that time of women after child-birth.* Immediately on his recovery, he led an army into the L’Isle de France, and laid every thing waste with fire and sword: He took the town of Mante, which he reduced to ashes †. But the progress of these hostilities was flopt by an accident, which soon after put an end to William’s life. His horse starting aside of a sudden, he bruised his belly on the pommel of his saddle ‡; and being in a bad habit of body, as well as somewhat advanced in years, he began to apprehend the consequences, and ordered himself to be carried in a litter to the monastery of St. Gervais. Finding his illness increas’d, and being sensible of the approach of death, he discovered at last the vanity of all human grandeur, and was struck with remorse for those horrible cruelties and violences, which, for the attainment and defence of it, he had committed during the course of his reign over England §. He endeavoured to make compensation by presents to churches and monasteries; and he issued orders for the liberty of earl Morcar, Siward Bearne, and other English prisoners. He was even prevailed on, tho’ not without reluctance, to consent, with his dying breath, to the deliverance of his brother, Odo, against whom he was extremely incensed: He left Normandy and Maine to his eldest son, Robert: He wrote to Lanfranc, desiring him to crown William King of England †: He bequeathed to Henry nothing but the possessions of his mother, Matilda; but foretold, that he would one day surpass both his brothers in power and opulence *. He expired in the fifty-third year of his age, in the twenty-first of 9th Septemb. his reign over England, and in the fifty-fourth of that over Normandy.

*A few princes have been more fortunate than this great monarch, or were better entitled to grandeur and prosperity, from the abilities and the vigour of mind which he displayed in all his conduct. His spirit was bold and enterprising, yet guided

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guided by prudence: His ambition, which was exorbitant, and lay little under the restraints of justice, and still less under those of humanity, ever submitted to the dictates of reason and sound policy. Born in an age when the minds of men were intractable and unacquainted with submission, he was yet able to direct them to his purposes; and partly from the ascendant of his vehement character, partly from art and dissimulation, to establish an unlimited authority. Tho' not insensible to generosity, he was hardened against compassion; and he seemed equally ostentatious and ambitious of eclat in his clemency and in his severity. The maxims of his administration were austere; but might have been useful, had they been solely employed in preserving order in an established government: They were ill calculated for softening the rigors, which, under the most gentle management, are inseparable from conquest. His attempt against England was the last great enterprize of the kind, which, during the course of seven hundred years, has fully succeeded in Europe; and the greatness of his genius broke through those limits, which first the feudal institutions, then the refined policy of princes, have fixed to the several states of Christendom. Tho' he rendered himself infinitely odious to his English subjects, he transmitted his power to his posterity, and the throne is still filled by his descendants: A proof, that the foundations which he laid were firm and solid, and that, amidst all his violences, while he seemed only to gratify the present passion, he had still an eye towards futurity.

Some writers have been desirous of refusing to this prince the title of Conqueror, in the sense in which it is commonly understood; and on pretence, that that word is sometimes in old books applied to such as make an acquisition of territory by any means, they are willing to reject William's title, by right of war, to the crown of England. It is needless to enter into a controversy, which, by the terms of it, must necessarily degenerate into a dispute of words. It suffices to say, that the duke of Normandy's first invasion of the island was hostile; that his subsequent administration was entirely supported by arms; that in the very frame of his laws he made a distinction between the Normans and Englifh, to the advantage of the former; that he acted in every thing as absolute master over the natives, whose interests and affections he totally disregarded; and that if there was an interval when he assumed the appearance of a legal magistrate, the period was very short, and was nothing but a temporary sacrifice, which he, as has been the case with most conquerors, was obliged to make of his inclination to his present policy. Scarcely any of those revolutions, which, both in history and in common language, have always been denominated conquests, appear equally vio-

lent, or have been attended with so sudden an alteration both of power and property. The Roman state, which spread its dominion over Europe, left the rights of individuals, in a great measure, untouched; and those civilized conquerors, while they made their own country the seat of empire, found, that they could draw most advantage from the subject provinces, by bestowing on the natives the free enjoyment of their own laws and of their private possessions. The barbarians, who subdued the Roman empire, tho’ they settled in the conquered countries, yet being accustomed to a rude uncultivated life, found a small part of the land sufficient to supply all their wants; and they were not tempted to seize extensive possessions, which they neither knew how to cultivate nor employ. But the Normans, and other foreigners, who followed the standard of William, while they made the vanquished kingdom the seat of empire, were yet so far advanced in arts as to be acquainted with the advantages of a large property; and having totally subdued the natives, they pushed the rights of conquest (very extensive in the eyes of avarice and ambition, however narrow in those of reason) to the utmost extremity against them. Except the former conquest of England by the Saxons themselves, who were induced, by peculiar circumstances, to proceed even to the extermination of the natives, it would be difficult to find in all history a revolution more destructive, or attended with a more complete subjection of the antient inhabitants. Contumely seems even to have been wantonly added to oppression*; and the natives were universally reduced to such a state of meannefs and poverty, that the English name became a term of reproach, and several generations elapsed before one family of Saxon pedigree was raised to any considerable honours, or could so much as attain the rank of barons of the realm†. These facts are so apparent from the whole tenor of the English history, that none would have been tempted to deny or elude them, were they not heated by the controversies of faction; while one party were absurdly afraid of those absurd consequences, which they saw the other party inclined to draw from this event. But it is evident, that the present rights and privileges of the people, who are a mixture of English and Normans, can never be affected by a transaction, which passed seven hundred years ago; and as all antient authors‡, who lived nearest the

† So late as the reign of King Stephen, the earl of Albemarle, before the battle of the Standard, addressed the officers of his army in these terms: "Proceres Anglie clarissimi, & genre Normanni, &c."
the time, and best knew the state of the country, unanimously speak of the Norman dominion as a conquest by war and arms, no reasonable man, from the fear of imaginary consequences, will ever be tempted to reject their concurring and undoubted testimony.

King William had issue, besides his three sons, who survived him, five daughters, to wit, (1.) Cicely, first a nun in the monastery of Fescamp, afterwards abbess in the holy Trinity at Caen, where she died in 1127. (2.) Constantia, married to Alan Fergant, earl of Brittany. She died without issue. (3.) Alice, contracted to Harold. (4.) Adela, married to Stephen, earl of Blois, by whom she had four sons, William, Theobald, Henry, and Stephen; of whom the elder was neglected, on account of the imbecility of his understanding. (5.) Agatha, who died a virgin, but was betrothed to the King of Gallicia. She died on her journey thither, before she joined her bridegroom.

CHAPTER V.

WILLIAM RUFUS.

Accession of William Rufus—Conspiracy against the King—Invasion of Normandy—The Crusades—Acquisition of Normandy—Quarrel with Anselm, the primate—Death—and character of William Rufus.

WILLIAM, surnamed Rufus or the Red, from the colour of his hair, had no sooner procured his father's recommendatory letter to Lanfranc, the primate, than he hastened to take measures for securing to himself the government of England. Sensible, that a deed so unformal and so little prepared, which violated Robert's right of primogeniture, might meet with great opposition, he trusted entirely for success to his own celerity and dispatch; and having left St. Gervais, while William was breathing his last, he arrived in England, before intelligence of his father's death had reached that kingdom. Pretending orders from the King, he secured the fortresses of Dover, Pevensey, and Hastings, whose situation rendered them of the greatest importance; and he got possession of his father's treasure at Winchester, amounting to the sum of sixty thousand pounds, by which he hoped to increase and encourage his partizans. The primate, whose rank and reputation in the kingdom gave him great authority, had been entrusted with the care of his education, and had conferred on him the honour of knighthood; and being connected with him by these ties, and probably deeming his pretensions just, declared that he would pay a willing obedience to the last will of the Conqueror, his friend and benefactor. Having assembled some bishops and some of the principal nobility, he instantly proceeded to the ceremony of crowning the new King; and by this dispatch prevented all danger of faction and resistance. At the same time, Robert, who had been already acknowledged successor to Normandy, took peaceable possession of that duchy.

* W. Malmes. p. 120.  M. Paris, p. 19.
‡ W. Malmes. p. 120.  M. Paris, p. 10.  Thom. Rudborne, p. 263.
§ Hoveden, p. 461.

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But tho’ this partition appeared to have been made without any violence or opposition, there remained in England many causes of discontent, which seemed to menace that kingdom with a sudden revolution. The Norman barons, who generally possessed large estates both in England and in their own country, were uneasy at the separation of these territories; and foresaw, that, as it would be impossible for them to preserve long their allegiance to two masters, they must necessarily resign either their ancient property, or their new acquisitions*. Robert’s title to the duchy they esteemed incontrovertible; his claim to the kingdom plausible; and they all desired that this prince, who alone had any pretensions to unite these territories, should be put in possession of both. A comparison also of the personal qualities of these two princes, led them to give the preference to the elder. The duke was brave, open, sincere, generous; and even his predominant faults, his extreme indolence and facility, were not disagreeable to those haughty barons, who esteemed independence, and submitted with reluctance to a rigorous administration in their sovereign. The King, tho’ equally brave as his brother, was violent, haughty, tyrannical; and seemed disposed to govern more by the fear than by the love of his people †. Odo, bishop of Baieux, and Robert earl of Mortaigne, maternal brothers of the Conqueror, envying the great credit of Lanfranc, which was increased by his late services, enforced all these motives with their partizans, and engaged them in a formal conspiracy to dethrone the King ‡. They communicated their design to Euftace, count of Bologne, Roger earl of Shrewsbury and Arundel, Robert de Belesme, his eldest son, William bishop of Durham, Robert de Mowbray, Roger Bigod, Hugh de Grantmenil; and they easily procured the assent of these potent noblemen. The conspirators, retiring to their castles, hastened to put themselves in a military posture; and expecting to be soon supported by a powerful army from Normandy, they had already begun hostilities in many places §.

The King, sensible of his perilous situation, endeavoured to engage the affections of the native English; and as that people were now so thoroughly subdued that they no longer aspired to the recovery of their ancient liberties, and were contented with the prospect of some mitigation in the tyranny of the Norman princes, they zealously embraced William’s cause, upon receiving some general promises of good treatment, and of enjoying the licence of hunting in the royal forests §. The King was soon in a situation of taking the field; and as he

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* Order. Vitalis, p. 666. † W. Malmes, p. 120. Order. Vitalis, 666.
knew the danger of delay, he suddenly marched into Kent; where his uncles had already taken possession of the fortresses of Pevensey and Rochester. Both these places, he successively reduced by famine; and tho' he was prevailed on by the earl of Chester; William de Warrenne, and Robert Fitz Hamon, who had embraced his cause, to spare the lives of the rebels, he confiscated all their estates, and banished them the kingdom*. This advantage rendered his negotiations more successful with Roger earl of Shrewbury, whom he detached from the confederates †; and as his powerful fleet, joined to the indolent temper of Robert, prevented the arrival of the Norman succours‡; all the other rebels found no resource but in flight or submission: Some of them received a pardon; but the greater part were confiscated; and the King bestowed their estates on the Norman barons, who had remained faithful to him §.

William, freed from the danger of this insurrection, took little care of fulfilling his promises to the English, who still found themselves exposed to the same oppressions, which they had undergone during the reign of the Conqueror; and which were rather augmented by the violent, impetuous temper of the present monarch. The death of Lanfranc, who had retained great influence over him, gave soon after a full career to his tyranny; and all orders of men found reason to complain of an arbitrary and illegal administration §. Even the privileges of the church, which were held very sacred in those days, were a feeble rampart against his usurpations ‡. He seized the temporalities of all the vacant bishoprics and abbeys; he delayed the appointing successors to those dignities, that he might the longer enjoy the profits of their revenue; he bestowed some of the church-lands in property on his captains and favourites; and he openly put to sale such fees and abbeys as he thought proper to dispose of. Tho' the murmurs of the ecclesiastics, which were quickly propagated to the nation, rose high against this grievance, the terror of William's authority, confirmed by the suppression of the late insurrections, retained every one in subject, and preserved a general tranquillity in England.

The King even thought himself enabled to disturb his brother in the possession of Normandy. The loose and negligent administration of that prince had emboldened the Norman barons to affect an independency in their government; invasion of Normandy.

and their mutual quarrels and devastations had rendered that whole territory a
scene of violence and outrage*. Two of them, Walter and Odo, were bribed
by William to deliver the fortresses of St. Valeri and Albemarle into his hands†:
Others soon after imitated the example; while Philip, King of France, who
ought to have protected his vassal in the possession of his fief, was, after making
some efforts in his favour, engaged by large presents to remain neuter‡. The
duke had also reason to apprehend danger from the intrigues of his brother
Henry. This young prince, who had inherited nothing of his father's great
possessions but some of his money, had furnished Robert, while he was making
his preparations against England, with the sum of three thousand marks; and
in return for so slender a supply, had been put in possession of the Cotentin, which
comprehended near a third of the duchy of Normandy§. Robert afterwards
upon some suspicion threw him into prison; but finding himself exposed to
invasion from the King of England, and dreading the conjunction of the two bro-
thers against him, he now gave Henry his liberty, and even made use of his af-
sistance in suppressing the insurrections of his rebellious subjects. Conan, a rich
burgess of Rouen, had entered into a conspiracy to deliver that city to William;
but Henry, on the detection of his guilt, carried up the traitor to a high tower,
and with his own hands flung him from the battlements$.

The King appeared in Normandy at the head of an army; and affairs seemed
to have come to extremity between the brothers; when the nobility on both s-
fides, strongly connected by interest and alliances, interposed and procured an
accommodation. The immediate advantage of this treaty accrued to William,
who obtained possession of the territory of Eu, the towns of Aumale, Fecamp,
and other places: But in return he promised, that he would assist his brother in
subduing Maine, which had rebelled; and that the Norman barons, forfeited in
Robert's cause, should be restored to their estates in England. The two brothers
also stipulated, that on the demise of either without issue, the survivor should
inherit all his dominions; and twelve of the most powerful barons on each side
swore, that they would employ their power to infure the effectual execution of the
whole treaty+: A strong proof of the great independance and authority of the
nobles in those ages!


Prince
PRINCE Henry, disgusted, that so little care had been taken of his interests in this accommodation, retired to St. Michael's Mount, a strong fortress on the coast of Normandy, and infested the neighbourhood with his incursions. Robert and William with their joint forces besieged him in this place, and had nearly reduced him by the scarcity of water; when the elder, hearing of his distress, granted him permission to supply himself, and also sent him some pipes of wine for his own table. Being reproved by William for this ill-timed generosily, he replied, 

*What! shall I suffer my brother to die with thirst? Where shall we find another, whom he is gone to?* The King also, during this siege, performed an act of generosily, which was less suitable to his character. Riding out one day alone to take a survey of the fortress, he was attacked by two soldiers, and dismounted. One of them drew his sword in order to dispatch him; when the King exclaimed, *Hold, Knave! I am the King of England.* The soldier suspended his blow; and raising the King from the ground, with expressions of respect, received a handsome reward, and was taken into his service. Prince Henry was soon after obliged to capitulate; and being despoiled of all his dominions, wandered about for some time, with very few attendants, and often in great poverty.

The continued inteseine discord among the barons alone was in that age destructive: The public wars were commonly short and feeble, produced little bloodshed, and were attended with no memorable event. To this Norman war, which was so soon concluded, there succeeded hostilities with Scotland, which were of no longer duration. Robert here commanded his brother's army, and obliged Malcolm to accept of peace and to do homage to the crown of England. This peace was not more durable. Malcolm, two years after, levying an army, invaded England; and after ravaging Northumberland, he laid siege to Alnwick, where a party of Earl Mounbray's troops falling upon him by surprize, a sharp action ensued, in which Malcolm was slain. This incident disjointed for some years the succession to the Scottish crown. Tho' Malcolm left legitimate sons, his brother, Donald, on account of the youth of these princes, was advanced to the throne; but kept not long possession of the royal dignity. Duncan, natural son of Malcolm, formed a conspiracy against him; and being af-

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fifted by William with a small force, made himself master of the kingdom.*

New broils ensued with Normandy. The frank, open, remiss temper of Robert was ill fitted to withstand the interested, rapacious character of William, who, being supported by greater power, was still encroaching on his brother’s possessions, and exciting his turbulent barons to rebellion against him †. The King having gone over to Normandy to support his partizans, ordered an army of twenty thousand men to be levied in England, and to be conducted to the seacoast, as if they were instantly to be embarked. Here Ralph Lambard, the King’s minister, and the chief instrument of his extortions, exacted ten shillings a-piece from them, in lieu of their service, and then dismissed them into their several counties ‡. This money was so skilfully employed by William, that it rendered him better service than he could have expected from the army. He engaged the French King by new presents to depart from the protection of Robert; and he daily bribed the Norman barons to desert his service §: But was prevented from pushing his advantages against the duke, by an incursion of the Welsh, which obliged him to return into England ¶. He found no difficulty to repel the enemy; but was not able to make any considerable impression on a country, guarded by its mountainous situation. A conspiracy of his own barons, which was detected at this time, appeared a more serious concern, and engrossed all his attention. Robert Mowbray, earl of Northumberland, was at the head of this combination; and he engaged in it the count d’Eu, Richard de Tunbrige, Roger de Lacy, and many others. The purpose of the conspirators was to dethrone the King, and to advance in his stead, Stephen, count of Aumale, nephew to the Conqueror*. William’s expedition prevented the design from taking effect, and disconcerted the conspirators. Mowbray made some resistance; but being made prisoner, was forfeited, and thrown into confinement, where he died about thirty years after †. The count d’Eu denied his concurrence in the plot; and to justify himself, fought in the presence of the court at Windsor, a duel with Geoffrey Bainard, who accosted him. But being worsted in the combat, he was condemned to be castrated, and to have his eyes put out ‡. William de Alderi,
another conspirator, was supposed to be treated with more rigor, when he was sentenced to be hanged *

But the noise of these petty wars and commotions was quite sunk in the tumult of the Crusades, which now engrossed the attention of all Europe, and have ever since employed the curiosity of mankind, as the most signal and most durable monument of human folly, that has yet appeared in any age or nation. After Mahomet had, by means of his pretended revelations, united the dispersed Arabians under one head, they issued forth from their deserts in great multitudes; and being animated with zeal for their new religion, and supported by the vigor of their new government, they made deep impressions on the eastern empire, which was far in the decline, with regard both to military discipline and to civil policy. Jerusalem, by its situation, became one of their most early conquests; and the Christians had the mortification to see the holy sepulchre, and the other places, made famous by the presence of their religious founder, fallen into the possession of infidels. But the Arabians or Saracens were so employed in military enterprizes, by which they spread their empire, in a few years, from the banks of the Ganges to the straits of Gibraltar, that they had no leisure for theological controversy; and though the Alcoran, the original monument of their faith, seems to contain some violent precepts, they were much less infected with the spirit of bigotry and persecution than the speculative Greeks, who were continually refining on the several articles of their religious system. They gave little disturbance to those zealous pilgrims, who daily flocked to Jerusalem; and they allowed every man, after paying a moderate tribute, to visit the holy sepulchre, to perform his religious duties, and to return in peace. But the Turcomans or Turks, a tribe of Tartars, who had embraced Mahometanism, having wrested Syria from the Saracens, and having in the year 1065, made themselves masters of Jerusalem, rendered the pilgrimage much more difficult and dangerous to the Christians. The barbarity of their manners, and the confusions attending their unsettled government, exposed the pilgrims to many insults, robberies, and extortions; and these zealots, returning from their meritorious fatigues, and sufferings, filled all Christendom with indignation against the infidels, who profaned the holy city by their presence, and derided the sacred mysteries in the very place of their completion. Gregory VII. among the other vast ideas, which he entertained, had formed the design of uniting all the western Christians against the Mahometans; but his exorbitant enterprizes against the civil power of princes, had created him so many enemies, and had rendered his schemes so suspicious, that he was not able to make great progress in this under-

* Chron. Sax. p. 204.
taking. The work was reserved for a meaner instrument, whose low condition exposed him to no jealousy, and whose folly was well calculated to coincide with the prevailing principles of the times.

Peter, commonly called the Hermit, a native of Amiens in Picardy, had made the pilgrimage to Jerusalem; and being deeply affected with the dangers, to which that act of piety now exposed the Pilgrims, as well as with the instances of oppression, under which the eastern Christians, laboured, he entertained the bold, and in all appearance, impracticable project of leading into Asia, from the farthest extremities of the west, armies sufficient to subdue those potent and warlike nations, which now held the holy land in slavery and subjection. He proposed his views to Martin II. who filled the papal chair, and who, tho’ he was sensible of the advantages, which the head of the Christian religion must reap from a religious war, and tho’ he esteemed the blind zeal of Peter a proper means for effecting the purpose, resolved not to interpose his authority, till he saw a greater probability of success. He summoned a council at Placentia, which consisted of four thousand ecclesiastics and thirty thousand seculars; and which was so numerous, that no hall could contain the multitude, and it was necessary to hold the assembly in a plain. The harangues of the pope, and of Peter himself, representing the dismal situation of their brethren in the east, and the indignity, suffered by the Christian name, in allowing the holy city to remain in the hands of the infidels, here found the minds of men so well prepared, that the whole multitude, as if actuated by a supernatural instinct, declared for the war, and solemnly devoted themselves to perform this service, so meritorious, as they believed it, towards God and religion.

But though Italy seemed thus to have embraced zealously the design, Martin justly thought, that, in order to insure success, it was necessary to inflit the greater and more warlike nations in the same engagement; and having exhorted Peter previously to visit the chief cities and sovereigns of Christendom, he summoned another council at Clermont in Auvergne. The fame of this great and pious design, being now universally diffused, procured the attendance of the greatest prelates, nobles, and princes; and when the Pope and the hermit renewed their pathetic exhortations, the whole assembly, as if impelled by an immediate inspiration, not moved by their preceding impressions, exclaimed with one voice, It is the will of God, It is the will of God: Words deemed so memorable, and so much the result of a divine influence, that they were employed
as the signal of rendezvous and battle in all the future exploits of these adventurers *

Men of all ranks flew to arms with the utmost ardor, and an exterior symbol too, a circumstance of chief moment, was here chosen by the devoted combatants. The sign of the cross, which had been hitherto so much revered among Christians, and which, the more it was an object of reproach among infidels, was the more passionately cherished by them, became the badge of union, and was affixed to their right shoulder, by all who inlisted themselves in this sacred warfare †.

Europe was at this time sunk into a profound ignorance and superstition: The ecclesiastics had acquired the greatest ascendant over the human mind: The people, who, being little restrained by honour and less by law, abandoned themselves to the greatest crimes and disorders, knew of no other expiation than the observances imposed on them by their spiritual pastors: And it was easy to represent the holy war as an equivalent for all penances ‡, and an atonement for every violation of justice or humanity. But amidst the abject superstition, which now prevailed, the military spirit also had universally diffused itself; and though not supported by art or discipline, was become the general passion of the nations, governed by the feudal law. All the great lords possessed the right of peace and war: They were engaged in continual hostilities with each other: The open country was become a scene of outrage and disorder: The cities, which were still mean and poor, were neither guarded by walls, nor protected by privileges, and were exposed to each insult: Every man was obliged to depend for safety on his own force, or his private alliances: And valor was the only excellence, which was held in esteem, or gave one man the pre-eminence above another. When all the particular superstitions, therefore, were here united in one great object, the ardour for private hostilities took the same direction; and Europe, impelled by its two ruling passions, was loosened, as it were, from its foundations, and seemed to precipitate itself in one united body upon the east.

All orders of men, deeming the crusades the only road to heaven, inlisted themselves under these sacred banners, and were impatient to open the way with their sword to the holy city. Nobles, artizans, peasants, even priests + inrolled their names; and to decline this meritorious service was branded with the reproach of impiety, or what perhaps was esteemed still more disgraceful, of cowardice and pusillanimity ‖. The infirm and aged contributed to the expedition by presents and money; and many of them, not satisfied with the merit of this atonement, attended it in person, and were determined, if possible, to breathe


their
their last, in sight of that city where their Saviour had died for them. Women themselves, concealing their sex under the disguise of armour, attended the camp; and commonly forgot still more the duty of their sex, by prostituting themselves, without reserve, to the army *. The greatest criminals were forward in a service, which they regarded as a propitiation for all crimes; and the most enormous disorders were, during the course of these expeditions, committed by men enured to wickedness, encouraged by example, and impelled by necessity. The multitude of the adventurers soon became so great, that their more sagacious leaders, Hugh count de Vermandois, brother to the French King, Raymond count of Tholouse, Godfrey of Boulogne, prince of Brabant, and Stephen count of Blois †, became apprehensive lest the greatness of the armament itself would disappoint its purpose; and they permitted an undisciplined multitude, computed at 300,000 men, to go before them under the command of Peter the Hermit, and Walter the Moneyless ‡. These men took the road towards Constantinople thro' Hungary and Bulgaria; and trusting, that heaven, by supernatural assistance, would supply all their necessities, they made no provision for subsistence on their march. They soon found themselves obliged to obtain by plunder what they had vainly expected from miracles; and the enraged inhabitants of the countries thro' which they passed, gathering together in arms, attacked the disorderly multitude, and put them to slaughter without resistance. The more disciplined armies followed after, and passing over the straits at Constantinople, they were mustered in the plains of Asia, and amounted in the whole to the number 700,000 combatants 

Amidst this universal madness, which spread itself by contagion throughout all Europe, especially in France and Germany, men were not entirely forgetful of their present interests; and both those who went on this expedition, and those who stayed behind, entertained schemes of gratifying, by its means, their avarice or their ambition. The nobles who inlisted themselves were moved, by the romantic spirit of the age, to hope for opulent establishments in the east, the chief seat of arts and commerce during those ages; and in pursuit of these chimerical projects, they sold at the lowest price their antient castles and inheritances, which had now lost all value in their eyes. The greater princes, who remained at home, besides establishing peace in their dominions by giving occupation abroad to the inquietude and martial disposition of their subjects, took the opportunity of annexing to their crown many considerable fiefs, either by purchase or by the extinction of the heirs. The Pope frequently turned the zeal of the crusaders from the infidels against his own enemies, whom he represented as equally criminal


with
with the enemies of Christ. The convents and other religious societies bought the possessions of the adventurers; and as the contributions of the faithful were commonly entrusted to their management, they often diverted to this purpose what was intended to be employed against the infidels*. But no one was a more immediate gainer by this epidemic fury than the King of England, who kept aloof from all connexions with those fanatical and romantic warriors.

Robert, duke of Normandy, impelled by the bravery and mistaken generosity of his spirit, had early inlisted himself in the crusade; but being always unprovided of money, he found, that it would be impracticable for him to appear, in a manner suitable to his rank and station, at the head of his numerous vassals and subjects, who, transported with the general rage, were determined to follow him into Asia. He resolved, therefore, to mortgage or rather to sell his dominions, which he had not talents to govern; and he offered them to his brother William, for no greater sum than ten thousand marks †. The bargain was soon concluded: The King raised the money by violent extortions on his subjects of all ranks, even on the convents, who were obliged to melt their plate in order to furnish the quota demanded of them ‡: He was put in possession of Normandy and Maine: And Robert, providing himself of a magnificent train, set out for the holy land, in pursuit of glory, and, as he believed, in full assurance of securing his eternal salvation.

The smallness of this sum, with the difficulties which William found in raising it, suffices alone to refute the account, which is heedlessly adopted by historians, of the enormous revenue of the Conqueror. Is it credible, that Robert would confign into the rapacious hands of his brother such considerable dominions, for a sum, which, according to that account, made not a week’s income of his father’s treasury? Or that the King of England could not on demand, without oppression of his subjects, have been able to pay him the money? The Conqueror, it is agreed, was frugal as well as rapacious; and yet his treasure, at his death, exceeded not 60,000 pounds, which would have been no more than his income for two months: another certain refutation of that exaggerated account.

The fury of the crusades, during this age, less infected England than the neighbouring kingdoms; probably because the Norman conquerors, finding their settlement in that kingdom still somewhat precarious, dared not to abandon their own houses, in quest of distant adventures. The selfish interested humour also

* Padre Paolo Hist. delle benev. ecclesiast. p. 128.
of the King, which kept him from kindling in the general flame, checked its progress among his subjects; and as he is accused of open profaneness *, and was endowed with a sharp wit †, it is likely that he made the romantic chivalry of the crusades the object of his perpetual ridicule. As an instance of his irreligion, we are told, that he once accepted of sixty marks from a Jew, whose eldest son had been converted to Christianity, and who engaged him by that present to assist him in bringing back the youth to Judaism. William employed both menaces and persuasion to that purpose; but finding the new convert obstinate in his faith, he sent for the father, and told him, that as he had not succeeded, it was not just that he should keep the present; but as he had done his utmost, it was but equitable that he should be paid for his pains; and he would therefore only retain thirty marks of the money ‡. At another time, it is said he sent for some learned Christian theologians and some rabbies, and bade them fairly dispute the question of their religion in his presence: He was perfectly indifferent between them, had his ears open to reason and conviction, and would embrace that doctrine, which upon comparison should be found supported by the most solid arguments §. If this story be true, it is probable that he meant only to amuse himself by turning both into ridicule: But we must be cautious of admitting every thing related by the monkish historians to the disadvantage of this prince: He had the misfortune to be engaged in quarrels with the ecclesiastics, particularly with Anselm, commonly called St. Anselm, archbishop of Canterbury; and it is no wonder his memory should be blackened by the historians of that order.

Quarrel with Anselm, the primate.

After the death of Lanfranc, the King, for several years, retained in his own hands the revenues of Canterbury, as well as those of many other vacant bishoprics; but falling into a dangerous illness, he was seized with remorse, and the clergy represented to him, that he was in danger of eternal perdition, if before his death he did not make atonement for those multiplied impieties and sacrileges, of which he had been guilty §. He resolved therefore to supply instantaneously the vacancy of Canterbury; and for that purpose, he sent for Anselm, a Piedmontese by birth, abbot of Bec in Normandy, who was much celebrated for his learning and devotion. The abbot refused earnestly the dignity, fell on his knees, wept, and entreated the King to change his purpose †; and when he found the prince obstinate in forcing the pastoral staff upon him, he kept his fist so fast clenched, that it required the utmost violence of the bystanders to open it, and force him

‡ Eadmen. p. 47. § W. Malm. p. 123.
to receive that ensign of spiritual dignity *. William soon after recovered his health; and his passions regaining their usual strength and vigour, he returned to his former violence and rapine †. He retained in prison several persons whom he had ordered to be freed during the time of his penitence; he still preyed upon the ecclesiastical benefices; the sale of spiritual dignities continued as open as ever; and he retained possession of a considerable part of the revenues belonging to the see of Canterbury ‡. But he found in An'elm that persevering opposition, which he had reafon to expect from the oftentatious humility, which that prelate had employed in refucing his promotion.

The opposition of Anfelm was the more dangerous on account of the character of piety, which he soon acquired in England, by his great zeal against all abuses, particularly thofe in drefs and ornament. There was a mode, which, in that age, prevailed throughout Europe, both among men and women, to give an enormous length to their shoes, to draw the toe to a sharp point, and to affix to it the figure of a bird's bill, or fome fuch ornament, which was turned upwards, and which was often sustained by gold or silver chains tied to the knee §. The ecclefaftics took exception at this ornament, which, they faid, was an atfemft to belief the scripture, where it is affirmed, that no man can add a cubit to his stature; and they declaimed againft it with great vehemence, nay assembled fome fynods, who absolutely condemned it. But fuch are the strange contradictions in human nature! tho' the clergy, at that time, could overturn thrones, and had authority fufficient to fend above a million of men on their errand to the defarts of Asia, they never could prevail againft these long-pointed shoes: On the contrary, that caprice, contrary to all other modes, maintained its ground during feveral centuries; and if the clergy had not at laft defifted from their perfeotions of it, it might ftill have been the prevailing fashion in Europe.

But Anfelm was more fortunate in decrying the particular mode, which was the object of his averyon, and which probably had not taken fuch fift hold of the affections of the people. He preached zealoufly againft the long hair and curled locks, which were then fashionab|e among the courtiers; he refused the afhes on Afh-Wednesday to thofe who were fo accoutered; and his authority and eloquence had fuch influence, that the young men universally abandoned that ornament, and appeared in the cropt hair, which was recommended to them by the fermoms of the primate. The noted historian of Anfelm, who was also his companion and secretary, celebrates highly this efbrt of his zeal and piety §.

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WHEN William's profaneness therefore returned to him with his health, he was soon engaged in controversies with this austere prelate. There was at that time a schism in the church, between Urban and Clement, who both pretended to the papacy*; and Anfelm, who, as abbot of Bec, had already acknowledged the former, was determined, without the King's consent, to introduce his authority into England †. William, who, imitating his father's example, had prohibited his subjects from recognizing any Pope, whom he had not previously received, was enraged at this pretension; and summoned a synod at Rockingham, with an intention of deposing Anfelm; but that prelate's suffragans declared, that, without the papal authority, they knew of no expedient for inflicting that censure on their primate ‡. The King was at last engaged by other motives to give the preference to Urban's title; Anfelm received the pall from that pontiff; and matters seemed to be tolerably compos'd between the King and the primate §, when the quarrel broke out afresh from a new cause. William had undertaken an expedition against Wales, and required the archbishop to furnish his quota of soldiers for that service; but Anfelm, who regarded the demand as an oppression on the church, and yet durst not refuse compliance, sent them so miserably equipped, that the King was extremely displeased, and threatened him with a prosecution $.

Anfelm, on the other hand, demanded positively, that all the revenues of his see should be restored to him; appealed to Rome against the King's injustice; and affairs came to such extremities, that the primate, finding it dangerous to remain in the kingdom, desired the King's permission to retire beyond sea. All his temporalities were confiscat'd*; but he was received with great respect by Urban, who confider'd him as a martyr in the cause of religion, and even menaced the King, on account of his proceedings against the primate and the church, with the sentence of excommunication. Anfelm assisted at the council of Bari, where, besides fixing the controversy between the Greek and Latin churches, about the procession of the Holy Ghost †, the right of election to church-preferments was declared to belong to the clergy alone, and spiritual censures were denounced against all ecclesiastics, who did homage to laymen for their fees or benefices, and on all laymen who exacted it ‡. The right of homage, by the feudal customs, was, that the vassal should throw himself on his knees, should put his joined hands between those of his superior, and should in that posture swear fealty to him §. But the council declared it execrable, that pure hands, which could

create God, and could offer him up as a sacrifice for the salvation of mankind, should be put, after this humiliating manner, between profane hands, which, besides being enured to rapine and bloodshed, were employed day and night in impure purposes and obscene contacts*. Such were the reasonings prevalent in that age; reasonings, which, tho’ they cannot be passed over in silence, without omitting the most curious and, perhaps, not the least instructive part of history, can scarce be delivered with the requisite decency and gravity.

The cession of Normandy and Maine by duke Robert increased mightily the King’s territories; but brought him no great increase of power, because of the unsettled state of these countries, the mutinous disposition of the barons, and the near neighbourhood of the French King, who supported them in all their insurrections. Even Helie, lord of la Fleche, a small town in Anjou, was able to give him inquietude; and this great monarch was obliged to make several expeditions abroad, without being able to prevail over so petty a baron, who had acquired the confidence and affections of the inhabitants of Maine. He was, however, so fortunate, as at last to take him prisoner in a renounter; but having released him, at the intercession of the French King and the count d’Anjou, he found the province of Maine still exposed to his intrigues and incursions. Helie, being introduced by the citizens into the town of Mans, besieged the garrison in the citadel; and William, who was hunting in the new forest, when he received this intelligence, was so provoked, that he immediately turned about his horse’s head, and galloped to the sea-shore at Dartmouth; declaring, that he would not stop a moment, till he had taken vengeance for this offence. He found the weather so cloudy and tempestuous, that the mariners declared it dangerous to put to sea; but the King hurried on board, and ordered them to set sail; telling them, that they never yet heard of a King that was drowned†. By this vigour and celerity, he delivered the citadel of Mans from its present danger; and pursuing Helie into his own territories, he laid siege to Majol, a small castle in those parts: But a wound, which he received in the assault, obliged him to raise the siege; and he returned to England.

The weakness of the greatest monarchs, during this age, in their military expeditions against their nearest neighbours, appears the more surprizing, when we consider the prodigious numbers, which even petty princes, seconding the enthusiastic rage of the people, were able to assemble, and to conduct in dangerous

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enterprizes to the remote provinces of Asia. William, earl of Poitiers and duke of Guyenne, inflamed with the glory, and not discouraged by the misfortunes, which had attended the former adventurers in the crusades, had put himself at the head of an immense multitude, computed by some historians to amount to 60,000 horse, and a much greater number of foot *, and proposed to lead them into the holy land against the infidels. He wanted money to forward the preparations requisite for this expedition, and he offered to mortgage all his dominions to William, without entertaining any scruple on account of that rapacious and iniquitous hand, into which he resolved to confign them †. The King accepted his offer; and had prepared a fleet and an army, in order to escort the money, and take possession of the rich provinces of Guienne and Poictou; when an accident put an end to his life, and to all his ambitious projects. He was engaged in hunting, the sole amusement, and indeed the chief occupation of princes in those rude times, when society was little cultivated, and the arts afforded few objects worthy of attention. Walter Tyrrel, a French gentleman, remarkable for his address in archery, attended him in this recreation, of which the new forest was the scene; and as William had dismounted after a chase, Tyrrel, impatient to show his dexterity, let fly an arrow at a stag, which suddenly started before him. The arrow, glancing from a tree, struck the King in the breast, and instantly slew him ‡; while Tyrrel, without informing any one of the accident, put spurs to his horse, hastened to the seashore, embarked for France, and joined the crusade in an expedition to Jerusalem; a penance which he imposed on himself for this involuntary crime. The body of William was found in the forest by the country-people, and was buried without any pomp or ceremony at Winchester. His courtiers were negligent in performing their last duty to a master who was so little beloved; and every one was too much occupied in the interesting object of fixing his successor, to attend the funerals of a dead sovereign.

The memory of this monarch is transmitted to us with little advantage by the churchmen, whom he had offended; and though we may suspect in general, that their account of his vices is somewhat exaggerated, his conduct affords little reason for contradicting the character which they have assigned him, or for attributing to him any very estimable qualities. He seems to have been a violent and tyrannical prince; a perfidious, encroaching, and dangerous neighbour; an unkind and ungenerous relation. He was equally prodigal and rapacious in the management of his treasury; and if he possessed abilities, he lay so much under-

* W. Malm. p. 149. The whole is said by Order. Vital. p. 789. to amount to 500,000 men.
the government of impetuous passions, that he made little use of them in his ad-
ministration; and he indulged entirely that domineering policy, which suited his
temper, and which, if supported, as it was in him, with courage and vigor,
proves often more successful, in disorderly times, than the deepest foresight and
most refined artifice.

The monuments which remain of this prince in England are the Tower, West-
minster-hall, and London-bridge, which he built. The most laudable foreign
enterprize which he undertook, was the sending Edgar Atheling, three years be-
fore his death, into Scotland with a small army, to restore prince Edgar the true
heir of that kingdom, son of Malcolm, and of Margaret, sister of Edgar Athel-
ing: and the enterprize proved successful *. It was remarked in that age, that
his elder brother, Richard, perished by an accident in the new forest; Richard,
his nephew, natural son of duke Robert, lost his life in the same place after the
same manner: And all men, upon the King's fate, exclaimed, that as the Con-
queror had been guilty of extreme violence, by expelling all the inhabitants of
that large district, to make room for his game, the just vengeance of heaven was
signalized, in the same place, by the slaughter of his posterity †. William was
slain in the thirteenth year of his reign, and about the fortieth of his age ‡. As he
was never married, he left no legitimate issue behind him.

In the eleventh year of this reign, Magnus King of Norway, made a descent
on the Isle of Anglesea; but was repulsed by Hugh, earl of Shrewsbury ‡. This
is the last attempt made by the northern nations against England.

p. 56.
ton, p. 996.
AFTER the adventurers in the holy war were assembled on the banks of the Bosphorus, opposite to Constantinople, they proceeded on their enterprise; but immediately experienced those difficulties, which their zeal had hitherto concealed from them, and for which, even if they had foreseen them, it would have been almost impossible to provide a proper remedy. The Greek Emperor, Alexis Comnenus, who had applied to the western Christians for succour against the Turks, entertained hope, and that but a feeble one, of only obtaining such a moderate supply, as acting under his command, might enable him to repulse the enemy: But he was extremely astonished to see his dominions overwhelmed, on a sudden, with such an inundation of licentious barbarians, who, tho’ they pretended friendship, despised his subjects as unwarlike, and detested them as heretical. By all the arts of policy, in which he excelled, he endeavoured to divert the torrent; but while he employed professions, cares, civilities, and seeming services towards the leaders of the crusade, he secretly regarded those imperious allies as more dangerous than the open enemies, by whom his empire had been formerly invaded. Having effectuated that difficult point of disembarking them safely in Asia, he entered into a private correspondence with Soliman, Emperor of the Turks; and practised every insidious art, which his genius, his power, or his situation enabled him to employ, for disappointing the enterprize, and discouraging the Latins from making thenceforward any such prodigious migrations. His dangerous policy was seconded by the disorders, inseparable from so vast a multitude, who were not united under one head, and were conducted by leaders of the most independant, intractable spirits, unacquainted with military discipline, and still more enemies to civil authority and submission. The scarcity of provisions, the

excesses

excess of fatigue, the influence of unknown climates, joined to the want of conci
concert in their operations, and the sword of a warlike enemy, destroyed the adventurers by thousands, and would have abated the ardor of men, impelled to war by less powerful motives. Their zeal, however, their bravery and their irresistible force still carried them forward, and continually advanced them to the great end of their enterprizes. After an obstinate siege, they took Nice, the seat of the Turkish empire; they defeated Soliman in two great battles; they made themselves masters of Antioch; and entirely broke the force of the Turks, who had so long retained these countries in subjection. The sultan of Egypt, whose alliance they had hitherto courted, recovered, on the fall of the Turkish power, his former authority in Jerusalem; and informed them by his ambassadors, that, if they came disarmed to that city, they might now perform their religious vows, and that all Christian pilgrims, who should thenceforth visit the holy sepulchre, might expect the same good treatment, which they had ever received from his predecessors. This offer was rejected; the sultan was required to yield up the city to the Christians; and on his refusal, the champions of the cross advanced to the siege of Jerusalem, which they regarded as the consummation of their labours: By the detachments, which they had made, and the disasters, which they had undergone, they were diminished to the number of twenty thousand foot, and fifteen hundred horse; but these were still formidable from their valor, their experience, and the obedience, which, at the price of past calamities, they had learned to pay to their leaders. After a siege of five weeks, they took Jerusalem by assault; and, impelled by a mixture of military and religious rage, they put the numerous garrison and inhabitants to the sword without distinction. Neither arms defended the valiant, nor submission the timorous: No age nor sex was spared: Infants on the breast were pierced by the same blow with their mothers, who implored for mercy: Even a multitude, to the number of ten thousand persons, who had surrendered themselves prisoners, and were promised quarter, were butchered in cold blood by these ferocious conquerors. The streets of Jerusalem were covered with dead bodies; and the triumphant warriors, after every enemy was subdued and slaughtered, immediately turned themselves, with the sentiments of humiliation and contrition, towards the holy sepulchre. They threw aside their arms, still streaming with blood: They advanced with reclined bodies, and naked feet and head to that sacred monument: They sung anthems to their Saviour who had purchased their salvation by his death and agony: And their devotion, enlivened by the presence of the place where he had suffered, so overcame their fury, that they dissolved in tears, and bore the appearance of every soft and tender senti-
This great event happened on the fifth of July in the last year of the eleventh century. The Christian princes and nobles, after choosing Godfrey of Boulogne King of Jerusalem, began to settle themselves in their new conquests; while some of them returned to Europe, in order to enjoy at home that glory which their valor had acquired them in this popular and meritorious enterprise. Among these, was Robert, duke of Normandy, who, as he had abandoned the greatest dominions of any prince, that attended the crusade, had all along distinguished himself by the most intrepid courage, as well as by that affable disposition and unbounded generosity, which gain the hearts of soldiers, and qualify a prince to shine in a military life. In passing thro' Italy, he became acquainted with Sibylla, daughter of the count of Conversano, a young lady of great beauty and merit, whom he espoused; and indulging himself in this new passion, as well as fond of enjoying ease and pleasure, after the fatigues of so many rough campaigns, he lingered a twelvemonth in that delicious climate; and tho’ his friends in the north looked every moment for his arrival, none of them knew when they could with certainty expect it. By this delay, he lost the kingdom of England, which the great fame he had acquired during the crusades, as well as his undoubted title, both by birth, and by the preceding agreement with his deceased brother, would, had he been present, have infallibly secured to him.

Prince Henry was hunting with Rufus in the new forest, when intelligence of that prince’s death was brought him; and being sensible of the advantage attending the conjunction, he immediately galloped to Winchester, in order to secure the royal treasure, which he knew to be a necessary implement for facilitating his designs on the crown. He had scarcely reached the place when William de Breteuil, keeper of the treasure, arrived, and opposed himself to Henry’s pretensions. This nobleman, who had been engaged in the same party of hunting, had no sooner heard of his master’s death, than he hastened to take care of his charge; and he told the prince, that this treasure, as well as the crown, belonged to his elder brother, who was now his sovereign; and that he himself, for his part, was determined, in spite of all other pretensions, to maintain his allegiance to him. But Henry, drawing his sword, threatened him with instant death, if he dared to disobey him; and as others of the late King’s retinue, who came

HENRY I.

every moment to Winchefter, joined the prince's party, Breteuil was obliged to withdraw his opposition, and to acquiesce in this violence.

HENRY, without losing a moment, hastened with his money to London; and having assembled some noblemen and prelates, whom his address, or abilities, or presents, gained to his side, he was suddenly elected, or rather saluted King; and immediately proceeded to the exercise of the royal dignity. In less than three days after his brother's death, the ceremonial of his coronation was performed by Maurice, bishop of London, who was persuaded to officiate on that occasion; and thus, by his courage and celerity, he intruded himself into the vacant throne.

No one had sufficient spirit or sense of duty to appear in defence of the absent prince: All men were seduced or intimidated: Present possession supplied the apparent deficiencies of Henry's title, which was indeed founded on plain usurpation: And the barons, as well as the people, acquiesced in a claim, which, tho' it could neither be justified nor comprehended, could now, they found, be opposed only thro' the perils of civil war and rebellion.

But as Henry easily foresaw, that a crown, usurped against all rules of justice, would sit very unsteady on his head, he resolved, by fair professions at least, to gain the affections of all his subjects. Besides taking the usual coronation oath to maintain the laws and execute justice, he passed a charter, which was calculated to remedy many of the grievous oppressions, which had been complained of during the reign of his father and brother. He there promised, that, upon the death of any bishop or abbot, he never would seize the revenues of the see or abbey during the vacancy, but would leave the whole to be reaped by the successor; and that he would never let to farm any ecclesiastical benefice, nor dispose of it for money. After this concession to the church, whose favour was of so great consequence, he proceeded to enumerate the civil grievances, which he purposed to redress. He promised, that, upon the death of any earl, baron, or military tenant, his heir should be admitted to the possession of his estate, on paying a just and lawful relief; without being exposed to such exorbitant exactions as had been required during the late reigns: He remitted the wardship of minors, and allowed guardians to be appointed, who should be answerable for the trust: He promised not to dispose of any heiress in marriage, but by the advice of all the barons; and if any baron intended to give his daughter, sister, niece, or kinswoman, in marriage, it should only be necessary for him to consult the King, who promised to take no money for his consent, nor ever to refuse permission unless the person to whom it was proposed to marry her should happen to be his ene-

my: He granted his barons and military tenants the power of bequeathing by will their money or personal estates; and if they neglected to make a will, he promised, that their heirs should succeed to them: He remitted the right of imposing moneyage, and of levying taxes at pleasure on the farms, which the barons retained in their own hands: He made some general professions of moderating fines; he offered a pardon for all offences; and he remitted all debts due to the crown: He required, that the vassals of the barons should enjoy the same privileges, which he granted to his own barons; and he promised a general confirmation and observance of the laws of King Edward. This is the substance of the chief articles contained in that famous charter.

To give greater authenticity to these concessions, Henry lodged a copy of his charter in some abbey of each county; as if desirous, that it should be exposed to the eyes of all his subjects, and remain as a perpetual rule for the limitation and direction of his government: Yet it is certain, that, after the present turn was served, he never once thought, during his reign, of observing one single article of it; and the whole fell so much into neglect and oblivion, that, in the following century, when the barons, who had heard an obscure tradition of it, desired to make it the model of the great charter, which they exacted from King John, they could only find one copy of it in the whole kingdom. But as to the grievances here proposed to be redressed, they were still continued in their full extent; and the royal authority, in all these heads, lay under no manner of restriction. Reliefs of heirs, so capital an article, were never effectually fixed till the time of Magna Charta; and it is evident, that the general promise here given, of accepting a just and lawful relief, ought to have been reduced to more precision, in order to give security to the subject. The oppression of wardship and marriage was perpetuated even till the age of Charles II.: And it appears from Glanville, the famous jurisprudence of Henry II. that in his time, where any man died intestate, an accident which must be very frequent, when the art of writing was so little known, the King, or the lord of the seif, pretended to seize all the moveables,
moveables, and to exclude every heir, even the children of the deceased: A sure mark of a tyrannical and arbitrary government.

The Normans indeed, settled in England, were, during this age, so violent and licentious a people, that they may be pronounced incapable of any true or regular liberty; which requires such a refinement of laws and institutions, such a comprehension of views, such a sentiment of honour, such a spirit of obedience, and such a sacrifice of private interests and connexions to public order, as can only be the result of great reflection and experience, and must grow to perfection during several ages of a settled and established government. A people, so insensitive to the rights of their sovereign, as to disjoint, without necessity, the hereditary succession, and permit a younger brother to intrude himself into the place of the elder, whom they esteemed, and who was guilty of no crime but being absent; could not expect, that that prince would pay any greater regard to their privileges, or allow his engagements to fetter his power, and debar him from any considerable interest or convenience. They had indeed arms in their hands, which prevented the establishment of a total despotism, and left their posterity sufficient power, whenever they should attain a sufficient degree of reason, to acquire true liberty: But their turbulent disposition prompted them frequently to make such use of their arms, that they were more fitted to obstruct the execution of justice, than to stop the career of violence and oppression. The prince, finding, that greater opposition was often made to him when he enforced the laws, than when he violated them, was apt to render his own will and pleasure the sole rule of government, and on every emergence to consider more the power of the persons whom he might offend, than the rights of those whom he might injure. The very form of this charter of Henry proves, that the Norman barons (for they, rather than the people of England, are chiefly concerned in it) were totally ignorant of the nature of limited monarchy, and were ill qualified to conduct, in conjunction with their sovereign, the machine of government. It is an act of his sole power, is the result of his free grace, implies several articles which bind others as well as himself, and is therefore unfit to be the deed of any one who possesseth not the whole legislative power, and who may not at pleasure revoke all his concessions.

King Henry, farther to increase his popularity, degraded and committed to prison Ralph Flamstead, bishop of Durham, who had been the chief instrument of oppression employed by his brother*: But this act was followed by another, which was a direct violation of his own charter, and was a bad prognostic of his sincere inten-

tions to observe it: He kept the fee of Durham vacant for five years, and during that time retained possession of all its revenues. Sensible of the great authority, which Anselm had acquired by his character of piety, and by the persecutions which he had undergone from William, he sent repeated messages to him at Lyons, where he resided, and invited him to return and take possession of his dignities. On the arrival of the prelate, he proposed to him the renewal of that homage which he had done his brother, and which had never been refused by any English bishop: But Anselm had acquired other sentiments by his journey to Rome, and gave the King an absolute refusal. He objected the decrees of the council of Bari, at which he himself had assisted; and he declared, that, so far from doing homage for his spiritual dignity, he would not so much as communicate with any ecclesiastic who paid that submission, or who accepted of investitures from laymen. Henry, who proposed, in his present delicate situation, to reap great advantages from the authority and popularity of Anselm, dared not to quarrel with him by insisting on his demand: He only desired that the controversy might be suspended; and that messengers might be sent to Rome, to accommodate matters with the Pope, and to obtain his confirmation of the laws and customs of England.

There immediately occurred an important affair, in which the King was obliged to have recourse to the authority of Anselm. Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. King of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, had, on her father’s death, and the subsequent revolutions of the Scottish government, been brought up to England, and educated under her aunt, Christina, in the nunnery of Rumsey. This princess Henry proposed to marry; but as she had worn the veil, though never taken the vows, doubts might arise concerning the lawfulness of the act; and it behoved him to be very careful not to shock, in any particular, the religious prejudices of his subjects. The affair was examined by Anselm in a council of the prelates and nobles, which was summoned at Lambeth; and Matilda there proved, that she had put on the veil, not with a view of entering into a religious life, but merely in imitation of a custom, familiar to the English ladies, who protected their chastity from the brutal violence of the Normans, by taking shelter under that habit, which, amidst the horrible licentiousness of the times, was generally revered. The council, sensible that even a princess, had otherwise no security for her honour, admitted this reason as valid: They pronounced, that Matilda was still free to marry; and her espousals with Henry were celebrated by Anselm with great pomp and solemnity. No act of the

† W. Malm. p. 225. ‡ Eadmer, p. 57. †† Ibid. ‡‡ Hoveden, p. 468.
King's reign rendered him equally popular with his English subjects, and tended more to establish him on the throne. Tho' Matilda, during the life of her uncle and brothers, was not the heir of the Saxon line, she was become very dear to the English, on account of her connexions with it: And that people, who, before the conquest, had fallen into a kind of indifference towards their ancient royal family, had felt so severely the tyranny of the Normans, that they reflected with infinite regret on their former liberty, and hoped for a more equal and mild administration, when the blood of their native princes should be united with that of their new sovereigns.*

But the policy and prudence of Henry, which, if time had been allowed for Invasion by d ke R ob er t.

these virtues to operate their full effect, would have secured him possession of the crown, ran great hazard of being frustrated by the sudden appearance of Robert, who returned to Normandy about a month after the death of his brother William. He took possession, without resistance, of that duchy; and immediately made preparations for recovering England, of which, during his absence, he had, by Henry's intrigues, been so unjustly defrauded. The great fame which he had acquired in the East forwarded his pretensions; and the Norman barons, sensible of the consequences, expressed the same discontent at the separation of the duchy and kingdom, which had appeared on the accession of William. Robert de Belefile, earl of Shrewsbury and Arundel, William de la Warenne, earl of Surrey, Arnulf de Montgomery, Walter Giffard, Robert de Pontefract, Robert de Mallet, Yvo de Gremmenil, and many others of the principal nobility †, invited him to make an attempt on England, and promised, on his landing, to join him with all their forces. Even the seamen were affected with the general popularity of his name, and they carried over to him the greatest part of a fleet, which had been equipped to oppose his passage ‡. Henry, in this extremity, began to be apprehensive for his life, as well as for his crown; and had recourse to the superstition of the people, in order to oppose their sentiments of justice. He paid diligent court to Anselm, whose sanctity and wisdom he pretended to revere. He consulted him in all difficult emergencies; seemed to be governed by him in every measure; promised a strict regard to ecclesiastical privileges; professed a great attachment to Rome, and a resolution of persevering in an implicit obedience to the decrees of councils, and to the will of the sovereign pontiff. By these careles and declarations, he gained entirely the confidence of the primates, whose influence over the people, and authority with the barons, was of


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the highest service to him, in his present situation. Anfelm scrupled not to assure the nobles of the King's sincerity in those professions which he made, of avoiding the tyrannical and oppressive government of his father and brother *; He even rode thro' the ranks of the army, recommended to the soldiers the defence of their prince, represented the duty of keeping their oaths of allegiance, and prognosticated to them all happiness from the government of so wise and just a sovereign †. By this expedient, joined to the influence of the earls of Warwick and Mellent, of Roger Bigod, Richard de Redvers, and Robert Fitz-Hamon, powerful barons, who still adhered to the present government ‡, the army were retained in the King's interests, and marched, with an appearance of union and firmness, to oppose Robert, who had landed with his forces at Portsmouth.

The two armies were in sight of each other for some days without coming to action; and both princes, being apprehensive of the event, which would probably be decisive, heartened the more willingly to the mediation of Anfelm and other great men, who proposed an accommodation between them. After employing some negotiation, it was agreed, that Robert should resign his pretensions to England, and receive in lieu of it an annual pension of 3000 marks; that if either of the princes died without issue, the other should succeed to his dominions; that the adherents of each should be pardoned, and restored to all their possessions either in Normandy or England; and that neither Robert nor Henry should thenceforth encourage, receive, or protect the enemies of the other §.

This treaty, tho' calculated so much for Henry's advantage, he was the first who violated. He restored indeed the estates of all Robert's adherents; but was secretly determined, that noblemen so powerful and so-ill-affect'd, who had both inclination and ability to disturb his government, should not long remain un molested in their present grandeur and opulence. He began with the earl of Shrewsbury, who was watched for some time by spies, and then indicted on a charge, consisting of forty-five articles. This turbulent nobleman, knowing his own guilt, as well as the prejudices of his judges, and the power of his accuser, had recourse to arms for defence; but being soon suppressed by the activity and address of Henry, he was banished the kingdom, and his great estate was confiscated §. His ruin involved that of his two brothers, Arnulf de Montgomery, and Roger earl of Lancaster. Soon after followed the prosecution and condem-

nation of Robert de Pontefract and Robert de Mallet, who had distinguished themselves among Robert's adherents*. William de Warenne was the next victim: Even William earl of Cornwall, son to the earl of Mortaigne, the King's uncle, having afforded matter of suspicion against him, lost all the vast acquisitions of his family in England†. Tho' the usual violence and tyranny of the Norman barons afforded a plausible pretence for those prosecutions, and it is probable, that none of the sentences, pronounced against these noblemen, was wholly iniquitous; men easily saw or conjectured, that the chief part of their guilt was not the injustice or illegality of their conduct. Robert, enraged at the fate of his friends, imprudently ventured to come into England, and remonstrated with his brother, in severe terms, against the breach of treaty: But met with such a bad reception, that he began to apprehend danger, to his own liberty, and was glad to purchase an escape, by resigning his pension‡.

The indiscretion of Robert soon exposed him to more fatal injuries. This prince, whose bravery and candour procured him respect, while at a distance, had no sooner attained the possession of power, and enjoyment of peace, than all the vigor of his mind relaxed, and he fell into contempt among those who approached his person, or were subjected to his authority. Abandoned alternately to dissolute pleasures and to womanish superstition, he was so remiss, both in the care of his treasurer and the exercise of his government, that his servants pillaged his money with impunity, even stole from him his very cloaths, and proceeded thence to practise every species of extortion on his defenceless subjects§. The barons, whom a severe administration alone could have restrained, gave reins to their unbounded rapine upon their vassals, and inveterate animosities against each other; and all Normandy, during the reign of this benign prince, was become a scene of violence and depredation$. The Normans at last, remarking the regular government, which Henry, notwithstanding his usurped title, had been able to establish in England, applied to him, that he might use his authority for the suppression of these disorders; and they thereby afforded him a pretence for interfering in the affairs of Normandy. Instead of employing his mediation, to render his brother's government respectable, or redressing the grievances of the Normans; he was only attentive to support his own partizans, and to encroach their number by every art of bribery, intrigue, and infinuation. Having

found, in a visit, which he made to that duchy, that the nobility were more disposed to pay submission to him than to their legal sovereign; he collected, by very arbitrary extortions on England, a great army and treasure, and returned next year to Normandy, in a situation to obtain, either by violence or corruption, the dominion of that province. He took Bayeux by storm after an obstinate siege: He made himself master of Caen by the voluntary submission of the inhabitants: But being repulsed at Falaise, and obliged, by the winter-season, to raise the siege, he returned into England; after giving assurances to his adherents, that he would persevere in supporting and protecting them.

Next year, he opened the campaign with the siege of Tenchebray; and it became evident, from his preparations and progress, that he intended to usurp the entire possession of Normandy. Robert was at last roused from his lethargy; and, being supported by the earl of Mortaigne and Robert de Bellefme, the King's inveterate enemies, he raised a considerable army, and approached his brother's camp, with a view of finishing, in one decisive battle, the quarrel between them. He was now entered on that scene of action, in which alone he was qualified to excel; and he so animated the Norman troops by his example, that they made a great impression on the English, and had nearly obtained the victory; when the flight of Bellefme threw them into dismay, and occasioned their total defeat. Henry, besides executing great slaughter on the enemy, made near ten thousand prisoners; among whom was duke Robert himself, and all the most considerable barons, who adhered to his interests. This victory was followed by the final reduction of Normandy: Rouen immediately submitted to the conqueror: Falaise, after some negotiation, opened its gates; and by this acquisition, besides rendering himself master of an important fortress, he got into his hands prince William, the only son and heir of Robert: He assembled the states of Normandy; and having received the homage of all the vassals of the duchy, settled the government, revoked his brother's donations, and dismantled the castles, lately built, he returned into England, and carried along with him the duke as a prisoner. That unfortunate prince was detained in custody during the remainder of his life, which was no less than twenty-eight years, and he died in the castle of Cardiff in Glamorganshire; happy, if, without losing his liberty, he could have relinquished that power, which he was not qualified either to hold or exercise. Prince William was committed to the care of Helie de St. Saen, who had married Robert's natural daughter, and who, being a man

of probity and honour, more than was usual in those ages, executed the trust with
great affection and fidelity. Edgar Atheling, who had followed Robert in the ex-
pedition to Jerusalem, and who had lived with him ever since in Normandy, was
another illustrious prisoner, taken in the battle of Tenchebray*. Henry gave him
his liberty, and settled a small pension on him, with which he retired; and he lived
to a good old age in England, totally neglected and forgotten. This prince was
distinguished by personal bravery; but nothing can be a stronger proof of his mean
talents in every other respect, than that, notwithstanding he possessed the affections
of the English, and enjoyed the only legal title to the throne, he was allowed,
during the reigns of so many violent and jealous usurpers, to live unmolested,
and go to his grave in peace.

A little after Henry had completed the conquest of Normandy, and settled the
government of that province, he finished a controversy, which had been long de-
pending, between him and the Pope, with regard to the investitures in ecclesiastical
benefices; and tho' he was here obliged to relinquish some of the ancient rights of
the crown, he extricated himself from the difficulty on easier terms than most
princes, who in that age were so unhappy as to be engaged in disputes with the
apostolic see. The King's situation, in the beginning of his reign, obliged him to
pay great court to Anselm; and the advantages, which he had reaped from the
zealous friendship of that prelate, had made him sensible how prone the minds of
his people were to superstition, and what an ascendancy the ecclesiastics had been able
to assume over them. He had seen, on the accession of his brother Rufus, that, tho'
the rights of primogeniture were then violated, and the inclinations of almost all
the barons opposed, yet the authority of Lanfranc had prevailed over all other
considerations; and his own case, which was still more unfavourable, afforded
an instance, in which the clergy could show more evidently their influence and
authority. These recent examples, while they made him cautious not to
offend that powerful body, convinced him, at the same time, that it was ex-
tremely his interest, to retain the former prerogative of the crown in filling of-
fices of such vast importance, and to check the ecclesiastics in that independance,
to which they evidently aspired. The choice, which his brother, in a fit of pe-
nitence, had made of Anselm, was so far unfortunate to the King's pretensions,
that that prelate was celebrated for his piety and zeal and austerity of manners;
and tho' his monkish devotion and narrow principles prognosticated no great
knowledge of the world nor depth of policy, he was, on that very account, a
more dangerous instrument in the hands of politicians, and retained a greater

ascendant over the bigotted populace. The prudence and temper of the King appear in nothing more conspicuous than in the management of this delicate affair; where he was always sensible that it had become necessary for him to risk his whole crown, in order to preserve the most invaluable jewel of it.

Anselm had no sooner returned from banishment, than his refusal to do homage to the King excited a dispute, which Henry evaded at that critical juncture, by promising to send a messenger, in order to compound the matter with Paical the second, who then filled the papal chair. The messenger, as was probably foreseen, returned with an absolute refusal of the King's demands; and that fortified by many reasons, which were well qualified to operate on the understandings of men in those ages. Paical quoted the scriptures to prove that Christ was the door; and thence inferred, that all ecclesiastics must enter into the church thro' Christ alone, not thro' the civil magistrate or any profane laymen. "It is monstrous," added the pontiff, "that a son should pretend to beget his father, or a man to create his God: Priests are called gods in scripture, as being the vicars of God: And will you, by your abominable pretensions to grant them their investiture, assume the right of creating them?"

But however convincing these arguments, they could not persuade Henry to resign so important a prerogative; and perhaps, as he was possessed of great reflection and learning, he thought, that the absurdity of a man's creating his God, even allowing priests to be Gods, was not urged with the best grace by the Roman pontiff. But as he desired still to avoid, or at least to delay, the coming to any dangerous extremity with the church, he persuaded Anselm, that he would be able, by farther negociation, to attain some composition with Paical; and for that purpose, he dispatched three bishops to Rome, while Anselm sent two messengers of his own, to be more fully assured of the Pope's intentions. Paical wrote back letters equally positive and arrogant both to the King and pri mate; urging to the former, that, by assuming the right of investitures, he committed a kind of spiritual adultery with the church, who was the spouse of Christ, and who must not admit of such a commerce with any other person; and insisting with the latter, that the pretensions of Kings to confer benefices was the source of all simony; a topic which had but too much foundation in those ages.

* Eadmer, p. 56.  
† W. Malm. p. 225.  
‡ Eadmer, p. 66. This topic is farther enforced in p. 73, 74. W. Malm. p. 165.  
§ Eadmer, p. 61. I much suspect, that this text of scripture is a forgery of his holiness: For I have not been able to find it. Yet it passed current in those ages, and was often quoted by the clergy as the foundation of their power. See Epift. St. Thom. p. 169.  
Eadmer, p. 65.  
Eadmer, p. 64. 66.

HENRY
HENRY had now no other expedient than to suppress the letter addressed to himself, and to persuade the three bishops to prevaricate, and assert, upon their episcopal faith, that Paschal had assured them in private of his good intentions towards Henry, and of his resolution not to resent any future exertion of his prerogative in granting investitures; tho' he himself scrupled to give this assurance under his hand, left other princes should copy the example and assume a like privilege *. Anfelm's two messengers, who were monks, affirmed to him, that it was impossible this story could have any foundation; but their word was not esteemed equivalent to that of three bishops; and the King, as if he had finally gained his cause, proceeded to fill the see of Hereford and Salisbury, and to invest the new bishops in the usual manner †. But Anfelm, who, as he had good reason, gave no credit to the assurance of the King's messengers, refused not only to consecrate them, but even to communicate with them; and the bishops themselves, finding how odious they had become, returned back to Henry the ensigns of their dignity ‡. The quarrel every day encroached between the King and the primate: The former, notwithstanding the great prudence and moderation of his temper, threw out menaces against all such as should pretend to oppose him in exerting the antient prerogatives of his crown: And Anfelm, sensible of his disagreeable and dangerous situation, desired leave to make a journey to Rome, in order to lay the case before the sovereign pontiff §. Henry, well pleased to rid himself without violence of so inflexible an antagonist, readily granted him permission; and Anfelm set out on his journey. He was attended to the seacoast by infinite multitudes, not only monks and clergymen, but people of all ranks, who scrupled not in this manner to declare for their primate against their sovereign, and who regarded his departure as the final abolition of religion and true piety in the kingdom ¶. The King, however, confiscated all the revenues of his see; and sent William de Warelwaft to negotiate with Paschal, and to find some means of accommodation in this delicate affair."

The English minister told Paschal, that his master would rather lose his crown than part with the right of granting investitures. "And I," replied Paschal, "would rather lose my head than allow him to retain it." Henry secretly prohibited Anfelm to return, unless he resolved to conform himself to the laws and usages of the kingdom; and the prelate took up his residence at

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Lyons*, in expectation, that the King would at last be obliged to yield the point, which was the present object of controversy between them. Soon after, he was allowed to return to his monastery at Bec in Normandy; and Henry, besides restoring to him the revenues of his see, treated him with the greatest respect, and held several conferences with him, in order to soften his opposition, and bend him to submission†. The people of England, who thought all differences now accommodated, were inclined to blame their primate for absenting himself so long from his charge; and he daily received letters from his partizans, representing the necessity of his speedy return. The total extinction, they told him, of religion and Christianity was likely to ensue from the want of his fatherly care: The most shocking customs prevail in England: And the dread of his severity being now removed, sodomy and the practice of wearing long hair gain ground among all ranks of men, and these enormities openly appear every where, without sense of shame or fear of punishment‡.

The policy of the court of Rome has been commonly much admired; and men, judging by success, have bestowed the highest eulogies on that prudence, by which a power, from such slender beginnings, could advance, without force of arms, to establish an universal and almost absolute monarchy in Europe. But the wisdom of such a long succession of men, who filled the papal throne, and who were of such different ages, tempers, and interests, is not intelligible, and could never have place in nature. The instrument, indeed, with which they wrought, the ignorance and superstition of the people, is so gross an engine, of such universal prevalence, and so little liable to accident or disorder, that it may be successful even in the most unskilful hands; and scarce any indiscretion can frustrate its operations. While the court of Rome was openly abandoned to the most flagrant disorders, even while it was torn with schisms and factions, the power of the church made daily a sensible progress in Europe; and the temerity of Gregory and the caution of Pascal were equally fortunate in promoting it. The clergy, feeling the necessity of protection against the violence of princes, or vigor of the laws, were well pleased to adhere to a foreign head, who, being removed from the fear of the civil authority, could freely employ the power of the whole church in defending their ancient or usurped properties and privileges, when invaded in any particular country: The monks, desirous of an independance on their dioceses, professed still a more devoted attachment to the triple crown; and the stupid people possetted no science nor reason, which they could oppose to the most exorbitant pretensions. Non sense passed for demonstration: The most criminal

† Hoveden, p. 471. ‡ Eadmer, p. 81.
means were sanctified by the piety of the end: Treaties were not supposed to be binding where the interests of God were concerned: The ancient laws and customs of states had no authority against a divine right: Impudent forgeries were received as authentic monuments of antiquity: And the champions of holy church, if successful, were celebrated as heroes; if unfortunate, were worshipped as martyrs: and all events thus turned out equally to the advantage of clerical usurpations. Paschal himself, the present Pope, was, in the course of this very controversy concerning investitures, involved in circumstances, and necessitated to follow a conduct, which would have drawn disgrace and ruin on any temporal prince, that had been so unfortunate as to fall into a like situation. His person was seized by the Emperor Henry V. and he was obliged, by a formal treaty, to resign to that monarch the right of granting investitures, for which they had so long contended. In order to add greater solemnity to this agreement, the Emperor and Pope communicated together upon the same host: one half of which was given to the prince, the other taken by the pontiff: The most tremendous imprecations were publicly denounced on either of them who should violate the treaty: Yet no sooner did Paschal recover his liberty, than he recalled all his concessions, and pronounced the sentence of excommunication against the Emperor, who, in the end, was obliged to submit to the terms required of him, and to yield up all his pretentions, which he could never recall.

The King of England had very near fallen into the same dangerous situation: Paschal had already excommunicated the earl of Meulent, and the other ministers of Henry, who were instrumental in supporting his pretensions: He daily menaced the King himself with a like sentence; and he suspended the blow only to give him leisure to escape it by a timely submission. The malecontents waited impatiently for the opportunity of disturbing his government by conspiracies and insurrections: The King's greatest friends were anxious at the prospect of an incident, which would set their religious and civil duties at variance with each other: And the countess of Blois, his sister, a princess of piety, who had great influence over him, was affrighted with the danger of her brother's eternal damnation: Henry, on the other hand, seemed determined to run all hazards, rather than resign a prerogative of such importance, which had been enjoyed by all his predecessors; and it seemed probable, from his great prudence and ability, that he might be able to sustain his rights, and finally prevail in the contest. While Paschal and Henry thus stood mutually in awe of each other, it

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* W. Malm. p. 167.  
‡ Eadmer, p. 79.  
§ Eadmer, p. 79.  
\[ H \ h 2 \] was
Compromise with Anselm.

was the more easy to bring about an accommodation between them, and to find a medium, in which they might both agree.

Before bishops took possession of their dignities, they had formerly been accustomed to pass thro' two ceremonials: They received from the hands of the sovereign a ring and crozier, as symbols of their office; and this was called their investiture: They also made those submissions to the prince, required of vassals by the rights of the feudal law, which received the name of homage. And as the King might refuse both to grant the investiture and to receive the homage, tho' the chapter had, by some canons of the middle age, been endowed with the right of election, the sovereign had in reality the sole power of appointing prelates. Urban II. had equally deprived laymen of the rights of granting investiture and of receiving homage*: The emperors never were able, by all their wars and negotiations, to make any distinction be admitted between them: The interposition of profane laymen in any particular, was still represented as impious and abominable: And the church openly aspired to a total independance on the state. But Henry had put England, as well as Normandy, in such a situation as gave greater weight to his negotiations; and Paschal was for the present contented with his resigning the right of granting investitures, by which the spiritual dignity was supposed to be conferred; and he allowed the bishops to do homage for their temporal properties and privileges†. The pontiff was well pleased to have made this acquisition, which, he hoped, would in time involve the whole: And the King, anxious to procure an escape from a very dangerous situation, was contented to retain some, tho' a more precarious authority, in the election of prelates.

After the principal controversy was accommodated, it was not difficult to adjust the other differences. The Pope allowed Anselm to communicate with the prelates, who had already received investitures from the crown; and he only required of them some submissions for their past misconduct‡. He also granted Anselm a plenary power of remedying every other disorder, which, he said, might arise from the barbarousness of the country||. Such was the idea which the Popes then entertained of the English; and nothing can be a stronger proof of the miserable ignorance in which that people were then plunged, than that a man, who sat on the papal throne, and who subsisted by absurdities and nonsence, should think himself entitled to treat them as barbarians.

During the course of these controversies, a synod was held at Westminster, where the King, intent only on the main dispute, allowed some canons of less con-

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sequence to be enacted, which tended to promote the usurpations of the clergy. The marriage of priests was prohibited; a point which it was still found very difficult to carry into execution: And even laymen were not allowed to marry within the seventh degree of affinity *. By this contrivance, the Pope augmented the profits, which he reaped from granting dispensations; and likewise those from divorces. For as the art of writing was then rare, and parish registers were not regularly kept, it was not easy to ascertain the degrees of affinity even among people of rank; and any man, who had money sufficient to pay for it, might obtain a divorce, on pretence that his wife was more nearly related to him than was permitted by the canons. The synod also passed a vote, prohibiting the laity to wear long hair †. The aversion of the clergy to this mode was not confined to England. When the King went over to Normandy, before he had conquered that province, the bishop of Seez, in a formal harangue, earnestly applied to him to redress the manifold disorders under which the government laboured, and to oblige the people to poll their hair in a decent form. Henry, tho' he would not resign his prerogatives to the church, was very willing to part with his hair: He cut it in the form which they required of him, and obliged all the courtiers to imitate his example ‡.

The acquisition of Normandy was a great point of Henry's ambition; being Wars abroad. the antient patrimony of his family, and the only territory, which, while in his possession, gave him any weight or consideration on the continent: But the injustice of his usurpation was the source of great inquietude, involved him in frequent wars, and obliged him to impose on his English subjects those many heavy and arbitrary taxes, of which all the historians of that age unanimously complain. His nephew, William, was but six years of age, when he committed him to the care of Helie de St. Saen; and it is probable, that his reason for intrusting that important charge to a man of such unblemished character, was to prevent all malignant suppositions, in case any accident should befal the life of the young prince. He soon repented him of this choice; but when he desired to recover possession of William's person, Helie withdrew his pupil, and carried him to the court of Fulk, count of Anjou, who gave him protection §. In proportion as the young prince grew up to man's estate, he discovered virtues suitable to his birth; and wandering thro' different courts of Europe, excited the friendly compaffion of many princes, and raised a general indignation against his uncle, who had so unjustly bereaved him of his inheritance. Lewis the Gros, son of Philip, was

at this time King of France, a brave and generous prince, who having been obliged, during the lifetime of his father, to fly into England, in order to escape the persecutions of his stepmother, Bertrude, had been protected by Henry, and had thence conceived a personal friendship for him. But these ties were soon dissolved after the accession of Lewis, who found his interests to be in so many particulars opposite to those of the English monarch, and who became sensible of the danger attending the annexation of Normandy to England. He joined, therefore, the counts of Anjou and Flanders in giving disquiet to Henry's government; and this monarch, in order to defend his foreign dominions, found himself obliged to go over to Normandy, where he resided two years. The war which ensued among these princes was attended with no memorable transaction, and produced only slight skirmishes on the frontiers, agreeable to the weak condition of the sovereigns in that age, whenever their subjects were not roused by some great and urgent occasion. Henry, by contracting his eldest son, William, to the daughter of Fulk*, detached that prince from the alliance, and obliged the others to come to an accommodation with him. This peace was not of long duration. His nephew, William, retired to the court of Baldwin, earl of Flanders, who espoused his cause; and the King of France, having soon after, for other reasons, joined the party, a new war was kindled in Normandy, which produced no event more memorable than had attended the former. At last the death of Baldwin, who was slain in an action near Eu, gave some respite to Henry, and enabled him to carry on war with more advantage against his enemies†.

Lewis, finding himself unable to wrest Normandy from the King by force of arms, had recourse to the dangerous expedient, of applying to the spiritual power, and of affording the ecclesiastics a pretence to interpose in the temporal interests of princes. He carried young William to a general council, which was assembled at Rheims by Pope Calixtus II. presented the Norman prince to them, complained of the manifest usurpation and injustice of Henry, craved the assistance of the church for reinstating the true heir in his dominions, and represented the enormity of detaining in prison so brave a prince as Robert, one of the most eminent champions of the cross, and who by that very quality was placed under the immediate protection of the holy see‡. Henry knew how to defend the rights of his crown with vigour, and yet with dexterity. He had sent over the English bishops to this synod; but at the same time had warned them, that, if any farther claims were started by the Pope or the ecclesiastics, he was determined to adhere to the

HENRY I.

laws and customs of England, and maintain the prerogatives transmitted to him by his ancestors. "Go," said he to them, "salute the Pope in my name, " hear his apostolical precepts; but take care to bring none of his new inventions " into my kingdom." Finding, however, that it would be easier for him to elude than oppose the efforts of Calixtus, he gave his ambassadors orders to gain the Pope and his favourites by liberal presents and promises. The complaints of the Norman prince were thenceforth heard with great coldness by the council; and Calixtus confessed, after a conference, which he had the same summer with Henry, that, of all men, whom he had ever yet been acquainted with, he was beyond comparison the most eloquent and persuasive.

The warlike measures of Lewis proved as ineffectual as his intrigues. He had laid a scheme for surprizing Noyon; but Henry, having received intelligence of the design, marched to the relief of the place, and suddenly attacked the French at Andely, as they were advancing to Noyon. A sharp action ensued; where William, the son of Robert, behaved with great bravery, and the King himself in the most imminent danger. He was wounded in the head by Crippin, a gallant Norman officer, who had followed the fortunes of William*; but being rather animated than terrified by the blow, he immediately beat his antagonist to the ground, and so encouraged his troops by the example, that they put the French to total rout, and had very nearly taken their king prisoner. The dignity of the persons, engaged in this skirmish, rendered it the most memorable action of the war: For in other respects, it was not of great importance. There were nine hundred horsemen, who fought on both sides; yet were there only three persons slain. The rest were defended by that heavy armour, worn by the cavalry in those times†. An accommodation soon after ensued between the Kings of France and England; and the interests of young William were entirely neglected in it.

But this public prosperity of Henry was much overbalanced by a domestic calamity, which befel him. His only son, William, had now reached his eighteenth year; and the King, from the facility, with which he himself had usurped the crown, dreading, that a like revolution might subvert his family, had taken care to have him recognized his successor by the states of the kingdom‡, and had carried him over to Normandy, to receive the homage of the barons of that duchy. On his return, he set sail from Barfleur, and was soon carried by a fair wind out of sight of land. The prince was detained by some accident; and his

‡ W. Malm. p. 165.

failors.
sailors, as well as their captain, Thomas Fitz-Stephens, having spent the interval in drinking, were so fluttered, that, being in a hurry to follow the King, they needlessly carried the ship on a rock, where she immediately foundered. The prince was put into the long boat, and had got clear of the ship, when hearing the cries of his natural sister, the countess of Perche, he ordered the seamen to row back, in hopes of saving her. But the numbers, who crowded in, soon sunk the boat; and the prince with all his retinue perished. Above an hundred and forty young noblemen, of the principal families of England and Normandy, were lost on this occasion. A butcher of Rouen was the only person on board who escaped. Fitz-Stephens, the captain, took hold also of the mast; but being informed by the butcher, that prince William had perished, he said, that he would not survive the disaster; and he threw himself headlong into the sea. Henry entertained hopes, for three days, that his son had put into some distant port of England; but when certain intelligence of the calamity was brought him, he fainted away; and it was remarked, that he never after was seen to smile, nor ever recovered his wonted cheerfulness.

The death of William may be regarded, in one respect, as a misfortune to the English; because it was the immediate source of those civil wars, which, after the demise of the King, caused such confusion in the nation. But it is remarkable, that the young prince had entertained a violent aversion to the natives; and he had been heard to threaten, that, when he should be King, he would make them draw the plough, and would turn them into beasts of burden. These possessions he inherited from his father, who, though he was wont, when it might serve his purposes, to value himself on his birth as a native of England, shewed, in the course of his government, an extreme prejudice against that people. All hopes of preferment, to ecclesiastical as well as civil dignities, were denied them during this whole reign; and any foreigner, however ignorant or worthless, was sure to have the preference in every competition. As the English had given no disturbance to the government during the course of fifty years, this inveterate antipathy, in a prince of so much temper as well as penetration, forms a presumption that the English of that age were still a rude and barbarous people even compared to the Normans, and impresses us with no very favourable idea of the Anglo-Saxon manners.


Prince
PRINCE William left no children, and the King had not now any legitimate issue; except one daughter, Matilda, whom, in 1110, he had betrothed, though only eight years of age, to the Emperor Henry V, and whom he had then sent over to be educated in Germany. But as her absence from the kingdom, and her marriage into a foreign family, might endanger the succession, Henry, marriage, who was now a widower, was induced to marry in hopes of having sons; and he made his addresses to Adelais, daughter of Godfrey, duke of Lovaine, and niece to Pope Calixtus, a young princess of an amiable person. But Adelais brought him no children, and the prince, who was most likely to dispute the succession, and even the immediate possession of the crown, recovered hopes of subverting his rival, who had successively seized all his patrimonial dominions. William, the son of duke Robert, was still protected in the court of Lewis, King of France; and as Henry’s connexions with Fulk, count of Anjou, were broke off by the death of his son, that count joined the party of the unfortunate prince, gave him his daughter in marriage, and assisted him in raising disturbances in Normandy. But Henry found the means of drawing off the count of Anjou, by forming anew with him a nearer connexion than the former, and one more material to the interests of his family. The Emperor, his son-in-law, dying without issue, he bestowed his daughter on Geoffrey, the eldest son of Fulk, and endeavoured to ensure her succession, by having her recognized heir of all his dominions, and obliging the barons both of Normandy and England to swear fealty to her. He hoped, that the choice of this husband would be more agreeable to all his subjects than that of the Emperor; as securing them from the fears of falling under the dominion of a great and distant potentate, who might bring them into subjection, and reduce their country to the rank of a province: But the barons were displeased, that a step so material to national interests had been taken without consulting them; and Henry had experienced too sensibly the turbu-

† Henry, by the feudal customs, was intitled to levy a tax for the marrying his eldest daughter, and he exacted three shillings a hyde on all England. H. Hunt. p. 379. Some historians (as Brady, p. 270. and Tyrell, vol. ii. p. 182.) heelely make this sum amount to above 800,000 pounds of our present money: But it could not exceed 135,000. Five hydes, sometimes less, made a knight’s fee, of which there were about 60,000 in England, consequently near 300,000 hydes; and at the rate of three shillings a hyde, the sum would amount to 45,000 pounds, or 135,000 of our present money. See Rudborne, p. 257. In the Saxon times, there were only computed 243,600 hydes in England.
§ W. Malm. p. 175. The Annals of Waverly, p. 150. fay, that the King asked and obtained the consent of all the barons.
Chap. VI. lency of their disposition, not to dread the effects of their resentment. It seemed probable, that his nephew's party might gain force from the increase of the malecontents; and an accession of power, which that prince inherited a little after, tended to render his pretensions still more dangerous. Charles earl of Flanders being assassinated during the celebration of divine service, King Lewis immediately put the young prince in possession of that county, to which he had pretensions, in the right of his grandmother Matilda, wife to the Conqueror *. But William survived a very little time this piece of good fortune, which seemed to open the door to still farther prosperity. He was killed in a skirmish with the landgrave of Alface, his competitor for Flanders; and his death put an end, for the present, to the jealousy and inquietude of Henry †.

The chief merit of this prince's government consists in the profound tranquillity which he established and maintained throughout all his dominions during the greatest part of his reign ‡. The mutinous barons were retained in subjection; and his neighbours, in every attempt which they made upon him, found him so well prepared, that they were discouraged from continuing or renewing their enterprizes. In order to repref the incursions of the Welsh, he brought over some Flemings in the year 1111, and settled them in Pembrokehire, where they long maintained a different language, and customs and manners, from their neighbours §. Tho' his government seems to have been arbitrary in England, it was judicious and prudent; and was as little oppressive as the necessity of his affairs would permit. He wanted not attention to the redrefs of grievances; and historians mention in particular the levying purveyance, which he endeavoured to moderate and restrain. The tenants in the King's demesne lands were at that time obliged to supply gratis the court with provisions, and to furnish carriages on the same hard terms, when the King made a progress into any of the counties. These exactions were so grievous, and levied in so licentious a manner, that the farmers, when they heard of the court's approach, often deferted their homes, as if an enemy had invaded them $; and sheltered their persons and families in the woods from the insults of the King's retinue. Henry prohibited these enormities, and punished the persons guilty of them by cutting off their hands, legs, or other members. But the prerogative was perpetual; the remedy applied by Henry was but temporary; and the violence of this remedy, so far from being a security to the people, was only a proof of the ferocity of the government in that age, and threatened a quick return of like abusés.

ONE great and difficult object of the King's prudence was the guarding against the incroachments of the court of Rome, and protecting the liberties of the church of England. The Pope, in the year 1101, had sent Guy, archbishop of Vienne, as legate into Britain; and tho' he was the first that for many years had appeared there in that character, and his commission gave general surprize *, the King, who was then in the commencement of his reign, and was attended with many difficulties, was obliged to submit to this encroachment on his authority. But in the year 1116, Anselm, abbot of St. Sabas, who was coming over with a like legatine commission, was prohibited to enter the kingdom †; and Pope Calixtus, who in his turn was then labouring under many difficulties, by reason of the pretensions of Gregory, an anti-pope, was obliged to promise, that he never would for the future, except when solicited by the King himself, send any legate into England ‡. Notwithstanding this engagement, the Pope, so soon as he had suppressed his antagonist, granted the Cardinal de Crema a legatine commission for that kingdom; and the King, who, by reason of his nephew's intrigues and invasions, found himself at that time in a dangerous situation, was obliged to submit to the exercise of this commission §. A synod was called by the legate at London; where, among other canons, a vote passed enacting severe penalties on the marriage of the clergy $; and the Cardinal, in a public harangue, declared it to be an unpardonable enormity, that a priest should dare to consecrate and touch the body of Christ immediately after he had risen from the side of a trumpet: For that was the decent appellation which he gave to the wives of the clergy. But it happened, that, the very next night, the officers of justice, breaking into a disorderly house, found the Cardinal in bed with a courtezan ||; an incident which threw such a ridicule upon him, that he immediately stole out of the kingdom: The synod broke up; and the canons against the marriage of clergymen were worse executed than ever *.

HENRY, in order to prevent this alternate revolution of concessions and incroachments, sent William, then archbishop of Canterbury, to remonstrate with the court of Rome against these abuses, and to assert the liberties of the English churches. It was an usual maxim with every Pope, when he found that he could not prevail in any pretension, to grant princes or states a power which they had

* Eadmer, p. 58. † Hoveden, p. 474. ‡ Eadmer, p. 125, 137, 158. § Chron. Sax. p. 229. ¶ Spelm. Conc. vol. ii. p. 34. || Hoveden, p. 478. M. Paris, p. 48. Matth. Weit. ad ann. 1125. H. Huntingdon, p. 382. It is remarkable, that this last writer, who was a clergyman as well as the others, makes an apology for using such freedom with the fathers of the church; but says, that the fact was notorious, and ought not to be concealed.

always
always exercised, to resume at a proper season the claim which seemed to be resigned, and to pretend, that the civil magistrate had possession of the authority only from a special indulgence of the Roman pontiff. After this manner, the Pope, finding that the French nation would not admit his claim of granting investitures, had passed a bull, giving the King that authority; and he now practised a like invention to elude the complaints of the King of England. He made the archbishop of Canterbury his legate, renewed his commission from time to time, and still pretended, that the rights, which that prelate had ever exercised as metropolitan, were entirely derived from the indulgence of the apostolic see. The English princes, and Henry in particular, who were glad to avoid any present contest of so dangerous a nature, commonly acquiesced by their silence in these pretensions of the court of Rome.

As every thing in England remained in the utmost tranquillity, Henry took the opportunity of paying a visit to Normandy, to which he was invited, as well by his affection for that country, as by his tenderness for his daughter the Empress, Matilda, who was always his favourite. Some time after, that princess was delivered of a son, who received the name of Henry; and the King, farther to ensure her succession, made all the nobility of England and Normandy renew the oath of fealty, which they had already sworn to her. The joy of this event, and the satisfaction which he reaped from his daughter's company, who bore successively two other sons, made his residence in Normandy very agreeable to him; and he seemed determined to pass the rest of his days in that country; when an incursion of the Welsh obliged him to think of returning into England. He was preparing for the journey, when he was seized with a sudden illness at St. Dennis le Ferment, from eating too plentifully of lampreys, a food which always agreed better with his palate than his constitution. He died in

* The legates a latere, as they were called, were a kind of delegates, who possessed the full power of the Pope in all the provinces committed to their charge, and were very busy in extending, as well as exercising it. They nominated to all vacant benefices, assembled synods, and were anxious to maintain ecclesiastical privileges, which never could be fully protected without encroachments on the civil power. If there was the least concurrence or opposition, it was always supposed that the civil power was to give way: Every deed, which had the least pretence of holding of any thing spiritual, as marriages, testaments, promissory oaths, were brought into the spiritual court, and could not be canvassed before a civil magistrate. These were the established laws of the church; and where a legate was sent immediately from Rome, he was sure to maintain the papal claims with the utmost rigor: But it was an advantage to the King to have the archbishop of Canterbury appointed legate, because the connexions of that prelate with the kingdom tended to moderate his measures.

the sixty-seventh year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign; leaving by will his daughter, Matilda, heirefs of all his dominions, without making any mention of her husband, Geoffrey, who had given him several causes of displeasure.*

This prince was one of the most accomplished that has filled the English throne, and possessed all the qualities both of body and mind, natural and acquired, which could fit him for the high station, to which he attained. His person was manly, his countenance engaging, his eyes clear, serene, and penetrating. The affability of his address encouraged those who might be overawed by the sense of his dignity or of his wisdom; and tho' he often indulged his facetious humour, he knew how to temper it with discretion, and ever kept at a distance from all indecent familiarities with his courtiers. His superior eloquence and judgment would have given him an attendant even had he been born in a private station; and his personal bravery would have procured him respect, even tho' it had been left supported by art and policy. By his great progress in literature, he acquired the name of Beau-clerc or the scholar; but his application to these sedentary pursuits abated nothing of the activity and vigour of his government; and tho' the learning of that age was better fitted to corrupt than improve the understanding, his natural good sense preserved itself untainted both from the pedantry and superstition, which were then so prevalent among men of letters. His temper was very susceptible of the sentiments as well of friendship as of resentment †; and his ambition, tho' high, might be esteemed moderate and reasonable; had not his conduct towards his brother and nephew showed that he was too much disposed to sacrifice to it all the maxims of justice and equity. But the total incapacity of Robert for government afforded his younger brother a reason or pretence for seizing the scepter both of Normandy and England; and when violence and usurpation are once begun, necessity obliges a prince to continue in the same criminal course, and engages him in measures, which his better judgment and sounder principles would otherwise have induced him to reject with warmth and indignation.

King Henry was much addicted to women; and historians mention no less than seven illegitimate sons and six daughters, who were born to him ‡. Hunting was also one of his favourite amusements; and he exercised great rigor on those who encroached on the royal forests, which were augmented during this reign, tho' their number and extent were already enormous. To kill a stag was as criminal as to murder a man: He made all the dogs be mutilated, which were kept on the borders of his forests: And he sometimes deprived his subjects of the.

liberty of hunting on their own lands, or even cutting their own woods. In other respects, he executed justice, and that with rigour; the best maxim which a prince in that age could follow. Stealing was first made capital in this reign*: False coining, which was then a very common crime, and which had extremely debased the money, was punished severely by Henry †. Near fifty criminals of this kind were at one time hanged or mutilated; and tho' these punishments seem to have been exercised in somewhat an arbitrary manner, they were grateful to the people, more attentive to present advantages, than jealous of general laws. There is a code, which passes under the name of Henry I. but the best antiquarins have agreed not to think it genuine. It is however a very antient compilation, and may be useful to instruct us in the manners and customs of the times. It appears from it, that a great distinction was then made between the English and Normans, much to the advantage of the latter‡. The deadly feuds and the liberty of private revenge, which had been avowed by the Saxon laws, were still continued, and were not yet wholly illegal.§

Henry, on his accession, granted a charter to London, which seems to have been the first step towards rendering that city a corporation. By this charter, they were empowered to hold the farm of Middlesex at three hundred pounds a year, to elect their own sheriff and judiciary, and to hold pleas of the crown; they were exempted from Scot, Danegelt, trials by combat, and lodging the King’s retinue. These, with a confirmation of the privileges of their court of Husting, wardmotes, and common halls, and their liberty of hunting in Middlesex and Surrey, are the chief articles of this charter.§

‡ LL. Hen. 1. § 18. 75.
§ LL. Hen. § 82.
§ Lambardi Archaiomia ex edit. Twifden Wilkins, p. 235.
Accession of Stephen—War with Scotland—Insurrection in favour of Matilda—Stephen taken prisoner—Matilda crowned—Stephen released—Restored to the crown—Continuation of the civil wars—Compromise between the King and prince Henry—Death of the King.

In the progress and settlement of the feudal law, the male succession to fiefs had taken place some time before the female was admitted; and fiefs, being considered as military benefices, not as property, were transmitted to such only as could serve in the armies, and perform in person the conditions upon which they were originally granted. But after that the continuance of rights, during some generations, in the same family, had, in some measure, obliterated the primitive idea, the females were gradually admitted to the possession of feudal property; and the same revolution of principles, which procured them the inheritance of private fiefs, naturally introduced their succession to government and authority. The failure, therefore, of male-heirs to the kingdom of England and duchy of Normandy, seemed to leave the succession open, without a rival, to the empress, Matilda; and as Henry had made all his vassals in both states swear fealty to her, he presumed, that they would not easily be induced to depart at once from her hereditary right, and from their own reiterated oaths and engagements. But the irregular manner, in which he himself had acquired the crown, might instruct him, that neither his Norman nor English subjects were as yet capable of adhering to a strict rule of government; and as every precedent of this kind seems to give authority to new usurpations, he had reason to dread, even from his own family, some invasion of his daughter’s title, which he had taken such pains to establish.

Adela, daughter of William the Conqueror, had been married to Stephen, count of Blois, and had brought him several sons; among whom, Stephen, and Henry, the two youngest, had been invited over to England by the late King, and had received great honours, riches, and preferment from the zealous friendship, which that prince bore to every one, that had been so fortunate as to acquire
quire his favour and good opinion. Henry, who had betaken himself to the ecclesiastical profession, was created abbot of Glastenbury and bishop of Winchester; and tho' these dignities were considerable, Stephen, his brother, had, from his uncle's liberality, attained establishments still more solid and durable. The King had married him to Matilda, who was daughter and heir of Eustace count of Boulogne, and who brought him, besides that feudal sovereignty in France, an immense property in England, which, in the distribution of lands, had been conferred by the Conqueror on the family of Boulogne. Stephen also by this marriage acquired a new connexion with the royal family of England; as Mary, his wife's mother, was sister to David, the present King of Scotland, and to Matilda, the first wife of Henry, and mother of the empress. The King, still imagining, that he strengthened the interests of his family by the aggrandizement of Stephen, took a pleasure in enriching him by the grant of new possessions; and he conferred on him the great estate forfeited by Robert Mallet in England, and that forfeited by the earl of Mortaigne in Normandy. Stephen, in return, professed a great attachment to his uncle; and appeared so zealous for the succession of Matilda, that when the barons swore fealty to that princess, he contended with Robert, earl of Gloucester, the King's natural son, who should first be admitted to give her this testimony of devoted zeal and fidelity. Mean while, he continued to cultivate, by every art of popularity, the friendship and affection of the English nation; and many virtues, with which he seemed to be endowed, favoured the success of his intentions. By his bravery, activity and vigor, he acquired the esteem of the barons: By his generosity, and by an affable and familiar address, unusual in that age among men of his high quality, he obtained the affections of the people, particularly of the Londoners. And tho' he dared not to take any steps towards his farther grandeur, lest he might expose himself to the jealousy of so penetrating a prince as Henry; he still hoped, that, by accumulating riches and power, and by acquiring popularity, he might some time be able to open his way to the throne.

No sooner had Henry expired, than Stephen, insensible to all the ties of gratitude and fidelity, and blind to danger, gave full reins to his criminal ambition, and trusted, that, even without any previous intrigue, the celerity of his enterprise and the boldness of his attempt might overcome the weak attachment, which the English and Normans in that age bore to the laws, and to the rights of their sovereign. He hastened over to England; and tho' the citizens of Dover, and those of Canterbury, apprized of his purpose, shut their gates against him,
he stopped not till he arrived at London, where some of the lower rank, instigated by his emissaries, as well as moved by his general popularity, immediately saluted him King. His next point was to acquire the good will of the clergy; and by performing the ceremony of his coronation, put himself in possession of the throne, from which, he was confident, it would not be easy afterwards to expel him. His brother, the bishop of Winchester, was useful to him in those capital articles; and having gained Roger, bishop of Salisbury *, who, tho' he owed a great fortune and advancement to the favour of the late King, preferred no sense of gratitude to that prince's family, he applied, in conjunction with that prelate, to William, archbishop of Canterbury, and required him, in virtue of his office, to put the crown upon the head of Stephen. The primate, who, as well as all the others, had sworn fealty to Matilda, refused to perform this ceremony †; but his opposition was overcome by an expedient equally dishonourable with the other steps, by which this great revolution was affected. Hugh Bigod, steward of the household, made oath before the primate, that the late King, on his death-bed, had discovered a dissatisfaction with his daughter Matilda, and had expressed his intention of leaving the count of Boulogne heir to all his dominions ‡. William, either believing or feigning to believe Bigod's testimony, anointed Stephen, 22d Decemb. and put the crown upon his head; and by this religious ceremony, that prince, without any shadow either of hereditary title or consent of the nobility or people, was allowed to proceed to the exercise of sovereign authority. Very few barons attended his coronation †; but none opposed his usurpation, however unjust or flagrant. The sentiment of religion, which, if corrupted into superstition, has often little efficacy in fortifying the duties of civil society, overlooked the multiplied oaths, taken in favour of Matilda, and only rendered the people obedient to a prince, who was countenanced by the clergy, and who had received from the primate the rite of royal unction and consecration §.

Stephen, that he might farther secure his tottering throne, passed a charter, in which he made liberal promises to all orders of men; to the clergy, that he would speedily fill all vacant benefices, and would never levy the rents of any of them during the interval; to the nobility, that they should not be proceeded for hunting in their own forests; and to the people, that he would remit the tax of

‡ Brompton, p. 1033.
§ Such stress was formerly laid on the rite of coronation, that the monkish writers never give any prince the title of King, till he is crowned; tho' he had for some time been in possession of the crown, and exercised all the powers of sovereignty.
Danegelt, and restore the laws of King Edward *. The late King had a great

treasure at Winchester, amounting to a hundred thousand pounds †: And Ste-

phen, by seizing this money, immediately turned against Henry's family, the

precaution, which that prince had employed for their grandeur and security: An

event, which naturally attends the policy of amassing treasures. By means of

this money, the usurper insured the compliance, tho' not the attachment, of the

principal clergy and nobility; and not trusting to this frail security, he invited

over from the continent, particularly from Brittany and Flanders, great num-

bers of those bravos or disorderly soldiers, with whom every country in Europe,

by reason of the general ill police and turbulent governments, extremely abound-

ed ‡. These mercenary troops guarded his throne, by the terrors of the sword;

and Stephen, that he might also overawe all malcontents by new and additional
terrors of religion, procured a bull from Rome, which ratified his title, and

which the Pope, seeing this prince in actual possession of the throne, and pleased

with an appeal to his authority in secular controversies, very readily granted

him ||.

MATILDA, and her husband, Geoffrey, were as unfortunate in Normandy as

they had been in England. The Norman nobility, moved by an hereditary ani-
mosity against the Angevins, first applied to Theobald, count of Blois, Stephen's

elder brother, for protection and assistance §; but hearing afterwards, that

Stephen had got possession of the English crown, and having many of them the

same reasons as formerly for desiring a continuance of their union with that king-

dom, they transferred their allegiance to Stephen, and put him in possession of their

government ¶. Lewis the younger, the present King of France, accepted of the

homage of Euftace, Stephen's eldest son, for the duchy; and the farther to cor-

rororate his connexions with that family, he betrothed his sister, Constan- 

tia, to the young prince *. The count of Blois resigned all his pretensions, and

received in lieu of them a pension of two thousand marks; and Geoffrey himself

was obliged to conclude a truce for two years with Stephen, on condition of the

King's paying him, during that time, a pension of five thousand †. Stephen,

who had taken a journey to Normandy, finished all these transactions in person,

and soon after returned to England.

Stephen.

Robert, earl of Gloucester, natural son of the late King, was a man of honour and ability; and as he was much attached to the interests of his sister, Matilda, and zealous for the lineal succession to the crown, it was chiefly from his intrigues and resistance, that the King had reason to dread a new revolution of government. This nobleman, when he received intelligence of Stephen's accession, was much embarrassed concerning the measures, which he should pursue in that difficult emergency. To swear allegiance to the usurper appeared to him very dishonourable, and a breach of his oath to Matilda: To refuse giving this pledge of his fidelity was to banish himself from England, and be totally incapacitated from serving the royal family, or contributing to their restoration. He offered Stephen to do him homage and to take the oath of fealty; but with an express condition, that the King should maintain all his stipulations, and should never invade any of Robert's rights or dignities: And Stephen, tho' sensible, that this reserve, so unusual in itself, and so unbecoming the duty of a subject, was meant only to afford Robert a pretence for a revolt on the first favourable opportunity, was obliged, by the numerous friends and retainers of that nobleman, to receive him on these terms. The clergy, who could scarce, at this time, be deemed subjects to the crown, imitated that dangerous example; and annexed to their oath of allegiance this condition, that they were only bound so long as the King defended the ecclesiastical liberties, and supported the discipline of the church. The barons, in return for their submission, exacted terms still more destructive of public peace, as well as of royal authority: Many of them required the right of fortifying their castles, and of putting themselves in a posture of defence, and the King found himself totally unable to refuse his consent to this exorbitant demand. All England was immediately filled with these strongholds, which the noblemen garrisoned, either with their vassals, or with licentious soldiers, who flocked to them from all quarters. Unbounded rapine was exercised upon the people for the maintenance of these troops; and private animosities, which had with difficulty been restrained by law, now breaking out without control, rendered England a scene of uninterrupted violence and devastation. Wars between the nobles were carried on with the utmost fury in every quarter; the barons even assumed the right of coining money, and of exercising, without appeal, every act of jurisdiction, and the inferior gentry, as well as the people, finding no defence from the laws, during this total dissolution of sovereign authority, were obliged, for their immediate safety, to pay court to some neighbouring chief, and to purchase his protection, both by submitting to his exactions.

Brom ton, p. 1035.
and by affilting him in his rapine upon others. The erection of one castle proved
the immediate caufe of building many more; and even those, who obtained not
the King's permission, thought themselves intituled, by the great principle of self-
preservation, to put themselves on an equal footing with their neighbours, who
commonly were also their enemies and rivals. The ariftocratical power, which
is fo tyrannical and oppressive in the feudal governments, had now rifen to its
utmoft height, during the reign of a prince, who, tho' endued with vigour and
ability, had usurped the throne without the pretence of a title, and who was ne-
cessitated to tolerate in others the fame violence, to which he himfelf had been
beholden for his sovereignty.

But Stephen was not of a dispoftion to submit long to these ufurpations,
without making some efforts for the recovery of royal authority. Finding that
the legal prerogatives of the crown were refifited and abridged, he was also
tempted to make his power the fole meafure of his conduct; and to violate
all those concessions, which he himfelf had made on his acceffion *, as well as
the antient and eftablifhed privileges of his subjefts. The mercenary soldiers,
who chiefly supported his authority, having exhausted the royal trea cry, fubfifted
by depredations; and every place was filled with the beft grounded complaints
againft the government. The earl of Glocefter, having now settled with his
friends the project of an insurrection, retired beyond fea, fent the King a defiance,
solemnly renounced his allegiance, and upbraided him with the breach of thofe
conditions, which had been annexed to the oath of fealty, sworn by that noble-
man †. David, King of Scotland, appeared at the head of an army in defence
of his niece's title, and penetrating into Yorkshire, committed the moft bar-
barous devafations on that country ‡. The fury of his maffacres and raves
enraged the northern nobility, who might otherwife have been inclined to join
him; and William earl of Albermarle, William Piercy, Robert de Brus, Roger
Moubray, Ilbert Lacy, Walter d'Efpee, powerful barons in thofe parts, assemled
an army, with which they encamped at North-Allerton, and awaited the arrival of
the enemy. A great battle was here fought, called the battle of the Standard,
from a high crucifix, erected by the Englifh on a waggon, and carried along
with the army as a military enflign §. The King of Scots was routed with great
flaughter, and he himfelf, as well as his fon, Henry, very narrowly escaped fa-
iling into the hands of the Englifh. This succcefs overawed the malcontents in

England, and might have given some stability to Stephen’s throne, had he not been so elated with prosperity as to engage in a controversy with the clergy, who were at that time an overmatch for any monarch.

Tho’ the exorbitant power of the church, in ancient times, weakened the authority of the crown, and interrupted the course of the laws, it may be doubted, whether, in ages of such violence and outrage, it was not rather advantageous that some limits were set to the power of the sword, both in the hands of the prince and nobles, and that men were taught to pay regard to some principles and privileges. The chief misfortune was, that the prelates, on some occasions, acted entirely as barons, employed military power against their sovereign or their neighbours, and thereby often increased those disorders, which it was their duty to repress. The bishop of Salisbury, in imitation of the nobility, had built two strong castles, one at Sherborne, another at the Devizes, and had laid the foundations of a third at Malmesbury: His nephew, Alexander bishop of Lincoln, had erected a fortress at Newark: And Stephen, who was now sensible from experience of the mischief attending these multiplied citadels, resolved to begin with destroying those of the clergy, who by their function seemed less entitled than the barons to such military securities *. Taking pretence of a fray, which had arisen in court between the retinue of the bishop of Salisbury and that of the earl of Brittany, he seized both that prelate and the bishop of Lincoln, threw them into prison, and obliged them by menaces to deliver up those places of strength which they had lately erected †.

Henry, bishop of Winchester, the King’s brother, being armed with a legatine commission, now conceived himself to be an ecclesiastical sovereign no less powerful than the civil; and forgetting the ties of blood which connected him with the King, he resolved to vindicate the privileges of the church, which, he pretended, were here openly violated. He assembled a synod at Westminster, 30th August, and there complained of the impiety of Stephen’s measures, who had employed violence against the dignitaries of the church, and had not awaited the sentence of a spiritual court, by whom alone, he affirmed, they could lawfully be tried and condemned, if their conduct had anywise merited censure or punishment ‡: The synod ventured to send a summons to the King, charging him to appear before them, and to justify his measures §; and Stephen, instead of resenting this indignity, sent Aubrey de Vere to plead his cause before that assembly. De Vere accused the two prelates of treason and sedition; but the synod refused to try the

caufe, or examine their conduct, till those castles, of which they had been dis-
poselied, were previously restored to them *. The bishop of Salisbury appealed
to the Pope; and had not Stephen and his partizans employed menaces, and
even shown a disposition of executing violence by the hands of the soldiery, af-
fairs had instantly come to extremity between the crown and the mitre †.

While this quarrel, joined to so many other grievances, encreased the discon-
tents among the people, the Emprefs, invited by the opportunity, and secretly
encouraged by the legate himself, landed in England, with Robert earl of Glo-
cefter, and a retinue of an hundred and forty knights ‡. She fixed her residence
at Arundel cafll; whose gates were opened to her by Adelais, the Queen-dow-
ager, now married to William de Albini, earl of Sussex; and the excited by
messengers her partizans to take arms in every county of England. Adelais, who
had expected that her daughter-in-law would have invaded the kingdom with a
much greater force, became apprehensive of danger ¶; and Matilda, to eafe her
of her fears, removed first to Britol, which belonged to her brother Robert §,
thence to Gloceeft, where she remained under the protection of Miles, a gallant
nobleman in those parts, who had embraced her caufe. Soon after, Geoffrey
Talbot, William Mohun, Ralph Lovel, William Fitz-John, William Fitz-
Alan, Paganell, and many other barons, declared for her †; and her party,
which was generally favoured in the kingdom, feemed every day to gain ground
upon that of her antagonist.

Were we to relate all the military events transmitted to us by contemporary
and authentic historians, it would be easy to swell our accounts of this reign into
a large volume; but these incidents, so little memorable in themselves, and so
confused both in time and place, could afford neither instruction nor entertain-
ment to the reader. It suffices to say, that the war was spread into every quar-
ter; and that those turbulent barons, who had already shaken off, in a great
measure, the restraint of government, having now obtained the pretence of a
public caufe, carried on their devastations with redoubled fury, exercized im-
placable vengeance on each other, and fet no bounds to their oppreffion over
the people. The castles of the nobility were become receptacles of licenced
robbers, who, sallying forth day and night, committed spoil on the open coun-
try, on the villages, and even on the cities; put the captives to torture, in or-
der to make them discover their treasures; sold their persons to slavery; and fet
fire to the houses, after they had pillaged them of every thing valuable. The
siercenes of their disposition, leading them to commit wanton destruction, frui-

treated their capacity of its purpose; and the property and persons even of the ec-
sclesiastics, generally so much revered, were at last, from necessity, exposed to
the same outrage, which had laid waste the rest of the kingdom. The land was
left untilled; the instruments of husbandry destroyed or abandoned; and a griev-
ous famine, the natural result of these disorders, affected equally both parties,
and reduced the spoilers, as well as the defenceless people, to the most extreme
want and indigence.

After several fruitless negotiations and treaties of peace, which never inter-
rupted those destructive hostilities, there happened at last an event, which seemed
to promise some end of the public calamities. Ralph, earl of Chester, and his
half brother, William de Roumara, partizans of Matilda, had surprized the
castle of Lincoln; but the citizens, who were better affected to Stephen, hav-
ing invited him to their aid, that prince laid close siege to the castle, in hopes
of rendering himself soon master of the place, either by assault or famine. The
earl of Gloucester hastened with an army to the relief of his friends; and Stephen,
informed of his approach, marched into the field, with an intention of giving him
battle. After a violent shock, the two wings of the royalists were put to flight;
and Stephen himself, surrounded by the enemy, was at last, after exerting great
efforts of valour, borne down by numbers, and taken prisoner. He was con-
ducted to Gloucester; and though at first treated with humanity, was soon after, on
some suspicions, thrown into prison, and loaded with irons.

Stephen’s party were entirely broke by the captivity of their leader, and the
barons came in daily from all quarters, and did homage to Matilda. That prin-
cee, however, amidst all her prosperity, knew, that she was not secure of suc-
cess, unless she could gain the confidence of the clergy; and as the conduct of
the legate had been of late very ambiguous, and showed his intentions to have
rather aimed at humbling his brother, than totally ruining him, she employed
every endeavour to fix him in her interests. She held a conference with him in
an open plain near Winchестer; where she promised upon oath, that if he would
acknowledge her for sovereign, would recognize her title as the sole descendent
of the late King, and would return to the allegiance, which he, as well as the

Gervase, p. 1353. 1354.
Matilda crowned. The rest of the kingdom, had sworn to her, he should in return be entire master of the administration, and in particular should, at his pleasure, dispose of all vacant bishoprics and abbeys. Earl Robert, her brother, Brian Fitz-Count, Miles of Glocefter, and other great men, became guarantees for her observance of these engagements; and the prelate was last induced to promise her his allegiance, but that still burdened with the express condition, that she should on her part fulfill her promises. He then conducted her into Winchefter, led her in procession to the cathedral, and with great solemnity, in the presence of many bishops and abbots, denounced curses against all those who cursed her, poured out blessings on those who blessed her, granted absolution to such as were obedient to her, and excommunicated such as were rebellious. Theobald, archbishop of Canterbury, soon after came also to court, and swore allegiance to the empress.

Matilda, that she might farther ensure the attachment of the clergy, was willing to receive the crown from their hands; and instead of assembling the states of the kingdom, the measure which the constitution, had it been either fixed or regarded, seemed necessarily to require, she was contented, that the legate should summon an ecclesiastical council, and that her title to the throne should there be recognized and acknowledged. The legate, addressing himself to the assembly, told them, that, in the absence of the Empress, Stephen, his brother, had been permitted to reign, and, previously to his ascending the throne, had induced them by many fair promises, of honouring and exalting the church, of maintaining the laws, and of reforming all abuses: That it grieved him to observe how much that prince had been in every particular wanting to his engagements; public peace was interrupted, crimes were daily committed with impunity, bishops were thrown into prison, and forced to surrender their possessions, abbeys were put to sale, churches were pillaged, and the most enormous disorders prevailed in the administration: That he himself, in order to procure a redress of these grievances, had formerly summoned the King before a council of bishops; but instead of inducing him to amend his conduct, had rather offended him by that expedient: That that prince, however misguided, was still his brother, and the object of his affections; but he must however regard his interests as much subordinate to those of his heavenly father, who had now rejected him, and thrown him into the hands of his enemies: That it principally belonged to the clergy to elect and ordain Kings; he had summoned them together for that purpose; and having invoked the divine assistance, he now pronounced Matilda, the only descendant of Henry, their late sovereign, Queen of England. The

* W. Malm. p. 187.
‡ W. Malme. p. 187.
whole assembly, by their acclamations or silence, gave, or seemed to give, their 
assent to this declaration *.

The only laymen summoned to this council, which decided the fate of the 
crown, were the Londoners; and even these were required, not to give their opini
on, but to submit to the decrees of the synod. The deputies of London, how
ever, were not so passive: They insisted, that their King should be delivered 
from prison; but were told by the legate, that it became not the Londoners, 
who were regarded as noblemen in England, to take party with those barons, 
who had basely forsook their lord in battle, and who had treated holy church 
with contumely †. It is with reason that the citizens of London assumed so 
much authority, if it be true, what is related by Fitz-Stephen, a contemporary 
author, that that city could at that time bring into the field no less than 80,000 
combatants ‡.

London, notwithstanding its great power, and its attachment to Stephen, 
was at last obliged to submit to Matilda; and her authority, by the prudent con
duct of earl Robert, seemed to be established over the whole kingdom: But af
fairs remained not long in this situation. That princess, besides the disadvan
tages of her sex, which weakened her influence over a turbulent and martial peo
ple, was of a passionate, imperious spirit §, and knew not how to temper with 
affability the harshness of a refusal. Stephen's Queen, seconded by many of the 
nobility, petitioned for the liberty of her husband; and offered, that, on that con
dition, he should renounce the crown, and retire into a convent †. The legate de
sired, that prince Eustace, his nephew, might inherit Boulogne and the 
other patrimonial estates of his father ‡: The Londoners applied for the esta
lishment of King Edward's laws, instead of those of King Henry, which, they 
said, were grievous and oppressive *. All these petitions were denied in the most 
haughty and peremptory manner.

The legate, who had probably never been sincere in his compliance with Ma
tilda's government, availed himself of the ill humors excited by this imperious con
duct, and secretly infligated the Londoners to revolt. A conspiracy was

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* W. Malme. p. 188. This author, a judicious man, was present, and says, that he was very 
attentive to what passed. This speech, therefore, may be regarded as entirely authentic.
† W. Malme. p. 188.
‡ P. 4. Were this account to be depended on, London must at that time have contained near 
400,000 inhabitants, which is above double the number it contained at the death of Queen Elizabeth.
§ But these loose calculations, or rather guesses, deserve very little credit.
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entered into to seize the Empress's person; and she saved herself from the danger by a precipitate retreat *. She fled to Winchester, whither the legate, desirous to save appearances, and watching the proper opportunity to ruin her cause, soon after followed her. But having assembled all his retainers, he openly joined his force to that of the Londoners, and to Stephen's mercenary troops, who had not yet evacuated the kingdom; and he besieged Matilda in Winchester†. That Princess, being hard pressed by famine, made her escape; but in the flight, earl Robert, her brother, fell into the hands of the enemy ‡. This nobleman, tho' a subject, was as much the life and soul of his own party, as Stephen was of the other; and the Empress, sensible of his merit, contented to exchange the prisoners on equal terms §§. The civil war was again kindled, with greater fury than ever.

Earl Robert, finding the successes on both sides nearly balanced, went over to Normandy, which, during Stephen's captivity, had submitted to the earl of Anjou; and he persuaded Geoffrey to allow his eldest son, Henry, a young prince of great hopes, to take a journey into England, and appear at the head of his partizans $. This expedient, however, produced nothing decisive. Stephen took Oxford after a long siege: He was routed by earl Robert at Wilton ‡‡. And the Empress, tho' of a masculine spirit, yet being harassed with a variety of good and bad fortune, and alarmed with continual dangers to her person and family, at last retired with her son into Normandy, leaving the management of her affairs to her brother. The death of this valiant and faithful nobleman, which followed soon after, would have proved fatal to her interests, had not some events happened, which checked the course of Stephen's prosperity. This prince, finding, that the castles built by the noblemen of his own party encouraged the spirit of independance, and were little less dangerous than those which remained in the hands of the enemy, endeavoured to extort from them a surrender of these fortresses; and he alienated the affections of many of them by this equitable demand *. The artillery also of the church, which his brother had brought over to his side, had, after some interval, joined the other party. Eugenius III. had mounted the papal throne, and had deprived the bishop of Winchester of the legatine commission, which he conferred on Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury.

bury, the enemy and rival of the former legate. That pontiff, having summoned a general council at Rheims in Champagne, instead of allowing the church of England, as had been usual, to elect its own deputies, nominated five English bishops to represent that church, and required their presence in the council. Stephen, who, notwithstanding his present difficulties, was jealous of the rights of his crown, refused them permission to attend; and the Pope, sensible of his advantage in contending with a prince who reigned by a disputed title, took revenge by laying all Stephen's party under an interdict. By this sentence, which was now first known in England, divine service was prohibited, and all the functions of religion ceased, except the baptism of infants and the absolution of dying persons. The discontent of the royalists at this situation were augmented by a comparison with Matilda's party, who enjoyed all the benefits of the sacred ordinances; and Stephen was at last obliged, by making proper submissions to the see of Rome, to remove this reproach from his party.

The weakness of both sides, rather than any decrease of mutual animosity, having produced a tacit cessation of arms in England, many of the nobility, Roger de Mowbray, William de Warrenne, and others, finding no opportunity to exert their military ardour at home, inlisted themselves in a new crusade, which, with surprising success, after all former disappointments and misfortunes, was now preached by St. Barnard. But an event soon after happened, which threatened a revival of hostilities in England. Prince Henry, who had reached his sixteenth year, was desirous of receiving the honour of knighthood; a ceremony which every gentleman in that age passed thro' before he was admitted to the use of arms, and which was even deemed requisite for the greatest princes. He proposed to receive his admission from his great-uncle, David King of Scotland; and for that purpose, he passed thro' England with a great retinue, and was attended by the most considerable of his partizans. He stayed some time with the King of Scotland; made some incursions into England; and by his dexterity and vigour in all manly exercises, by his valour in war, and his prudent conduct in every occurrence, he roused the hopes of his party, and gave symptoms of those great qualities, which he afterwards displayed when he mounted the throne of England. Soon after his return to Normandy, he was, by Matilda's consent, invested in that duchy; and upon the death of his father, Geoffrey, which happened in the subsequent year, he took possession both of Anjou.

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Chap. VII. and Maine, and concluded a marriage, which brought him a great accession of power, and rendered him extremely formidable to his rival. Eleanor, the daughter and heiress of William, duke of Guisnez, and earl of Poictou, had been married sixteen years to Lewis VII. King of France, and had attended him in a crusade, which that monarch commanded against the infidels: But having there lost the affections of her husband, and even fallen under some suspicions of gallantry with a handsome Saracen, Lewis, more delicate than politic, procured a divorce from her, and restored her those rich provinces, which by her marriage she had annexed to the crown of France*. Young Henry, neither discouraged by the inequality of years, nor by the reports of Eleanor's gallantry, made successful courtship to that princess, and, espousing her six weeks after her divorce, got possession of all her dominions as her dowry. The lustre which he received from this acquisition, and the prospect of his rising fortune, had such an effect in England, that when Stephen, defirous to ensure the crown to his son Euftace, required the archbishop of Canterbury to anoint that prince as his successor, the primate refused compliance, and made his escape beyond sea, to avoid the violence and revenge of Stephen†.

Henry, informed of these dispositions in the people, made an invasion on England; and having gained some advantage over Stephen at Malmesbury, and having taken that place, he proceeded thence to throw succours into Wallingford, which the King had advanced with a superior army to besiege. A decisive action was every day expected; when the great men on both sides, terrified with the prospect of farther bloodshed and confusion, interposed with their good offices, and set on foot a negotiation between these rival princes. The death of Euftace, which happened during the course of the treaty, facilitated its conclusion§; and an accommodation was at last concluded, by which it was agreed, that Stephen should possess the crown during his lifetime; that justice should be administered in his name, even in the provinces which had submitted to Henry; and that this latter prince should, on Stephen's death, succeed to the kingdom, and William, Stephen's son, to Boulogne, and his patrimonial estate. After all the barons had sworn to the observance of this treaty, and done homage to Henry, as to the heir of the crown, that prince evacuated the kingdom; and the death of Stephen, which happened next year, after a short illness, prevented


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Compromise between the King and prince Henry.

Death of the king.

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all those quarrels and jealoufies, which were likely to have ensued in so delicate a situation.

England suffered great miseries during the reign of this prince; but his personal character, allowing for the temerity and injustice of his usurpation, appears not liable to any great exception; and he seems to have been well qualified, had he succeeded by a just title, to have promoted the happiness and prosperity of his subjects*. He was possessed of industry, activity, and courage, to a great degree; was not deficient in ability; had the talents of gaining men's affections; and notwithstanding his precarious situation, never indulged himself in the exercise of any cruelty or revenge †. His advancement to the throne procured him neither tranquillity nor happiness; and tho' the situation of England prevented the neighbouring states from taking any durable advantage of her confusions, her intestine wars and disorders were to the last degree ruinous and destructive. The court of Rome also was permitted, during these disorders, to make farther advances in her usurpations; and appeals to the Pope, which had been always strictly prohibited by the English laws, became now common in every ecclesiastical controversy ‡.

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CHAPTER VIII.

HENRY II.

State of Europe—of France—First acts of Henry's government—
Disputes between the civil and ecclesiastical powers—Thomas a Becket,
archbishop of Canterbury—Quarrel between the King and Becket—
Constitutions of Clarendon—Banishment of Becket—Compromise
with him—His return from banishment—His murder—
Grief—and submission of the King.

The extensive confederacies, by which the European potentates are now
at once united and set in opposition to each other; and which, tho' they
diffuse the least spark of dissension thro the whole, are at least attended with this
advantage, that they prevent any violent revolutions or conquests in particular
states, were totally unknown in antient ages; and the theory of foreign politics,
in each kingdom, formed a speculation much less complicate and involved than
at present. Commerce had not yet bound the most distant nations together in so
close a chain: Wars, finished in one campaign, and often in one battle, were
little affected by the movements of remote states: The imperfect communica-
tion among the kingdoms, and their ignorance of each other's situation, made it im-
practicable for a great number of them to combine in any one project or effort:
And above all, the turbulent spirit and independant situation of the barons or
great vassals in each state gave so much occupation to the sovereign, that he was
obliged to confine his attention chiefly to his own system of government, and was
more indifferent about what passed among his neighbours. Religion only, not
politics, carried abroad the views of princes; and either fixed their thoughts on
the Holy Land, whose conquest and defence was deemed a point of common ho-
nour and interest, or engaged them in intrigues with the court of Rome, to whom
they had yielded the direction of ecclesiastical affairs, and who was every day af-
fuming more authority than they were willing to allow her.

Before the conquest of England by the duke of Normandy, this island was
as much separated from the rest of the world in politics as in situation; and ex-
cept from the inroads of the Danish pirates, the English, happily confined at
home,
HENRY II.

home, had neither enemies nor allies on the continent. The foreign dominions of William connected them with the Kings and great vassals of France; and while the opposite pretensions of the Pope and Emperor in Italy, produced a continual intercourse between Germany and that country, the two great monarchs of France and England formed, in another part of Europe, a separate system, and carried on their wars and negotiations, without meeting either with opposition or support from the others.

On the decline of the Carolingian race, the nobles, in every province of France, taking advantage of the sovereign's weakness, and obliged to provide, each for his own defence, against the ravages of the Norman freebooters, had assumed, both in civil and military affairs, an authority almost independent, and had reduced, within very narrow limits, the prerogative of their princes. The accession of Hugh Capet, by annexing a great fief to the crown, had brought some addition of power to the royal dignity; but this fief, tho' considerable for a subject, appeared a narrow basis of force, in a prince who was placed at the head of so great a community. The royal demesnes consisted only of Paris, Orleans, Eifampes, Compiégne, and a few places, scattered over the northern provinces: In all the rest of the kingdom, the prince's authority was more nominal than real: The vassals were accustomed, nay intitled, to make war, without his permission, on each other: They were even entitled, if they conceived themselves to be injured, to turn their arms against their sovereign: They exercised all civil jurisdiction, without appeal, over their tenants and inferior vassals: Their common jealousy of the crown easily united them against any attempt on their exorbitant privileges; and as some of them had attained the power and authority of great princes, even the smallest baron was sure of immediate and effectual protection. Besides six ecclesiastical peerages, which, with the other immunities of the church, cramped extremely the general execution of justice; there were six lay-peerages, Burgundy, Normandy, Guienne, Flanders, Tholouse, and Champagne, which formed very extensive and puissant sovereignties. And though the combination of all these princes and barons could, on occasion, muster a mighty power: Yet was it very difficult to set that great machine in movement; it was almost impossible to preserve harmony in its parts; a sense of common interest alone could, for a time, unite them under their sovereign against a common enemy; but if the King attempted to turn the force of the community against any mutinous vassal, the same sense of common interest made the others oppose themselves to the success of his pretensions. Lewis the Grofs, the last sovereign, marched, at one time, to his frontiers against the Germans at the head of an army of two hundred thousand men; but a petty lord of Corbeil, of Puilset, of Couci, was able, at another...
The authority of the English monarch was much more extensive within his kingdom, and the disproportion much greater between him and the most powerful of his vassals. His demesnes and revenue were very large, compared to the greatness of his state: He was accustomed to levy arbitrary exactions from his subjects: His courts of judicature exercised jurisdiction in every part of the kingdom: He could crush by his power, or by a judicial sentence, well or ill founded, any obnoxious baron: And tho' the feudal institutions, which prevailed in his kingdom, had the same tendency, as in other states, to exalt the aristocracy, and depress the monarchy, it required, in England, according to its present constitution, a great combination of the vassals to oppose their sovereign lord, and there had not hitherto arisen any baron so powerful, as of himself to make war against the prince, and afford protection to the inferior barons.

While such were the different situations of France and England, and the latter enjoyed so great advantages over the former; the accession of Henry II, a prince of great abilities, possessed of so many rich provinces on the continent, might appear an event dangerous, if not fatal, to the French monarchy, and sufficient to break entirely the balance between the states. He was master, in the right of his father, of Anjou, Touraine, and Maine; in that of his mother, of Normandy; in that of his wife, of Guienne, Poitou, Xaintonge, Auvergne, Perigord, Angoumois, the Limoulin. He soon after annexed Brittany to his other states, and was already possessed of the superiority over that province, which, on the first cession of Normandy to Rollo the Dane, had, by Charles the Simple, been granted in vassalage to that formidable ravager. These provinces composed above a third of the whole French monarchy, and were much superior, in extent and opulence, to those territories, which were subjected to the immediate jurisdiction and government of the King. The vassal was here more powerful than his liege lord: The situation, which had enabled Hugh Capet to depose the Carolingian princes, seemed here to be renewed, and that with much greater advantages on the side of the vassal: And when England was added to so many provinces, the French King had reason to apprehend, from this conjuncture, some great danger to himself and to his family. But in reality, it was this circumstance, which appeared so formidable, that saved the Capetian race, and by its consequences, exalted them to that pitch of grandeur, which they at present enjoy.

The limited authority of the prince in the feudal constitutions prevented the King of England from employing with advantage the force of so many states, which
which were subjected to his government; and these different members, disjoined in situation, and disagreeing in laws, language and manners, were never thoroughly cemented into one monarchy. He soon became, both from his distant place of residence and from the incompatibility of interests, a kind of foreigner to his French dominions; and his subjects on the continent considered their allegiance as more naturally due to their superior lord, who lived in their neighbourhood, and who was acknowledged to be the supreme head of their nation. He was always at hand to invade them; their immediate lord was often at too great a distance to protect them; and any disorder in any part of his dispersed dominions gave advantages against him. The other powerful vassals of the French crown were rather pleased to see the expulsion of the English, and were not affected with that jealousy, which would have arisen from the oppression of a co-vassal, who was of the same rank with themselves. By this means, the King of France found it more easy to conquer these numerous provinces from England, than to subdue a duke of Normandy or Guienne, a count of Anjou, Maine or Poitou. And after reducing such extensive territories, which immediately incorporated with the body of the monarchy, he found greater facility of uniting to the crown the other great seifs, which still remained separate and independant.

But as these important consequences could not be foreseen by human wisdom, the French King remarked with terror the rising grandeur of the house of Anjou or Plantagenet; and in order to retard its progress, he had ever maintained a strict union with Stephen, and had endeavoured to support the tottering fortunes of that bold usurper. But after this prince's death, it was too late to think of opposing the succession of Henry, or preventing the performance of those stipulations, which, with the unanimous consent of the nation, he had made with his predecessor. The English, tired with civil wars, and disgusted with the bloodyshed and depredations, which, during the course of so many years, had attended them, were little disposed to violate their oaths, by excluding the lawful heir from the succession of their monarchy *. Many of the most considerable forresses were in the hands of his partizans; the whole nation had had occasion to see the noble qualities with which he was endowed †, and to compare them with the mean talents of William, the son of Stephen; and as they were acquainted with his great power, and were rather pleased to see the accession of so many foreign dominions to the crown of England, they never entertained the least thoughts of resisting him. Henry himself, sensible of the advantages attending his present situation, was in no hurry to arrive in England; and being engaged

in the siege of a castle on the frontiers of Normandy, when he received intelligence of Stephen's death, he made a point of honour in not departing from his enterprise, till he had brought it to an issue. He then set out on his journey, and was received in England with the acclamations of all orders of men, who swore with pleasure the oath of fealty and allegiance to him.

The first act of Henry's government corresponded to the high ideas entertained of his vigour and abilities, and prognosticated the re-establishment of justice and tranquillity, of which the kingdom had been so long bereaved. He immediately dismissed all those mercenary soldiers, who had committed infinite disorders in the nation; and he sent them abroad, together with William d'Ypres, their leader, the great friend and confidant of Stephen. He revoked all the grants made by his predecessor, and even those which necessity had extorted from the Empress, Matilda; and that princess, who had resigned her rights in favour of Henry, made no opposition to a measure so necessary for supporting the dignity of the crown. He repaired the coin, which had been extremely debased during his predecessor's reign; and he took proper measures against the return of like abuses. He was rigorous in the execution of justice, and in the suppression of robbery and violence; and that he might restore authority to the laws, he caused all the new erected castles to be demolished, which had proved so many sanctuaries to free-booters and rebels. The earl of Albemarle, Hugh Mortimer, and Roger, the son of Miles of Gloucester, were inclined to make some resistance to this salutary measure; but the approach of the King with his forces soon obliged them to submit.

Every thing being restored to full tranquillity in England, Henry went abroad in order to oppose the attempts of his brother, Geoffrey, who during his absence, had made an incursion into Anjou and Maine, had advanced some pretensions to these provinces, and had got possession of a considerable part of them. On the King's appearance, the people returned to their allegiance; and

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¶ William of Newbridge, p. 383. (who is copied by latter historians) afferts, that Geoffrey had some title to the counties of Maine and Anjou. He pretends, that count Geoffrey, his father, had left him these dominions by a secret will, and had ordered that his body should not be buried, till Henry should swear to the observance of it, which he, ignorant of the contents, was induced to do.

But
and Geoffrey, resigning his claim, for an annual pension of a thousand pounds, Chap. VIII. departed and took possession of the county of Nantz, which the inhabitants, who had expelled count Hoel, their prince, had put into his hands *. Henry returned to England in the following year; and the incursions of the Welsh then provoked him to make an invasion upon them; where the natural fastnesses of the country bred him great difficulties, and even brought him into danger. His vanguard, being engaged in a narrow pas, was put to rout; and Henry de Effex, the hereditary standard-bearer, seized with a panic, threw down the standard, took to flight, and exclaimed that the King was slain: And had not that prince immediately appeared in person, and led on his troops with great bravery, the consequences might have proved fatal to the whole army †. For this misbehaviour, Effex was afterwards accused of felony by Robert de Montfort; his estate was confiscated; and he himself was thrust into a convent ‡. The submissions of the Welsh procured them an accommodation with England.

The martial disposition of the princes in that age engaged them to head their own armies in every enterprise, even the most frivolous; and their feeble authority made it commonly impracticable for them to delegate, on occasion, the command to their generals. Geoffrey, the King's brother, died soon after he had acquired possession of Nantz; and tho' he had no other title to that county, than the voluntary submission or election of the inhabitants two years before, Henry laid claim to the territory as devolved to him by hereditary right, and he went over to support his pretensions by force of arms. Conan, duke or earl of Brittany (for these titles are given indifferently by historians to these princes) pretended that Nantz had been lately separated by rebellion from his principality, to which of right it belonged; and immediately on Geoffrey's death, he took possession of the disputed territory. Left Lewis, the French King, should interpose in the controversy, Henry paid him a visit; and so allured him by civilities, that an alliance was contracted between the monarchs, and they agreed, that young Henry, heir of the English monarchy, should be affianced to Margaret of France ||, tho' the former was only five years of age, and the latter was still in her cradle. Henry, now secure of meeting with no interruption on this side, advanced with his army into Brittany; and Conan, in despair of being able to make resistance, delivered up the county of Nantz to the King:

But besides, that this story is not very likely of itself, and favours of monkish fiction, it is found in no other ancient writer, and is contradicted by some of them, particularly the monk of Marmoutier, who had better opportunities than Newbridge of knowing the truth. See Vita Ganfr. Duc. Norman. p. 103.

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The ability of that monarch procured him farther and more important advantages from this incident. Conan, harassed with the turbulent disposition of his subjects, was desirous of procuring to himself the support of so great a monarch; and he betrothed his daughter and only child, yet an infant, to Geoffrey, the King’s third son, who was of the same tender years. The duke of Brittany died about seven years after; and Henry, on pretence of being guardian to his son and daughter-in-law, put himself in possession of that principality, and annexed it to his other great dominions.

The King had a prospect of making still farther acquisitions; and the activity of his temper allowed no opportunity of that kind to escape him. Philippa, duchess of Guienne, mother of Queen Eleanor, was the only issue of William IV. count of Thoulouze; and should have inherited his dominions, had not that prince, desirous of preserving the succession in the male-line, conveyed the principality to his brother, Raymond de St. Gilles, by a contract of sale which was in that age regarded as fictitious and illusory. By this means, the title to the county of Thoulouze came to be disputed between the male and female heirs; and the one or the other, as opportunities favoured them, had obtained possession. Alfonso, the son of Raymond, was the reigning sovereign; and on Henry’s reviving his wife’s claim, this prince had recourse for protection to the King of France, who was so much concerned in policy to prevent the farther aggrandizement of the English monarch. Lewis himself, when married to Eleanor, had asserted the justice of her claim, and had demanded possession of Thoulouze; but his sentiments changing with his interest, he now determined to defend, by his power and authority, the title of Alfonso. Henry found, that it would be requisite to support his pretensions against potent antagonists; and that nothing but a great army could maintain a claim, which he had in vain asserted by arguments and manifestos.

An army, composed of feudal vassals, was commonly very intractable and undisciplined, both because of the independent spirit of the persons who served in it, and because the commands were not given either by the choice of the sovereign or from the military capacity and experience of the officers. Each baron conducted his own vassals: His rank was greater or less, proportioned to the extent of his property: Even the supreme command under the prince was often attached to birth: And as the military vassals were obliged to serve only forty days at their own charge; tho’ if the expedition was distant, they were put to great expense;

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the prince reaped very little benefit from their attendance. Henry, sensible of Chap. VIII.
these inconveniences, levied upon his vassals in Normandy and other provinces, which were remote from Thoulouse, a sum of money in lieu of their service; and this commutation, by reason of the great distance, was still more advantageous for his English vassals. He imposed, therefore, a scutage of three pounds on each knight's fee, a condition, to which, tho' it was unusual, and the first perhaps to be met with in history, the military tenants willingly submitted; and with this money, he levied an army which was more under his command, and whose service was more durable and constant. Affisted by Berenger, count of Barcelona, and Trincaval, count of Nîmes, whom he had gained over to his party, he invaded the county of Thoulouse; and after taking Verdun, Châtel-nau, and other places, he besieged the capital of the province, and was likely to prevail in the enterprise; when Lewis, advancing before the arrival of his main body, threw himself into the place with a small reinforcement. Henry was urged by some of his ministers to prosecute the siege, to take Lewis prisoner, and to impose his own terms in the pacification; but he either thought it too much his interest to maintain the feudal principles, by which his foreign dominions were secured, or bore too much respect to his superior lord, that he declared he would not attack a place defended by him in person; and he immediately raised the siege. He marched into Normandy to protect that province against an incursion, which the count of Droix, instigated by King Lewis, his brother, had made upon it. War was now openly carried on between the two monarchs, but produced no memorable event, and was stopped by a cessation of arms, and afterwards by a peace, which was not however, attended with any confidence or good correspondence between the rival princes. The fortress of Gisors, being part of the dowry stipulated to Margaret of France, had been configned by agreement to the knights templars, on condition that it should be delivered into Henry's hands, after the celebration of the nuptials. The King, that he might have a pretence for immediately demanding the place, ordered the marriage to be solemnized between the prince and princess, tho' both infants; and he engaged the grand-master of the Temple, by large presents, as was generally suspected, to put him in possession of Gisors. Lewis refenting this fraudulent conduct, banished the templars from France, and would have made war upon the King of England, had it not been for the mediation and authority of Pope Alexander III. who had been chased from Rome by the antipope, Victor IV, and resided at that time in France. That we may form a notion of the authority possessed by

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the Roman Pontiff during those ages, it may be proper to remark, that the two
Kings had, the year before, met the Pope at the castle of Torcy in the Loir; and
they gave him such marks of respect, that both dismounted from their horses to
receive him, and holding each of them one of the reins of his bridle, walked on
foot by his side, and conducted him in that submissive manner into the castle *.

HENRY, soon after he had accommodated his differences with Lewis by the
Pope's mediation, returned to England; where he commenced an enterprise, which,
theop't required by sound policy, and even conducted in the main with prudence,
bred him infinite disquietude, involved him in great danger, and was not concluded
without some loss and dis Honour.

Disputes be-
 tween the ci-
 vil and eccle-
siastical pow-
ers. 

The usurpations of the clergy, which had at first been gradual, were now
become so rapid, and had mounted to such a height, that the contest between the
regale and pontifical was really arrived at a crisis in England; and it became ne-
cessary to determine whether the King or the priests, particularly the archbifhop
of Canterbury, should be sovereign of the kingdom †. The aspiring spirit of
Henry, which gave inquietude to all his neighbours, was not likely to pay long
a tame submission to the encroachments of subjects; and as nothing opens mens
eyes so readily as their interest, he was in no danger of falling, in this respect,
into that abject superstition, which retained his people in subjection. From the
commencement of his reign, in the government of his foreign dominions, as well
as of England, he had shewed a fixed purpose to repress clerical usurpations,
and to maintain those prerogatives, which had been transmitted to him by his
predecessors. During the schism of the papacy between Alexander and Victor,
he had determined, for some time, to remain neuter; and when he was informed,
that the archbishop of Rouen and the bishop of Mans had, from their own authority,
acknowledged Alexander as legitimate Pope, he was so enraged, that, tho' he
spared the archbishop on account of his age, he immediately issued orders for
overthrowing the houses of the bishop of Mans and archdeacon of Rouen ‡; and it
was not till he had deliberately examined the matter, by those views, which usually

* Trivet. p. 43.  † Fitz-Steph. p. 27.
‡ Fitz-Stephen, p. 18. This conduct appears violent and arbitrary; but was suitable to the strain
of administration in those days. His father, Geoffrey, tho' represented as a mild prince, set him an
example of much greater violence. When Geoffrey was master of Normandy, the chapter of Seez
presumed, without his consent, to proceed to the election of a bishop; upon which he ordered all of
them with the bishop-elect to be castrated, and made all their testicles be brought him in a platter.
Fitz-Steph. p. 44. In the war of Thuoloufe Henry laid a heavy and an arbitrary tax on all the churches
enter into the councils of princes, that he allowed that pontiff to exercise authority over any of his dominions. In England, the mild character and advanced years of Theobald, archbishop of Canterbury, together with his merits in refusing to put the crown on the head of Eustace, son of Stephen, prevented Henry, during the lifetime of that primate, from taking any measures against the multiplied encroachments of the clergy: But after his death, the King resolved to exert himself with more activity*; and that he might be secure against any opposition, he advanced to that dignity Becket, his chancellor, on whose compliance, he thought, he could entirely depend.

Thomas a Becket, the first man of English pedigree, who, since the Norman conquest, had, during the course of a whole century, risen to any considerable station, was born of reputable parents in the city of London; and being endowed both with industry and capacity, he early insinuated himself into the favour of archbishop Theobald†, and obtained from that prelate some preferments and offices. By their means, he was enabled to travel for farther improvement to Italy, where he studied the civil and canon law at Bologna‡; and on his return, he appeared to have made such proficiency in knowledge, that he was promoted by his patron to the archdeaconry of Canterbury, an office of considerable trust and profit§. He was afterwards employed with success by Theobald in transacting business at Rome; and on Henry's accession, he was recommended to that monarch as worthy of farther preferment.§ Henry, who knew that Becket had been instrumental in supporting that resolution of the archbishop, which had tended so much to facilitate his own advancement to the throne, was already possessed in his favour; and finding, on farther acquaintance, that his spirit and abilities entitled him to any trust, he soon promoted him to the dignity of chancellor, one of the first civil offices in the kingdom. The chancellor, in that age, besides the custody of the great seal, had possession of all vacant prelacies and abbeys; he was the guardian of all such minors and pupils as were the King's tenants; all baronies which escheated to the crown were under his administration; he was entitled to a place in council, even though he was not particularly summoned; and as he exercised also the office of secretary of state, and it belonged to him to countersign all commissions, writs, and letters-patent, he was a kind of prime minister, and was concerned in the dispatch of every business of importance. After obtaining this high office, Becket, as he advanced in favour, was made provost of Beverley, dean of Hastings, and constable of the tower. He was put in

possession of the honours of Eye and Berkenham, large baronies, that had escheated
to the crown; and to compleat his grandeur, he was entrusted with the educati
on of prince Henry, the King's eldest son and heir of the monarchy *. The
pomp of his retinue, the sumptuousness of his furniture, the luxury of his table,
the munificence of his presents, corresponded to these great preferments; or ra-
ther exceeded any thing, which England had ever before seen in any subje.
His historian and secretary, Fitz-Stephens †, mentions, among other particu-
Iars, that his apartments were every day in winter covered with clean straw or
hay, and in summer with green rufhes or boughs; left the gentlemen who paid
their court to him, and who could not, by reason of their great number, find a
place at table, should soil their fine cloaths by sitting on a dirty floor †. A great
number of knights were retained in his service; the greatest barons were proud of
being received at his table; his house was a place of education for the sons of the
chief nobility; and the King himself frequently vouchsafed to partake of his en-
tertainments. As his way of life was splendid and opulent, his amusements and
occupations were gay, and partook of the cavalier spirit, which, as he had only
taken deacon's orders, he did not think unbecoming his character. He employed
himself at leisure hours in hunting, hawking, gaming, and horsemanship; he
exposed his person in several military actions ‡; he carried over, at his own
charge, seven hundred knights to attend the King in his wars at Tholouse; in
the subsequent wars on the frontiers of Normandy, he maintained, during forty
days, twelve hundred knights, and four thousand of their train §; and in an
embassy to France, with which he was entrusted, he astonished that court with the
number and magnificence of his retinue.

Henry, besides committing all his more important business to Becket's ma-
nagement, honoured him with his friendship and intimacy; and whenever he was
dispersed to relax himself by sports of any kind, he admitted his chancellor to the
party ‡. An instance of their familiarity is mentioned by Fitz-Stephens, which,
as it shews the manners of the age, it may not be improper to relate. One day,
as the King and chancellor were riding together in the streets of London,
they observed a beggar, who was shivering with cold. Would it not be very
praiseworthy, said the King, to give that poor man a warm coat in this severe

† John Baldwin held the manor of Outerssee in Aylebury of the King in socage, by the service
of finding litter for the King's bed, viz. in summer, grass or herbs, and two grey geese, and in winter
straw and three eels, thrice in a year, if the King should come thrice in a year to Aylebury. Ma-
‡ Hist. Quad. p. 8.
It would, surely, replied the chancellor; and you do well, Sir, in thinking of such good actions. Then he shall have one presently, cried the King: And seizing the skirt of the chancellor’s coat, began to pull it violently. The chancellor defended himself for some time; and they had both of them like to have tumbled off their horses in the street, when Becket, after a vehement struggle, let go his coat; which the King bestowed on the beggar, who, being ignorant of the quality of the person, was not a little surprized with the present.

Becket, who, by his complaisance and good humour, had rendered himself agreeable, and by his industry and abilities useful, to his master, appeared to him the fittest person for supplying the vacancy made by the death of Theobald; and as he was well acquainted with the King’s intention† of retrenching, or rather confining within the ancient bounds, all ecclesiastical privileges, and showed always a ready disposition to comply with them‡, Henry, who never expected any refiſtance from that quarter, immediately issued orders for electing him archbishop of Canterbury. But this resolution, which was taken contrary to the opinion of Matilda, and many of the ministers§, turned out very unfortunate in the event; and never prince of fo great penetration appeared, in the issue, to have fo little understood the genius and character of his minister.

No sooner was Becket inſtalled in this high dignity, which rendered him for life the second person in the kingdom, with some pretentions of aspiring to be the first, than he totally altered his demeanour and conduct§, and endeavoured to retrieve the character of sanctity, of which his former busy and oftentatious course of life might, in the eyes of the people, have naturally bereaved him. Without consulting the King, he immediately returned into his hands the commission of chancellor †; pretending, that he must henceforth detach himself from secular affairs, and be solely employed in the exercise of his sacred function; but in reality, that he might break off all connexions with Henry, and apprize him, that Becket, as primate of England, was now become entirely a new personage. He maintained only, in his retinue and attendants, his antient pomp and lustre, which was useful to strike the vulgar: In his own person he affected the greatest austeritiy, and most rigid mortification, which, he was sensible, would have an equal or a greater tendency to the same end. He wore sack-cloth next his skin, which, by his affected care to conceal it, was necessarily the more remarked by all the world*: He changed it so seldom, that it was filled with dirt

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and vermin*: His usual diet was bread; his drink water†, which he even rendered farther unpalatable by the mixture of unfavoury herbs: He tore his back with the frequent discipline which he inflicted on it: He daily on his knees washed, in imitation of our Saviour, the feet of thirteen beggars; whom he afterwards dismissed with presents‡: He gained the affections of the monks by his frequent charities to the convents and hospitals: Every one who made profession of sanctity was admitted to his conversation, and returned full of panegyrics on the humility, as well as the piety and mortification, of the holy primate: He seemed to be perpetually employed in reciting prayers and pious lectures, or in pursuing religious discourses: His aspect wore the appearance of seriousness, and mental recollection, and secret devotion: And all men of penetration plainly saw, that he was meditating some great design, and that the ambition and ostentation of his character had turned itself towards a new and more dangerous object.

BECKET waited not till Henry should commence those projects against the ecclesiastical power, which, he knew, had been formed by that prince: He was himself the aggressor; and endeavoured to overawe the King by the intrepidity and boldness of his enterprizes. He summoned the earl of Clare to surrender the barony of Tunbridge, which, ever since the conquest, had remained in the family of that nobleman, but which, as it had formerly belonged to the see of Canterbury, the primate pretended his predecessors were prohibited by the canons to alienate. The earl of Clare, besides the lusitn which he derived from the greatness of his own birth, and the extent of his possessions, was allied to all the chief families in the kingdom; his sister, who was a celebrated beauty, had farther extended his credit among the nobility, and was even supposed to have gained the King's affections; and Becker could not better discover, than by attacking so powerful an interest, his resolution to maintain with vigour the rights, real or pretended, of his see.

WILLIAM de Eynsford, a military tenant of the crown, was patron of a living, which belonged to a manor that held of the archbishop of Canterbury; and Becker, without regard to William's right, presented, on a new and illegal pretext, one Laurence to that living, who was violently expelled by Eynsford. The primate, making himself, as was usual in spiritual courts, both judge and party, issued out, in a summary manner, the sentence of excommunication against Eynsford, who complained to the King, that he, who held in capite of the

Henry, who had now broke off all personal intercourse with Becket, sent him, by a messenger, his orders to absolve Eynsford; but received for answer, that it belonged not to the King to inform him whom he should absolve and whom excommunicate: And it was not till after many remonstrances and menaces, that Becket, tho' with the worst grace imaginable, was induced to comply with the royal mandate.

Henry, tho' he found himself thus grievously mistaken in the character of the person whom he had promoted to the primacy, determined not to desist from his former intention of retrenching clerical usurpations. He was entirely master of his extensive dominions: The prudence and vigour of his government, attended with perpetual success, had raised his character above that of any of his predecessors: The papacy was weakened by a schism, which divided all Europe: And he rightly judged, that, if the present favourable opportunity were neglected, the crown must, from the prevalent superstition of the people, be in danger of falling into an entire subordination under the mitre.

The union of the civil and ecclesiastical powers serves extremely, in every civilized government, to the maintenance of peace and order; and prevents those mutual incroachments, which, as there can be no ultimate judge between them, are often attended with the most dangerous circumstances. Whether the supreme magistrate, who unites these powers, receive the appellation of prince or prelate, it is not material: The superior weight, which temporal interests commonly bear in the apprehensions of men above spiritual, renders the civil part of his character most prevalent; and in time prevents those gross impostures and bigotted persecutions, which, in all false religions, are the chief foundation of clerical authority. But during the progress of ecclesiastical usurpations, the state, by the resistance of the civil magistrate, is naturally thrown into convulsions; and it behoves the prince, both for his own interest, and for that of the public, to provide in time sufficient barriers against so dangerous and insidious a rival. This precaution had been hitherto much neglected in England, as well as in other catholic countries; and affairs at last seemed to have come to a dangerous crisis: A sovereign of the greatest abilities was now on the throne: A prelate of the most inflexible and intrepid character was possessed of the primacy: The contending powers appeared to be armed with their full force, and it was natural to expect some extraordinary event to result from their encounter.

Among their other inventions to obtain money, the clergy had inculcated the necessity of penance as an atonement for sin; and having again introduced the practice of paying them large sums as a commutation, or species of atonement, for the remission of these penances, the sins of the people, by these means, had become a revenue to the priests; and the King computed, that, by this invention alone, they levied more money from his subjects, than flowed, by all the funds and taxes, into the royal exchequer*. That he might ease his subjects of so heavy and arbitrary an imposition, Henry required, that a civil officer of his appointment should be present in all ecclesiastical courts, and should, for the future, give his consent to every composition which was made with sinners for their spiritual offences.

The ecclesiastics, in that age, had renounced all immediate subordination to the magistrate: They openly pretended to an exemption, in criminal accusations, from a trial before courts of justice; and were gradually introducing a like exemption in civil causes: Spiritual penalties alone could be inflicted on their offences: And as the clergy had extremely multiplied in England, and many of them were consequently of very low characters, crimes of the deepest dye, murders, robberies, adulteries, rapes, were daily committed with impunity by the ecclesiastics. It had been found, for instance, by enquiry, that no less than an hundred murders had, since the King's accession, been perpetrated by men of that profession, who had never been called to account for these offences†; and holy orders were become a full protection for all enormities. A clerk in Worcestershire, having debauched a gentleman's daughter, had, at this time, proceeded to murder the father; and the general indignation against this crime moved the King to attempt the remedy of an abuse which was become so palpable, and to require that the clerk should be delivered up, and receive condign punishment from the magistrate‡. Becket insisted on the privileges of the church; confined the criminal to the bishop's prison, lest he should be seized by the King's officers; maintained that no greater punishment could be inflicted on him than degradation: And when the King demanded, that, immediately after he was degraded, he should be tried by the civil power, the primate asserted, that it was iniquitous to try a man twice upon the same accusation, and for the same crime.§

Henry, laying hold of so favourable a cause, resolved to push the clergy with regard to all their privileges, which they had raised to an enormous height, and

to determine at once those controversies, which daily multiplied, between the civil and ecclesiastical jurisdictions. He summoned an assembly of all the prelates of England; and he put to them this concise and decisive question, Whether or not they were willing to submit to the antient laws and customs of the kingdom? The bishops unanimously replied, that they were willing, saving their own order: A device by which they thought to elude the present urgency of the King's demand, and yet reserve to themselves, on a favourable opportunity, the power of resuming all their past pretensions. The King was sensible of the artifice, and was provoked to the highest indignation. He left the assembly, with visible marks of his displeasure: He required the primate instantly to surrender the honours and castles of Eye and Berkham: The bishops were terrified, and expected still further effects of his resentment. Becket alone was inflexible; and nothing but the interposition of the Pope's legate, Philip, abbot of Èleemosina, who dreaded a breach with so powerful a prince at so unseasonable a juncture, could have prevailed on him to retract the saving clause, and give a general and absolute promise of observing the antient customs.

But Henry was not content with a declaration in these general terms: He resolved, ere it was too late, to define expressly those customs, with which he required compliance, and to put a stop to clerical usurpations, before they were fully consolidated, and could plead antiquity, as they already did a sacred authority, in their favour. The claims of the church were open and visible. After a gradual and insensible progress through many centuries, the mask had at last been taken off, and several ecclesiastical councils, by their canons, which were pretended to be irrevocable and infallible, had positively defined those privileges and immunities, which gave such general offence, and appeared so dangerous, to the civil magistrate. Henry therefore deemed it necessary to define with the same precision the limits of the civil power; to oppose his legal customs to their divine ordinances; to determine the exact boundaries of the rival jurisdictions; and for this purpose, he summoned a general council of the nobility and prelates at Clarendon, to whom he submitted this great and important question.

The barons were all gained to the King's party, either by the reasons which he urged, or by his superior authority: The bishops were overawed by the general combination against them: And the following laws, commonly called the Constitutions of Clarendon, were voted without opposition by this assembly. It was enacted, that all suits concerning the advowson and presentation of churches

Gervase, p. 1385.
§ Fitz-Steph. p. 33.
should be determined in the civil courts: That the churches, belonging to the
King's fee, should not be granted in perpetuity without his consent: That clerks,
accused of any crime, should be tried in the civil courts: That no person, particu­
larly no clergyman of any rank, should depart the kingdom without the King's
licence: That excommunicated persons should not be bound to give security for
continuing in their present place of abode: That laics should not be accused in
spiritual courts, except by legal and reputable promoters and witnesses: That no
chief tenant of the crown should be excommunicated, nor his lands be put under
an interdict, except with the King's consent: That all appeals in spiritual causes
should be carried from the archdeacon to the bishop, from the bishop to the pri
mate, from him to the King; and should be carried no farther without the King's
consent: That if any law-suit arise between a layman and a clergyman concerning
a tenement, and it be disputed whether the land be a lay or an ecclesiastical fee,
it should first be determined by the verdict of twelve lawful men to what class it
belonged, and if it be found to be a lay-fee, the cause should finally be determined
in the civil courts: That no inhabitant in demesne, should be excommunicated
for non-appearance in a spiritual court, till the chief officer of the place, where he
resides, be consulted, that he may compel him by the civil authority to give sati
faction to the church: That the archbishops, bishops, and other spiritual digni
taries should be regarded as barons of the realm; should possess the privileges and
be subjected to the burthens belonging to that rank; and should be bound to at
tend the King in his great councils, and assist at all trials, till the sentence, either
of death or loss of members, be given against the criminal: That the revenue of
the vacant fees should belong to the King; the chapter, or such of them as he shall
summon, should fit in the King's chapel till they make the new election with his
consent, and that the bishop-elect should do homage to the crown: That if any
baron or tenant in capite shall refuse to submit to the spiritual courts, the King
should employ his authority in obliging him to make such submissions; if any
of them throw off his allegiance to the King, the prelates should with their cen
sures assist the King in reducing him: That goods, forfeited to the King, should
not be protected in churches or church-yards: That the clergy should no more
pretend to the right of enforcing payment of debts contracted by oath or promise;
but should leave these law-suits, as well as others, to the determination of the civil
courts: And that the sons of villains should not be ordained clerks, without the
consent of their lord.

These articles, to the number of sixteen, were calculated to prevent the principal abuses, which had prevailed in ecclesiastical affairs, and to put an effectual stop to the usurpations of the church, which, gradually stealing on, had threatened the total destruction of the civil power. Henry, therefore, by reducing these customs to writing and collecting them in a body, endeavoured to prevent all future dispute with regard to them; and by passing so many ecclesiastical ordinances in a national and civil assembly, he fully established the superiority of the legislature above all papal decrees or spiritual canons, and gained a signal victory over the ecclesiastics. But as he knew, that the bishops, tho’ overawed by the present combination of the crown and the barons, would take the first favourable opportunity of denying the authority, which had enacted these constitutions; he resolved, that they should all set their seal to them, and give a promise to observe them. None of the prelates dared to oppose his will; except Becket, who, urged by the earls of Cornwall and Leicester, the barons of principal authority in the kingdom, obstinately withheld his consent. At last, Richard de Haltings, grand prior of the Templars in England, threw himself on his knees before him; and with many tears, entreated him, if he paid any regard, either to his own safety or that of the church, not to provoke, by fruitless opposition, the indignation of a great monarch, who was resolutely bent on his purpose, and who was determined to take full revenge on every one, who should dare to oppose him; Becket, finding himself deserted by all the world, and even by his own brethren, this cause, was at last obliged to comply; and he set his seal to the constitutions promised, legally, with good faith, and without fraud or reserve, to observe them; and even took an oath to that purpose. The King, thinking that he had now finally prevailed in this great enterprise, sent the constitutions to Pope Alexander, who then resided in France; and he required that pontiff’s ratification of them: But Alexander, who plainly saw, that these laws were calculated to establish the independency of England on the papacy, and of the royal power on the clergy, condemned them in the strongest terms; abrogated, annulled, and rejected them. There were only six articles, the least important, which, for the sake of peace, he was willing to ratify.

Becket, when he observed, that he might hope for support in an opposition, expressed the deepest sorrow for his concessions; and endeavoured to engage all the other bishops in a confederacy to adhere to their common rights, and to the ecclesiastical privileges, in which he represented the interest and honour of God to be so deeply concerned. He redoubled his austerities in order to punish himself

for his criminal compliance: He proportioned his discipline to the enormity of his supposed offence: And he refused to exercise any part of his archiepiscopal function, till he should receive absolution from the Pope, which was readily granted him. Henry, informed of his present dispositions, resolved to take vengeance for this refractory behaviour; and he attempted to crush him, by means of that very power which Becket made such a merit in supporting. He applied to the Pope for the commission of legate in his dominions; but Alexander, as politic as he, tho' he granted him the commission, annexed a clause, that it should not empower him to execute any act in prejudice of the archbishop of Canterbury: And the King, finding how fruitless such an authority would prove, sent back the commission by the same messengers who brought it.

The primate, however, who found himself still exposed to the King's indignation, endeavoured twice to escape secretly from the kingdom; but was as often detained by contrary winds: And Henry hastened to make him feel the effects of an obstinacy, which he deemed so criminal. He infligted John, marshall of the exchequer, to sue Becket, in the archiepiscopal-court for some lands, part of the manor of Pageham; and to appeal from thence to the King's court for justice. On the day appointed for trying the cause, the primate sent four knights, to represent certain irregularities in John's appeal; and at the same time to excuse himself, on account of sickness, for not appearing personally that day in the court. This slight offence (if it even deserves that name) was represented as a grievous contempt; the four knights were menaced, and with difficulty escaped being sent to prison, as offering falsehoods to the court; and Henry, being determined to persecute Becket to the utmost, summoned at Northampton a great council, whom he proposed to make the instruments of his vengeance against this inflexible prelate.

The King had raised Becket from a low station to the highest offices, had honoured him with his countenance and friendship, had trusted to his assistance in forwarding his favourite project against the clergy; and when he found him become of a sudden his most rigid opponent, while every one beside complied with his will, rage at the disappointment, and indignation against such signal ingratitude, transported him beyond all bounds of moderation; and there seems to have entered more of passion than of justice or even of policy, in this violent

* Fitz-Steph. p. 36.
The barons, however, in the great council voted whatever sentence he was pleased to dictate to them; and the bishops themselves, who undoubtedly bore a secret favour to Becket, and regarded him as the martyr of their privileges, concurred with the rest, in the design of oppressing their primate. In vain did Becket urge, that his court was proceeding with the utmost regularity and justice in trying the marshall's cause, which, however, he said, would appear, from the sheriff's testimony, to be entirely unjust and iniquitous: That he himself had discovered no contempt of the King's court; but on the contrary, by sending four knights to excuse his absence, had virtually acknowledged its authority: That he also, in consequence of the King's summons, personally appeared at present in the great council, ready to justify his cause against the marshall, and to submit his conduct to their enquiry and jurisdiction: And that even should he be found to have been guilty of non-appearance, the laws had affixed a very slight penalty to that offence; and that, as he was an inhabitant of Kent, where his archiepiscopal palace was seated, he was by law entitled to some greater indulgence than usual in the rate of his fine. He was condemned, notwithstanding these pleas, as guilty of a contempt of the King's court, and as wanting in the fealty which he had sworn to his sovereign; all his goods and chattels were confiscated; and that this triumph over the church might be carried to the utmost, Henry, Bishop of Winchester, the prelate who had been so powerful in the former reign, was, notwithstanding his remonstrances, obliged, by order of the court, to pronounce the sentence against him. The primate submitted to the decree; and all the prelates, except Gilbert, bishop of London, who paid court to the King by this singularity, became sureties for him. It is remarkable, that several Norman barons voted in this council; and we may conclude, with some probability, that a like practice had prevailed in many of the great councils summoned since the conquest. For the contemporaneous historian, who has given us a full account of these transactions, does not mention this circumstance as any thing singular; and Becket, in all his subsequent remonstrances with regard to the severe treatment, which he had met with, never founds any objection on an irregularity, which to us appears very palpable and flagrant. So little precision was there at that time in the government and constitution!

The King was not content with this sentence, however violent and oppressive. Next day, he demanded of Becket the sum of three hundred pounds, which the primate had levied from the honours of Eye and Berkam, while in his possession.

Gervase, p. 1389. § Fitz-Steph. p. 37. ¶ Fitz-Steph. p. 37. Becket,
Chap. VIII. Becket, after premising that he was not obliged to answer to this suit, because it was not contained in his summons; after remarking, that he had expended more than that sum in the repairs of these castles and of the royal palace at London; expressed however his resolution not to allow money to be any ground of quarrel between him and his sovereign: He agreed to pay the sum; and immediately gave sureties for it*. In the subsequent meeting, the King demanded five hundred marks, which, he affirmed, he had lent Becket during the war at Toulouse †; and another sum to the same amount, for which that prince had been surety for him to a Jew. Immediately after these two claims, he started a third of still greater importance: He required him to give in the account of his administration while chancellor, and to pay the balance due from the revenues of all the prelacies, abbeys, and baronies, which had, during that time, been subjected to his management ‡. Becket observed, that as this demand was totally unexpected, he had not come prepared to answer it; but he required a delay, and promised in that case to give satisfaction. The King insisted upon sureties; and Becket desired leave to consult with his suffragans in a case of such importance.

It is apparent, from the known character of Henry, and from the usual vigilance of his government, that when he promoted Becket to the see of Canterbury, he was, on good grounds, well pleased with his administration in the former high office, with which he had entrusted him; and that, even if that prelate had dissipated money beyond the income of his place, the King was satisfied, that his expenses were not blameable, and had in the main been calculated for his service §. Two years had since elapsed; no demands had during that time been made upon him, it was not till the quarrel arose concerning ecclesiastical privileges, that the claim was started, and the primate was, of a sudden, required to produce accounts of such intricacy and extent before a tribunal, which had shown a determined resolution to ruin and oppress him. To find sureties, that he should answer so boundless and uncertain a claim, which, in the King's estimation, amounted to 44,000 marks ‡, was impracticable; and Becket's suffragans were extremely at a loss what council to give him, in such a critical emergency. By the advice of the bishop of Winchester he offered two thousand marks as a general satisfaction for all demands: But this offer was rejected by the King *. Some prelates counselled him to resign his see, on condition of receiving an acquittal: Others were of opinion, that he ought to submit himself entirely to the


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King's mercy*: But the primate, thus pushed to the utmost, had too much courage to sink under oppression: He determined to brave all his enemies, to trust to the sacredness of his character for protection, to involve his cause with that of God and religion, and to stand the utmost efforts of royal indignation.

After a few days, spent in deliberation, Becket went to church, and said mass, where he had previously ordered, that the introit to the communion service should begin with these words, *Princes sat and spake against me;* the passage appointed for the martyrdom of St. Stephen, whom the primate thereby tacitly pretended to resemble in his sufferings for the sake of righteousness †. He went thence to court arrayed in his sacred vestments; and as soon as he arrived within the palace gates, he took the cross into his own hands, bore it aloft as his protection, and marched in that posture into the royal apartments ‡. The King, who was in an inner room, was astonished at this parade, by which the primate seemed to menace him and his court with the sentence of excommunication; and he sent some of the prelates to remonstrate with him on account of such audacious behaviour. These prelates complained to him, that, by subscribing, himself, to the constitutions of Clarendon, he had seduced them to imitate his example; and that now, when it was too late, he pretended to shake off all subordination to the civil power, and appeared desirous of involving them in the guilt, which must attend any violation of those laws, established by their consent and ratified by their subscriptions §. Becket replied, that he had indeed subscribed the constitutions of Clarendon, legally, with good faith and without fraud or reserve, but in these words was virtually implied a salvo for the rights of their order, which, being connected with the cause of God and his church, could never be relinquished by their oaths and engagements: That if he and they had erred, in resigning the ecclesiastical privileges, the best atonement they could now make was to retract their consent, which in such a case could never be obligatory, and to follow the Pope's authority, who had solemnly abrogated the constitutions of Clarendon, and had absolved them from all oaths, which they had taken to observe them: That a determined resolution was evidently embraced to oppress the church; the storm had first broke upon him; for a slight offence, and which too was even falsely imputed to him, he had been tyrannically condemned to a grievous penalty; a new and unheard of claim was since started, in which he could expect no justice; and he plainly saw that he was a defined victim, who, by his ruin, must prepare the way for the abrogation of all spiritual immunities: That he

strictly inhibited them, who were his suffragans, to assist at any such trial, or give their assent to any sentence against him; he put himself and his see under the protection of the supreme pontiff; and appealed to him against any penalty, which his iniquitous judges might think proper to inflict upon him: And that, however terrible the indignation of so great a monarch as Henry, his sword could only kill the body; while that of the church, entrusted into the hands of the primate, could kill the soul, and throw the disobedient into infinite and eternal perdition *.

Appeals to the Pope, even in ecclesiastical causes, had been abolished by the constitutions of Clarendon, and were become criminal by law; but an appeal in a civil case, such as that of the King's demand upon Becket, was a practice altogether new and unprecedented; tended directly to the subversion of the government; and could receive no colour of excuse, except from the determined resolution, which was but too apparent, in the King and the great council, to effectuate, without justice, but under colour of law, the total ruin of the inflexible primate. The King, having now obtained so much a better pretext for his violence, would probably have pushed this affair to the utmost extremity against him; but Becket gave him no leisure to conduct that prosecution. He refused so much as to hear the sentence, which the barons, sitting apart from the bishops, and joined to some sheriffs and barons of the second rank †, had given upon the King's claim: He departed from the palace; asked Henry's immediate permission to leave Northampton; and upon meeting with a refusal, he withdrew secretly; wandered about in disguise for some time; and at last took shipping and arrived safely at Gravelines ‡.

The violent and unjust prosecution of Becket had a natural tendency to turn the public favour on his side, and to make men forget his former ingratitude towards the King, and his departure from all oaths and engagements, as well as the enormity of those ecclesiastical privileges, of which he affected to be the champion. There were many other reasons, which procured him countenance and protection in foreign countries. Philip, earl of Flanders §§, and Lewis, King of France §§, jealous of the rising greatness of Henry, were well pleased to give him

* Fitz Steph. p. 42, 44, 45, 46. Hist. Quad. p. 57. Hoveden, p. 495. M. Paris, p. 72. Epift. St. Thom. p. 45, 195. † Fitz-Steph. p. 46. This historian is supposed to mean the more considerable vassals of the chief barons: These had no title to sit in the great council, and the giving them a place there was a palpable irregularity: Which however is not insisted on in any of Becket's remonstrances. A new proof how little fixed the constitution was at that time!
disturbance in his government; and forgetting that this was the common cause of princes. They affected to pity extremely the condition of the exiled primate; and the latter even honoured him with a visit at Soiffons, in which city he had invited him to fix his retreat. The pope, whose interests were more immediately concerned in supporting him, gave a bad reception to a magnificent embassy, which Henry sent to accuse him; while he put the greatest marks of distinction on Becket himself, who had come to Sens, in order to justify his cause before the sovereign pontiff. The King, in revenge, sequestered the revenues of Canterbury; and by a conduct, which might be esteemed arbitrary had there been at that time any regular check on royal authority, he banished all the primate’s relations and domestics, to the number of four hundred, whom he obliged to swear, before their departure, that they would instantly join their patron. But this policy, by which Henry endeavoured to reduce Becket the sooner to necessities, lost its effect: The Pope, as soon as they arrived beyond sea, absolved them from their oath, and distributed them among the convents in France and Flanders: A residence was assigned to Becket himself in the convent of Pontigny, where he lived for some years in great magnificence, partly from a pension granted him on the revenues of that abbey, partly from remittances made him by the French monarch.

The more to ingratiate himself with Pope Alexander, Becket resigned into his hands the see of Canterbury, to which, he affirmed, he had been uncanonically elected, by the authority of the royal mandate; and Alexander in his turn, besides investing him anew with that dignity, pretended to abrogate by a bull the sentence which the great council of England had passed against him. Henry, after attempting in vain to procure a conference with the Pope, who departed soon after for Rome, whither the prosperous condition of his affairs now invited him; made provisions against the consequences of that breach, which impended between his kingdom and the apostolic see. He issued orders to his justiciaries, inhibiting, under severe penalties, all appeals to the Pope or archbishop; forbidding any one to receive any mandates from them, or apply in any case to their authority; declaring it treasonable to bring from either of them an interdict upon the kingdom, and punishable, in secular clergy, by the loss of their eyes, and by castration, in regulars by amputation of their feet, and in laics with death; and menacing with sequestration and banishment the persons themselves, as well as


their
their kindred, who should pay obedience to any such interdict: And he farther obliged all his subjects to swear to the observance of these orders*. These were edicts of the utmost importance, affected the lives and properties of all the subjects, and even changed, for the time, the national religion, by breaking off all communication with Rome: Yet were they enacted by the sole authority of the King, and were derived entirely from his will and pleasure.

The spiritual powers, which, in the primitive church, were, in a great measure, dependant on the civil, had by a gradual progress reached an equality and independance; and tho' the limits of the two jurisdictions were difficult to ascertain or define, it was not impossible, but, by moderation on both sides, government might still have been conducted, in that imperfect and irregular manner which attends all human institutions. But as the ignorance of the age encouraged the ecclesiastics daily to extend their privileges, and even to advance maxims totally incompatible with civil government †; Henry had thought it high time to put an end to their pretensions, and formally, in a public council, to fix those powers, which belonged to the magistrate, and which he was for the future determined to maintain. In this attempt, he was led to recall customs, which, tho' antient ‡, were beginning to be abolished by a contrary practice, and which were still more strongly opposed by the prevailing opinions and sentiments of the age. Principle, therefore, stood on the one side; power on the other; and if the English had been actuated by conscience, more than by present interest, the controversy must soon, by the general defection of Henry's subjects, have been decided against him. Becket, in order to forward this event, filled all places with exclamations against the violence which he had suffered §. He compared himself to Christ, who had been condemned by a lay tribunal ‡‡, and who was crucified anew in the present oppressions under which his church laboured: He took it for granted, as a point incontestible, that his cause was the cause of God; He assumed the character of champion for the patrimony of the Divinity: He pretended to be the spiritual father of the King and all the people of England *; and tho' he had thus torn off the veil more openly on the one side, than that prince had on the other, he seemed still, from the general favour borne him by

† Quis dubitas, says Becket to the King, facerdotis Christi regum et principium omniumque fideliwm pares et magistrorum censeiri. Epist. St. Thom. p. 97, 148.
HENRY II.

the ecclesiastics, to have all the advantage in the argument *. The King, that he might employ the weapons of temporal power remaining in his hands, suspended the payment of Peter's-pence †; he made advances towards an alliance with the Emperor, Frederic Barbarossa, who was at that time engaged in violent wars with Pope Alexander‡; he discovered some intentions of acknowledging Paschal III. the present anti-pope, who was protected by that Emperor §; and by these expedients he endeavoured to terrify the enterprising, tho' prudent pontiff, from proceeding to extremities against him.

But the violence of Becket, still more than the nature of the controversy, kept affairs from remaining long in suspense between the parties. That prelate, instigated by revenge, and animated by the present glory attending his situation, pushed matters to a decision, and issued out a censure, excommunicating the King's chief ministers by name, and comprehending in general all those who favoured or obeyed the constitutions of Clarendon §. These constitutions he abrogated and annulled; he absolved every one from the oaths, which they had taken to observe them; and he suspended the spiritual thunder over Henry himself, only that the prince might avoid the blow by a timely repentance †.

The situation of Henry was so unhappy, that he could employ no expedient for saving his ministers from this terrible censure, but by appealing to the Pope himself, and having recourse to a tribunal, whose authority he had himself attempted to abridge in this very article of appeals, and which, he knew, was so deeply engaged on the side of his adversary *. But even this expedient was not likely to be long effectual. Becket had obtained from the Pope a legatine commission over England †; and in virtue of that authority, which admitted of no appeal ‡; he summoned the bishops of London, Salisbury, and others, to attend him, and ordered, under pain of excommunication, the ecclesiastics, sequestered on his account, to be restored in two months to all their benefices §.

But John de Oxford, the King's agent at Rome, had the address to procure orders for suspending this sentence †; and he gave the pontiff such hopes of a speedy reconciliation between the King and Becket, that two legates, William de Pavie and Otho, were sent to Normandy, where the King then resided, and endeavoured.

voired to find expedients for that purpose*. But the pretensions of the parties were, as yet, too opposite to admit of an accommodation: The King required, that all the constitutions of Clarendon should be ratified†: Becket, that, previously to any agreement, he and his adherents should be restored to their possessions‡: And as the legates had no power to pronounce a definitive sentence on either side, the negotiation soon after came to nothing§. The cardinal de Pavie also, being much attached to Henry's interests, took care to protract the negotiation; to mitigate the Pope, by the accounts which he sent of that prince's conduct; and to procure him every possible indulgence from the see of Rome. It was by his credit, that the King obtained about this time a dispensation for the marriage of his third son, Geoffrey, with the heirress of Brittany; a concession, which, considering Henry's demerits towards the church, gave great scandal both to Becket, and to his patron, the King of France.

The intricacies of the feudal law had, in that age, rendered the boundaries of power between the prince and his vassals, and between one prince and another, as precarious as those between the crown and the mitre; and all wars took their origin from disputes, which, had there been any tribunal possessed of power to enforce their decrees, ought only to have been decided before a court of judicature. Henry, in prosecution of some controversies, in which he was involved with the count of Auvergne, a vassal of the Dutchy of Guienne, had invaded the territories of that count; who had recourse to the King of France, his superior lord, for protection, and thereby kindled a war between the two monarchs. But this war was, as usual, no less feeble in its operations, than it was frivolous in its cause and object; and after occasioning some depredations on each other's territories§, and some insurrections among the barons of Poictou and Guienne, was terminated by a peace; the terms of which were rather disadvantageous to Henry, and prove, that that prince had, by reason of his contests with the church, lost the superiority, which he had hitherto maintained over the crown of France: An additional motive to him for accommodating those differences.

The Pope and the King began to perceive, that, in the present situation of affairs, neither of them could expect a final and decisive victory over the other, and that they had more to fear than hope from the duration of the controversy. Tho' the vigour of Henry's government had confirmed his authority in all his dominions, his throne might be shaken by a sentence of excommunication; and

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Henry II.

If England itself could, by its situation, be more easily guarded against the contagion of superstitious prejudices, his French provinces at least, whose communication was open with the neighbouring states, would be much exposed, on that account, to some great revolution or convulsion. He could not, therefore, reasonably imagine, that the Pope, while he retained such a check upon him, would formally recognize the constitutions of Clarendon, which both put an end to papal pretensions in England, and would give an example to other states of asserting a like independency. Pope Alexander, on the other hand, being still engaged in dangerous wars with the Emperor Frederic, might justly apprehend, that Henry, rather than relinquish claims of such importance, would join the party of his enemy; and as the trials hitherto made of the spiritual weapons by Becket had not succeeded to his expectation, and every thing had remained quiet in all the King’s dominions, nothing seemed impossible to the capacity and vigilance of so great a monarch. The disposition of minds on both sides, resulting from these circumstances, produced frequent attempts towards an accommodation; but as both parties knew, that the essential articles of the dispute could not then be terminated, they entertained a perpetual jealousy of each other, and were anxious not to lose the least advantage in the negotiation. The nuncios, Gratian and Vivian, having received a commission to endeavour a reconciliation, met with the King at Damfront in Normandy; and after all differences seemed to be adjusted, the King offered to sign the treaty, with a salvo to his royal dignity; which gave such umbrage to Becket, that the negotiation, in the end, became fruitless, and the excommunications were renewed against the King’s ministers. Another negotiation was conducted at Montmirail, in the presence of the King of France and the French prelates; where Becket, imitating Henry’s example, offered to make his submissions, with a salvo of the honour of God, and the liberties of the church; which, for a like reason, was extremely offensive to the King, and rendered the treaty abortive. A third conference, under the same mediation, was broke off, by Becket’s insinuating on the like reserve in his submissions; and even in a fourth treaty, when all the terms were adjusted, and when the primate expected to be introduced to the King, and to receive the kiss of peace, which it was usual for princes to grant in those times, and which was regarded as a sure pledge of forgiveness, Henry refused him that honour; upon pretence, that, during his anger, he had made a rash vow not...
ver to give the prelate such a testimony of friendship. This formality served, among such jealous spirits, to prevent the conclusion of the treaty; and tho' the difficulty was attempted to be overcome, by a dispensation which the Pope granted Henry from his rash vow*, that prince could not be prevailed on to depart from the resolution which he had taken.

In one of these conferences, at which the French King was present, Henry said to that monarch, "There have been many kings of England, some of greater, some of less authority than myself; There have also been many archbishops of Canterbury, holy and good men, and entitled to every kind of respect: Let Becket but act towards me with the same submission, which the greatest of his predecessors have paid to the least of mine, and there shall be no controversy between us †." Lewis was so struck with this state of the case, and with an offer which Henry made to submit his cause to the French clergy, that he could not forbear condemning the primate, and withdrawing his friendship from him during some time: But their common animosity against Henry soon produced a renewal of their former good correspondence ‡.

All difficulties were at last adjusted between the parties; and the King allowed Becket to return, on conditions which may be esteemed both honourable and advantageous to that prelate. He was not required to give up any of the rights of the church, or resign any of those pretensions, which had been the original ground of the controversy. It was agreed, that all these questions should be buried in oblivion; but that Becket and his adherents should, without making farther submissions, be restored to all their livings ‡, and that even the possessors of such benefices as depended on the fee of Canterbury, and had been filled during the primate's absence, should be expelled, and Becket have liberty to supply the vacancies §. In return for concessions, which entrenched so deeply on the honour and dignity of the crown, Henry reaped only the advantage of seeing his ministers absolved from the sentence of excommunication denounced against them, and of preventing the interdict, which, if these hard conditions had not been complied with, was ready to be laid on all his dominions †. It was easy to see how much he dreaded that event, when a prince of so high a spirit could submit to terms so dishonourable, in order to prevent it.

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But
HENRY II.

But the King attained not even that temporary tranquillity, which he had hoped to reap from this expedient. During the heat of his quarrel with Becket, while he was every day expecting an interdict to be laid on his kingdom, and even a sentence of excommunication to be denounced against his person, he had thought it prudent to have his son, prince Henry, associated with him in the royalty, and to make him be crowned King, by the hands of Roger archbishop of York. By this precaution, he both ensured the succession of that prince, which, considering the many past irregularities in that point, could not but be esteemed somewhat precarious; and he preserved at least his family on the throne, if the sentence of excommunication should have the effect which he dreaded, and should make his subjects renounce their allegiance to him. Tho' this design was conducted with the utmost expedition and secrecy, Becket, before it was carried into execution, had got intelligence of it; and being desirous to obstruct all Henry's measures, as well as anxious to prevent this affront to himself, who pretended a sole right, as archbishop of Canterbury, to officiate in the coronation, he had inhibited all the prelates in England from assisting at this ceremony, had procured a mandate to the same purpose from the Pope, and had incited the King of France to protest against the coronation of young Henry, unless the princes, daughter of that monarch, should at the same time receive the royal unction. There prevailed in that age an opinion, which was akin to its other superstitions, that the royal unction was essential to the exercise of royal power; and it was therefore natural both for the King of France, careful of his daughter the princes Margaret's establishment, and for Becket, jealous of his own dignity, to demand, in the treaty with Henry, some satisfaction in this essential point. Henry, after apologizing to Lewis for the omission with regard to Margaret, and excusing it on account of the secrecy requisite for conducting that measure, promised that the ceremony should be again renewed in the persons both of the prince and princess. And he assured Becket, that besides receiving the acknowledgments of Roger and the other bishops for the seeming affront put on the see of Canterbury, he should, as a farther satisfaction, recover his rights by officiating in this coronation. But the violent spirit of Becket, elated by the power of the church, and by the victory which he had already obtained over his sovereign, was not content with his voluntary compensation, but resolved to make the injury, which he pretended to have suffered, a handle for taking revenge of all his enemies. On his arrival in


Pp 2 England,
England, he met the archbishop of York and the bishops of London and Salisbury, who were on their journey to the King in Normandy; and he notified to the archbishop the sentence of suspension, and to the two bishops that of excommunication, which, at his solicitation, the Pope had pronounced against them.* Reginald de Warrenne, and Gervase de Cornhill, two itinerant justiciaries, who were making their circuit in Kent, asked him, on hearing of this bold attempt, whether he meant to bring fire and sword into the kingdom †? But the prince, heedless of the reproof, proceeded, in the most ostentatious manner, to take possession of his diocese. In Rochester, and all the towns thro' which he passed, he was received with the shouts and acclamations of the people.§. As he approached Southwark, the clergy, the laity, men of all ranks and ages, came forth to meet him, and celebrated with hymns of joy his triumphant entrance. And tho' he was obliged, by orders of the young prince, who resided at Wodehouse, to return to his diocese, he found that he was not mistaken, when he laid his account with the highest veneration of the public towards his person and his dignity. He proceeded, therefore, with the more courage to launch his spiritual thunders; and he issued the sentence of excommunication against Robert de Broc §, and Nigel de Sackville, with many of the most considerable prelates and ministers, who had assisted at the coronation of the young prince, and had been active in the late persecution of the exiled clergy. This violent measure, by which he, in effect, denounced war against the King himself, is commonly ascribed to the vindictive disposition and imperious character of Becket; but as this prelate was also a man of acknowledged abilities, we are not, in his passions alone, to look for the cause of his conduct, when he proceeded to these extremities against his enemies. His sagacity had led him to discover all Henry's intentions; and he purposed, by this bold and unexpected assault, to prevent the execution of them.

The King, from his experience of the dispositions of his people, was become sensible, that his enterprise had been too bold, in establishing the constitutions of Clarendon, in defining all the branches of royal power, and in endeavouring to extort from the church of England, as well as from the Pope, an express avowal of these disputed prerogatives. Conscious also of his own violence, in attempting to break or subdue the inflexible primate, he was not displeased to undo that measure, which had given his enemies such advantage against him; and he was contented, that the controversy should terminate in that ambiguous manner.


‡ Hoveden, p. 520. Diceto, p. 555.
which was the utmost that princes, in those ages, could hope to attain in their disputes with the see of Rome. Tho’ he dropt, for the present, the prosecution of Becket, he still referred to himself the right of maintaining, that the constitutions of Clarendon, the original ground of the quarrel, were both the antient customs and the present law of the realm: And tho’ he knew, that the papal clergy asserted them to be impious in themselves, as well as abrogated by the sentence of the sovereign pontiff, he proposed, in spite of their clamours, steadily to put these laws in execution*, and to trust to his own ability, and to the course of events, for success in that perilous enterprize. He hoped, that Becket’s experience of a six years exile would, after his pride was fully gratified by his restoration, be sufficient to teach him more reserve in his opposition; or if any controversy arose, he expected thenceforth to engage in a more favourable caufe, and to maintain with advantage, while the primate was now in his power†, the antient and undoubted customs of the kingdom against the usurpations of the clergy. But Becket, determined not to betray the ecclesiastical privileges by his connivance‡, and apprehensive lest a prince of such profound policy, if allowed to proceed in his own way, would probably in the end prevail, resolved to take all the advantage which his present victory gave him, and to disconcert the cautious measures of the King, by the vehemence and rigour of his own conduct∥. Assured of support from Rome, he was little apprehensive of dangers, which his courage taught him to despise, and which, even if attended with the most fatal consequences, would serve only to gratify his ambition and thirst of glory§.

When the suspended and excommunicated prelates arrived at Baieux, where the King then resided, and complained to him of the violent proceedings of Becket, he instantly perceived the consequences; was sensible, that his whole plan of operation was overthrown; foreknew, that the dangerous contest between the civil and spiritual powers, a contest which he himself had first roused, but which he had endeavoured by all his late negotiations and concessions, to appease, must come to an immediate and decisive issue; and he was thence thrown into the most violent commotion*. The archbishop of York remarked to him, that, so long as Becket lived, he could never expect to enjoy peace or tranquillity†; and the King himself, being vehemently agitated, burst forth into an exclamation against his servants, whose want of zeal, he said, had so long left him exposed to the enterprizes of that ungrateful and imperious prelate‡. Four gentlemen of his.


* Fitz-Steph. p. 78. ‡ Gervase, p. 1414. Parker, p. 207.

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a hint for Becket's death,

immediately communicated their thoughts to each other; and swearing to avenge

their prince's quarrel, secretly withdrew from court *. Some menacing expres-

sions, which they had dropt, gave a fufpicion of their deign; and the King
dispatched a messenger after them, charging them to attempt nothing against the

perfon of the primate †: But these orders arrived too late to prevent their fatal

purpose. The four aififfsins, tho' they took different roads to England, arrived

nearly about the fame time at Saltwoode near Canterbury ‡; and being there

joined by some aififfants, they proceeded in great hafte to the archi-epifcopal pa-

lace §. They found the primate, who trusted entirely to the sacrednefs of his

caracter, ver)' slenderly attended; and tho' they threw out many menaces and

reproaches againft him ‡, he was fo incapable of fear, that, without ufing any

precautions againft their violence, he immediately went to Sr. Benedict's church,
to hear vefpers. They followed him thither, attacked him before the altar, and

having cloven his head with many blows, retired without meeting any oppo-

fition ‡. This was the tragical end of Thomas a Becket, a prelate of the moft

lisy, intrepid, and inflexible spirit, who was able to cover, to the world and

probably to himfelf, the enterprizes of pride and ambition, under the difguife of

Sanctity and of zeal for the inte{:ests of piety and religion: An extraordinary per-

fonage, surely, had he been allowed to remain in his firft fitation, and had directed

the vehemence of his character to the support of laiw and justice; instead of

being engaged, by the prejudices of the times, to sacrifice all private duties and

public connexions to ties, which he imagined, or repreffed, as superior to every

civil and political con{ideration. But no man, who enters into the genius of that

age, can reasonably doubt of this prelate's fincerity. The spirit of Superflition

was fo prevalent, that it infallibly caught every carelefs reafoner, much more

every one whose inte{:est, and honour, and ambition, were engaged to support it.

All the wretched literature of the times was infifted on that fide: Some faint

glimmerings of common fenfe might sometimes pierce thro' the thick cloud of

ignorance, or what was worfe, the illusions of perverted fience, which had blot-
ted out the fun, and enveloped the face of nature: But thofe who preferred

themselves untainted from the general contagion, proceeded on no principles

which they could pretend to juftify: They were beholden more to their total

want of infttruction, than to their knowledge, if they still retained fome f hare of


Triver, p. 55. † Fitz-Steph. p. 78, 79. Hift. Quad, p. 120.


understanding ;
understanding: Folly was possessed of all the schools as well as all the churches; and her votaries assumed the garb of philosophers together with the ensigns of spiritual dignities. Throughout that large collection of letters, which bears the name of St. Thomas, we find, in all the retainers of that aspiring prelate, no less than in himself, a most entire and absolute conviction of the reason and piety of their own party, and a disdain of their antagonists; nor is there less cant and grimace in their style, when they address each other, than when they compose manifestos for the perusal of the public. The spirit of revenge, violence, and ambition, which accompanied their conduct, instead of forming a presumption of hypocrisy, are the surest pledges of their sincere attachment to a cause, which so much flattered these domineering passions.

HENRY, on the first report of Becket’s violent measures, had proposed to have him arrested, and had already taken some steps towards the execution of that design: But the intelligence of his murder threw that prince into the utmost consternation, and he was immediately sensible of the dangerous consequences, which he had reason to apprehend from so unexpected an event. An archbishop of reputed sanctity, assassinated before the altar, in the exercise of his function, and on account of his zeal in maintaining ecclesiastical privileges, must attain the highest honours of martyrdom; while his murderer would be ranked among the most bloody tyrants, that ever were exposed to the hatred and detestation of mankind. Interdicts and excommunications, weapons in themselves so terrible, would, he foresew, be armed with double force; when employed in a cause so much calculated to work on the human passions, and so peculiarly adopted to the eloquence of popular preachers and declaimers. In vain would he plead his own innocence, and even his total ignorance of the fact: He was sufficiently guilty, if the church thought proper to esteem him so. And his concurrence in Becket’s martyrdom, becoming a religious opinion, would be received with all the implicit credit, which belonged to the most established articles of faith. These considerations gave the King the most unshaken concern; and as it was extremely his interest to clear himself of all suspicion, he took no care to conceal the depth of his affliction. He shut himself up from the light of day and from all commerce with his servants: He even refused during three days all food and sustenance: The courtiers, apprehending dangerous effects from his despair, were at last obliged to break in upon his solitude; and they employed every topic of consolation, induced him to accept of nourishment, and occupied his leisure in

† Hist. Quad. p. 143.
taking precautions against the consequences, which he so justly apprehended from the murder of the primate.

The point of chief importance to Henry was to convince the Pope of his innocence; or rather to persuade him, that he would reap greater advantages from the submissions of England than from proceeding to extremities against that kingdom. The archbishop of Rouen, the bishops of Worcester and Evreux, with five others of less quality, were immediately dispatched to Rome*, and orders were given them to perform their journey with the utmost expedition. Tho' the name and authority of the court of Rome were so terrible in the remote countries of Europe, which were sunk in profound ignorance, and were entirely unacquainted with its character and conduct; the Pope was so little revered at home, that his inveterate enemies surrounded the gates of Rome itself, and even controuled his government in that city; and the ambassadours, who, from a distant extremity of Europe, carried to him the humble, or rather abject submissions of the greatest potentate of the age, found the utmost difficulty to make their way to him, and to throw themselves at his feet. It was at last agreed, that Richard Barre, one of their number, should leave the rest behind, and run all the hazards of the passage, in order to prevent the fatal consequences which might ensue from any delay, in giving satisfaction to his Holiness. He found on his arrival, that Alexander was already wrought up to the greatest rage against the King, that Becket's partizans were daily simulating him to revenge, that the King of France had exhorted him to fulminate the most dreadful sentence against England‡, and that the very mention of Henry's name before the sacred college was received with every expression of horror and execration||. The Thursday before Easter was now approaching, when it is customary for the Pope to denounce annual curses against all his enemies; and it was expected, that Henry should, with all the preparations peculiar to the discharge of that sacred artillery, be solemnly comprehended in the number §. But Barre found means to appease the pontiff, and to deter him from a measure, which, if it failed of success, could not afterwards be easily recalled: The anathemas were only levelled in general against all the actors, accomplices, and abettors of Becket's murder¶; and the abbot of Valasse, and the archdeacon of Salisbury and Lisieux, with others of Henry's ministers, who soon after arrived, besides maintaining their prince's innocence, made oath before the whole

confistory, that he would stand to the Pope's judgment in the affair, and make every submission, that should be required of him *. The terrible blow was thus artfully eluded; the cardinals Albert and Theodin were appointed legates to examine the cause, and were ordered to proceed to Normandy for that purpose †; and tho' Henry's foreign dominions were already laid under an interdict by the archbishop of Sens, Becket's great partizan ‡, and the Pope's legate in France, the expectation, that the monarch would easily exculpate himself from any concurrence in the guilt, kept every one in suspense, and prevented all the bad consequences, which might be dreaded from that sentence.

The clergy, mean while, tho' their rage was happily diverted from falling on the King, were not idle in magnifying the sanctity of Becket; in extolling the merits of his martyrdom; and in magnifying him above all that devoted tribe, who, in several ages, had, by their blood, cemented the fabric of the temple. Other saints had only borne testimony in their sufferings to the general doctrines of Christianity; but Becket had sacrificed his life to the power and privileges of the clergy; and this peculiar merit challenged, and not in vain, a suitable acknowledgement to his memory. Endless were the panegyrics on his virtues; and the miracles, operated by his relics, were more numerous, more nonfensical, and more impudently attested, than those which ever filled the legend of any confessor or martyr. Two years after his death he was canonized by Pope Alexander ||; a solemn jubilee was established for celebrating his merits; his body was removed to a magnificent shrine, enriched with presents from all parts of Christendom; pilgrimages were performed to obtain his intercession with heaven; and it was computed, that, in one year, above an hundred thousand pilgrims arrived in Canterbury, and paid their devotions at his tomb. It is indeed a mortifying reflection to those who are actuated by the love of fame, so justly denominated the last infirmity of noble minds, that the wisest legislator and most exalted genius, that ever reformed or enlightened the world, can never expect such tributes of praise, as are lavished on the memory of a pretended saint, whose whole conduct was probably, to the last degree, odious or contemptible, and whose industry was chiefly directed to the pursuits of objects pernicious to mankind. It is only a conqueror, a personage no lefs intitled to our hatred, who can pretend to the attainment of equal renown and glory.

It may not be amiss to remark, before we conclude this subject of Thomas a Becket, that the King, during his controversy with that prelate, was on every

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Chap. VIII. occasion more anxious than usual to express his zeal for religion, and to avoid all appearance of a profane negligence on that head. He gave his consent to the imposing a tax on all his dominions for the delivery of the holy land, now threatened by the famous Saladine; and this tax amounted to two-pence a pound for one year, and a penny a pound for the four subsequent*. Almost all the princes of Europe laid a like imposition on their subjects, which received the name of Saladine's tax. During this period, there came over from Germany about thirty heretics of both sexes, under the direction of one Gerard; simple ignorant people, who could give no account of their faith, but declared themselves ready to suffer for the tenets of their master. They made only one convert in England, a woman as ignorant as themselves; yet they gave such umbrage to the clergy, that they were delivered over to the secular arm, and were punished by being burned on the forehead, and then whipped thro' the streets. They seemed to exult in their sufferings, and as they went along, singing the beatitude, Blessed are ye, when men hate you and persecute you †. After they were whipped, they were thrust out almost naked in the midst of winter, and perished thro' cold and hunger; no one daring, or being willing, to give them the least relief.

We are ignorant of the particular principles of these people: For it would be imprudent to rely on the representations left of them by the clergy, who affirm, that they denied the efficacy of the sacraments, and the unity of the church. It is probable, that their departure from the standard of orthodoxy was still more subtile and minute. They seem to have been the first that ever suffered for heresy in England.

As soon as Henry found, that he was in no immediate danger from the thunders of the vatican, he undertook an expedition against Ireland; a design, which he had long projected, and by which he hoped to recover his credit, somewhat impaired in his late transactions with the hierarchy.

HENRY II.

CHAP. IX.

HENRY II.

State of Ireland—Conquest of that island—The King's accommodation with the court of Rome—Revolt of young Henry and his brothers—Wars and insurrections—War with Scotland—Penance of Henry for Becket's murder—William, King of Scotland, defeated and taken prisoner—The King's accommodation with his sons—The King's equitable administration—Crusades—Revolt of prince Richard—Death and character of Henry—Miscellaneous transactions of his reign.

As Britain was first peopled from Gaul, so was Ireland probably from Britain; and the inhabitants of all these countries seem to have been so many tribes of the Celtae, who derive their origin from an antiquity, that lies far beyond the records of any history or tradition. The Irish, from the beginning of time, had been buried in the most profound barbarism and ignorance; and as they were never conquered or even invaded by the Romans, from whom all the western world derived its civility, they continued still in the most rude state of society, and were distinguished only by those vices, to which human nature, not tamed by education nor restrained by laws, is for ever subject. The small principalities, into which they were divided, exercised perpetual rapine and violence against each other; the uncertain succession of their princes was a continued source of domestic convulsions; the usual title of each petty sovereign was the murder of his predecessor; courage and force, tho' exercised in the commission of crimes, were more honoured than any pacific virtues; and the most simple arts of life, even tillage and agriculture, were almost wholly unknown among them. They had felt the invasions of the Danes and the other northern people; but these inroads, which had spread barbarism in the other parts of Europe, tended rather to improve the Irish; and the only towns, which were to be found in the island, had been planted along the coast by the free-booters of Norway and Denmark. The other inhabitants exercised pasturage in the open country; fought protection from any danger in their forests and morasses; and being divided by the fiercest...
fiercest animosities against each other, were still more intent on the means of mutual injury, than on the expedients for common or even for private interest.

Besides many small tribes, there were in the age of Henry II. five principal sovereignties in the island, Munster, Leinster, Meath, Ulster, and Connaught; and as it had been usual for one or the other of these to take the lead in their wars, there was commonly some prince, who seemed, for the time, to act as monarch of Ireland. Roderic O Connor, King of Connaught, was then advanced to this dignity *; but his government, ill obeyed even within his own territory, was not capable of uniting the people in any measures, either for the establishment of order, or for defence against foreigners. The ambition of Henry had, very early in his reign, been moved, by the prospect of these advantages, to attempt the subjection of Ireland; and a pretence was only wanting to invade a people, who, being always confined to their own island, had never given any reason of complaint to any of their neighbours. For this purpose, he had recourse to Rome, which assumed a right to dispose of kingdoms and empires; and not foreseeing the dangerous disputes, which he was one day to maintain with that see, he helped, for present, or rather for an imaginary convenience, to give sanction to claims which were now become dangerous to all sovereignties. Adrian III. who was then pontiff, was by birth an Englishman; and being, on that account, disposed to oblige Henry, he was easily persuaded to act as master of the world, and to make, without any hazard or expense, the acquisition of a great island to his spiritual jurisdiction. The Irish had, by precedent missions from the Britains, been imperfectly converted to Christianity; and what the Pope regarded as the surest mark of their imperfect conversion, they followed the doctrines of their first teachers, and had never acknowledged any subjection to the see of Rome. Adrian, therefore, in the year 1156, issued a bull in favour of Henry; in which, after premising, that that prince had ever shewn an anxious care to enlarge the church of God on earth, and to increase the number of his saints and elect in heaven; he represents his design of subduing Ireland as derived from the same pious motives: He considers his care of applying previously for the apostolic function as a sure earnest of success and victory; and having established it as a point incontestible, that all Christian kingdoms belong to the patrimony of St. Peter, he acknowledges it to be his own duty to sow among them the seeds of the gospel, which might in the last day fructify to their eternal salvation: He exhorts the King to invade Ireland, in order to extirpate the vice and wickedness of the natives, and oblige them to pay yearly, from every house, a penny to the see of Rome: He gives him entire right and authority over the island, com-

* Hoveden, p. 527.
mands all the inhabitants to obey him as their sovereign, and invests with full power all such godly instruments as he should think proper to employ in an enterprise, thus calculated for the glory of God and the salvation of the souls of men.* Henry, tho' armed with this authority, did not immediately put his design in execution; but being detained by more interesting business on the continent, waited for a favourable opportunity of invading Ireland.

DERMOT Macmorrogh, King of Leinster, had, by his licentious tyranny, rendered himself extremely odious to his subjects, who seized with alacrity, the first occasion that offered, of throwing off the yoke, which was become grievous and oppressive to them. This prince had formed a design on Omach, wife of Ororic, King of Meath; and taking advantage of her husband's absence, who, being obliged to visit a distant part of his dominions, had left his Queen secure, as he thought, in an island, surrounded by a bog, he suddenly invaded the place, and carried off the princes†. This exploit, tho' usual among the Irish, and rather esteemed a proof of gallantry and spirit‡, provoked the resentment of the husband; who, having collected forces, and being strengthened by the alliance of Roderic, King of Connaught, invaded the dominions of Dermot, and expelled him from his kingdom. The exiled prince had recourse to Henry, who was at that time in Guienne, craved his assistance to restore him to his sovereignty, and offered, in that case, to hold his kingdom in vassalage of the crown of England. Henry, whose views were already turned towards making acquisitions in Ireland, readily accepted the offer; but being at that time embarrassed by the rebellions of his French subjects, as well as by his disputes with the See of Rome, he declined for the present embarking in the enterprise, and gave Dermot no farther assistance than letters patent, by which he empowered all his subjects to aid the Irish prince in the recovery of his dominions.§ Dermot, supported by this authority, came to Bristol; and after endeavouring, tho' for some time in vain, to engage adventurers in the enterprise, he at last formed a treaty with Richard, surnamed Strongbow, earl of Striguil. This nobleman, who was of the illustrious house of Clare, had impaired his estate by expensive pleasures; and being ready for any desperate undertaking, he promised assistance to Dermot, on condition of his espousing Eva, the daughter of that prince, and being declared heir of all his dominions.§ While Richard was assembling his succours, Dermot went into Wales; and meeting with Robert Fitz-Stephens, constable of Abertive, and Maurice Fitz-Gerald, he also engaged them in his service, and

† Girald Cambr. p. 760.
‡ Spencer, vol. 6.
§ Girald Cambr. p. 761.

obtained
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obtained their promise of invading Ireland. Being now assured of assistance, he returned privately to his own state; and lurking in the monastery of Ferns, which he had founded, (for this ruffian was also a founder of monasteries) he prepared every thing for the reception of his English allies.

The troops of Fitz-Stephens were first ready. That gentleman landed in Ireland with an hundred and thirty knights, sixty esquires, and three hundred archers; but this small body, being brave men, not unacquainted with discipline, and compleatly armed, a thing almost unknown in Ireland, they struck a great terror into the barbarous inhabitants, and seemed to menace them with some great revolution. The conjunction of Maurice de Prendergast, who, about the same time, brought over ten knights and sixty archers, enabled Fitz-Stephens to attempt the siege of Wexford, a town inhabited by the Danes; and after gaining a battle, he made himself master of the place. Soon after, Fitz-Gerald arrived with ten knights, thirty esquires, and a hundred archers; and being joined by the former adventurers, composed a force which nothing in Ireland was able to withstand. Roderic, the chief monarch of the island, was defeated in battle; the prince of Offory was obliged to submit, and give hostages for his peaceable behaviour; and Dermot, not content with being restored to his kingdom of Leinster, projected the dethronement of Roderic, and aspired to the sole dominion of the island.

In prosecution of these views, he sent over a messenger to the earl of Strigul, challenging the performance of his promise, and displaying the mighty advantages which might now be reaped by a small reinforcement of warlike troops from England. Richard, not satisfied with the general allowance given by Henry to all his subjects, went to that prince, then in Normandy; and having obtained a cold or ambiguous permission, prepared himself for the execution of his designs. He first sent over Raymond, one of his retinue, with ten knights and seventy archers, who landing near Waterford, defeated a body of three thousand Irish, that had ventured to attack him; and as Richard himself, who brought over two hundred horse, and an hundred archers, joined, in a few days after, the victorious English, they made themselves masters of Waterford, and proceeded to Dublin, which was taken by assault. Roderic, in revenge, cut off the head of Dermot's son, who had been left as a hostage in his hands; and Richard, marrying Eva, became soon after, by the death of Dermot, master of the kingdom of Leinster, and prepared to extend his dominion over all Ireland. Roderic, and the other Irish princes, were alarmed with the danger; and combining toge-

* Girald Camb. p. 761.
† Girald Camb. p. 761, 762.
‡ Girald Camb. p. 766.
\| Girald Camb. p. 767.
other, besieged Dublin with an army of thirty thousand men: But earl Richard, making a sudden sally at the head of ninety knights, with their followers, put this numerous army to rout, chased them from the field of battle, and pursued them with great slaughter. Nothing in Ireland now dared to oppose themselves to the English *.

Henry, jealous of the progress of his own subjects, sent orders to recall all the English; and he made preparations to attack Ireland in person †: But Richard, and the other adventurers, found means to appease him, by making him the most humble submissions, and offering to hold all their acquisitions in vassalage to his crown ‡. That monarch landed in Ireland at the head of five hundred knights, besides other soldiers; and found the Irish so dispirited by their late misfortunes, that, in a progress which he made thro' the island, he had no other occupation than to receive the homages of his new subjects §. He left most of the Irish chieftains or princes in possession of their antient territories; bestowed some lands on the English adventurers; gave earl Richard the commission of seneschal of Ireland; and after a stay of a few months, returned in triumph into England. By these trivial exploits, scarce worth relating, except for the importance of the consequences, was Ireland subdued, and annexed for ever to the English crown.

The low state of commerce and industry, during those ages, made it impracticable for princes to support regular armies, which might retain the conquered countries in subjection; and the extreme barbarism and poverty of Ireland could still less afford means of bearing this expence. The only expedient by which a durable conquest could then be made or maintained, was by pouring in a multitude of new inhabitants, dividing among them the lands of the vanquished, establishing them in all offices of trust and authority, and thereby transforming the antient inhabitants into a new people. By this policy, the northern invaders of old, and of late the duke of Normandy, had been able to fix their dominion, and to erect kingdoms, which remained stable on their foundations, and were transmitted to the posterity of the first conquerors. But the present state of Ireland rendered that island so little inviting to the English, that only a few of desperate fortunes could be persuaded, from time to time, to transport themselves into it §; and instead of reclaiming the natives from their uncultivated manners, they were gradually assimilated to the antient inhabitants, and degenerated from the customs of their own nation. It was also found requisite to bestow great mil-

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Military and arbitrary powers on the leaders, who commanded a handful of men amid flilh hostile multitudes; and law and equity, in a little time, became as much unknown in the English settlements as they had ever been among the Irish tribes. Palatinates were erected in favour of the new adventurers; independent authority conferred; the natives, never fully subdued, still retained their animosities against the conquerors: Their hatred was retaliated by like injuries; and from these causes, the Irish, during the course of four centuries, remained still savage and untractable; and it was not till the latter end of Elizabeth’s reign, that the island was fully subdued; nor till that of her successor, that it gave hopes of becoming a useful conquest to the English nation.

Besides that the easy and peaceable submission of the Irish left Henry no farther occupation in that island, he was recalled from it by another incident, which was of the last importance to his interests and safety. The two legates, Albert and Theodin, to whom was committed the trial of his conduct in the death of archbishop Becket, were arrived in Normandy; and being impatient of delay, sent him frequent letters, full of menaces, if he protracted any longer the making his appearance before them.* He hastened therefore to Normandy, and had a conference with them at Savigny, where their first demands were so exorbitant, that he broke off the negotiation, threatened to return to Ireland, and bade them do their worst against him. They perceived, that the season was now past for taking advantage of that tragical incident; which, had it been hotly pursued by interdicts and excommunications, was capable of throwing the whole kingdom into cumbustion. But the time, which Henry had happily gained, had contributed to appease the minds of men: The event could not now have the same influence, as when it was recent; and as the clergy had every day looked for an accommodation with the King, they had not opposed the pretensions of his partizans, who had been very industrious in representing to the people his entire innocence in the murder of the primate, and his ignorance of the designs formed by the assassins. The legates, therefore, found themselves obliged to lower their terms; and Henry was so fortunate as to conclude an accommodation with them. He declared upon oath, before the relics of the saints, that so far from commanding or desiring the death of the archbishop, he was extremely grieved when he received intelligence of it: But as the passion which he had expressed on account of that prelate’s conduct, had probably given occasion to his murder, he stipulated the following conditions, as an atonement for the offence. He promised, that he should pardon all such as had been banished for their adherence to Becket, and should restore them to their livings; that the see of Canterbury.

bury should be reinstated in all its antient possessions; that he should pay the temp-
asters a sum of money sufficient for the subsistence of two hundred knights during a year in the holy land; that he should himself take the cross at the Christmas following, and, if the Pope insisted on it, serve three years against the infidels, either in Spain or in Palestine; that he should not insist on the observance of such customs, derogatory to ecclesiastical privileges, as had been introduced in his own time; and that he should not stop appeals to the Pope in ecclesiastical causes, but should content himself with exacting sufficient security of the clergy, who left his dominions to prosecute an appeal, that they should attempt nothing against the rights of his crown. Upon signing these concessions, Henry received absolution from the legates; was confirmed in the grant made by Pope Adrian of Ireland; and nothing proves more strongly the great abilities of this monarch, than his extricating himself, on such easy terms, from so difficult a situation. He had always insisted, that the laws, established at Clarendon, contained not any new claims, but the antient customs of the kingdom; and he was still at liberty, notwithstanding the articles of this agreement, to maintain his pretensions. Appeals to the Pope were indeed permitted by this treaty; but as the King was also permitted to exact reasonable securities from the parties, and might stretch his demands on this head as far as he pleased, he had it virtually in his power to prevent the Pope from reaping any advantage by this seeming concession. And on the whole, the constitutions of Clarendon remained still the law of the realm; tho' the Pope and his legates seem so little to have conceived the King's power to lie under any legal limitations, that they were satisfied with his departing, by treaty, from one of the most momentous articles of these constitutions, without requiring any repeal by the states of the kingdom.

Henry, freed from this dangerous controversy with the ecclesiastics and with the see of Rome, seemed now to have reached the pinnacle of human grandeur and felicity, and to be equally happy in his domestic situation and in his political government. A numerous progeny of sons and daughters gave both lustre and authority to his crown, prevented the dangers of a disputed succession, and repressed all pretensions of the ambitious barons. The King's precaution also, in establishing the several branches of his family, seemed well calculated to prevent all jealousies among the brothers, and to perpetuate the greatness of his family. He had ordered Henry, his eldest son, to be anointed King, and had destined him to be his successor in the kingdom of England, the duchy of Normandy,

and the counties of Anjou, Maine, and Touraine; territories which lay contiguous, and which, by that means, might easily lend to each other mutual assistance, both against intestine commotions and foreign invasions. Richard, his second son, was invested in the duchy of Guisne and county of Poictou; Geoffrey, his third son, inherited, in right of his wife, the duchy of Brittany; and his new conquest of Ireland was destined for the appanage of John, his fourth son. He had also negotiated, in favour of this last prince, a marriage with Adeleis, the only daughter of Humbert, count of Savoy and Maurienne; and was to receive as her dowry very considerable demesnes in Piedmont, Savoy, Breffe, and Dauphiny. But this exaltation of his family excited the jealousy and envy of all his neighbours, who made those very sons whose fortunes he had so anxiously established, the means of imbittering his future life and disturbing his government.

Young Henry, who was rising to man's estate, began to display his character, and aspire to independance: Brave, ambitious, liberal, magnificent, affable; he discovered qualities, which give great lustre to youth; prophetic of a shining fortune; but, unless tempered in mature age with discretion, are the forerunners of the greatest calamities. It is said, that at the time when this prince was anointed King, his father, in order to give greater dignity to the ceremony, officiated at table as one of the retinue; and observed to his son, that never King was more royally served. It is nothing extraordinary, said young Henry to one of his courtiers, if the son of a count should serve the son of a King. This saying, which might pass only for an innocent pleasantry, or even for an oblique compliment to his father, was however regarded as a symptom of his aspiring temper; and his conduct soon after justified the conjecture.

Henry, agreeable to the promise which he had given both to the Pope and the French King, permitted his son to be crowned anew by the hands of the archbishop of Rouen, and associated the princess Margaret, spouse to young Henry, in this ceremony. He afterwards allowed him to pay a visit to his father-in-law at Paris, who took the opportunity of inspiring into the young prince those ambitious sentiments, to which he was naturally but too much inclined. Tho' it had been the constant practice of France, ever since the accession of the Capetian line, to crown the son during the lifetime of the father, without conferring on him any present participation of royalty; Lewis persuaded

his son-in-law, that by this ceremony, which in those ages was deemed so momentous, he had acquired a title to sovereignty, and that the King could not, without injustice, exclude him from immediate possession of the whole, or at least a part of his dominions. In consequence of these extravagant ideas, young Henry, on his return, desired the King to resign to him either the crown of England or the duchy of Normandy; discovered great discontent on the refusal; spoke in the most undutiful terms of his father; and soon after, according to concert, made his escape to Paris, where he was protected and supported by the French monarch.

While Henry was alarmed with this event, and had the prospect of dangerous intrigues, or even of a war, which, whether successful or not, must be extremely calamitous and disagreeable to him, he received intelligence of new misfortunes, which must have affected him in the most sensitive part. Queen Eleanor, who had disgraced her first husband by her gallantries, was no less offensive to her second, by her jealousy; and after this manner, carried to extremity, in the different parts of her life, every circumstance of female weakness. She communicated her discontent against Henry to her two younger sons, Geoffrey and Richard; persuaded them that they were also entitled to present possession of the territories assigned to them; engaged them to fly secretly to the court of France, and was meditating, herself, an escape to the same court, and had even put on man’s apparel for that purpose; when she was seized by orders from her husband, and was thrown into confinement. Thus, Europe saw with astonishment the best and most indulgent of parents at war with his whole family; three boys, scarce arrived at the age of puberty, require a great monarch, in the full vigour of his age and height of his reputation, to dethrone himself in their favour; and several princes not ashamed to support them in these unnatural and absurd pretensions.

Henry, reduced to this perilous and disagreeable situation, had recourse to the court of Rome; and tho’ sensible of the danger attending the interposition of ecclesiastical authority in temporal disputes, applied to the Pope, as his superior lord, to excommunicate his enemies, and by these censures to reduce to obedience his undutiful children, whom he found such a reluctance to punish by the sword of the magistrate. Alexander, well pleased to exert his power in so plausible a

cause, issued the bulls required of him: But it was soon found, that these spiritual weapons had not equal force as when employed in a spiritual controversy; and that the clergy were very negligent in supporting a sentence, which was nowise calculated to promote the immediate interests of their order. The King, after taking this humiliating step, was obliged to have recourse to arms, and to enlist such auxiliaries, as are the usual resource of tyrants, and have seldom been employed by so wise and just a monarch.

The loose government, which prevailed in all the states of Europe, the many private wars carried on among the neighbouring nobles, and the impossibility to enforce any general execution of the laws, had encouraged a tribe of banditti to disturb every where the public peace, to infest the high roads, to pillage the open country, and to brave all the efforts of the civil magistrate, and even the excommunications of the church, which were thundered out against them *. Troops of them were sometimes enlisted in the service of one prince or baron, sometimes in that of another: They often acted in an independant manner, under leaders of their own: The peaceful and industrious inhabitants, reduced to poverty by their ravages, were frequently obliged for subsistence to betake themselves to a like disorderly course of life: And a continual intestine war, pernicious to industry, as well as to the execution of justice, was thus carried on in the bowels of every kingdom †. These desperate ruffians received the name sometimes of Brabançons, sometimes of Routiers or Cottereaux; but for what reason, is not agreed by historians: And they formed a kind of society or government among themselves, which set at defiance all the rest of mankind. The greatest monarchs were not ashamed, on occasion, to have recourse to their assistance; and as their habits of war and devastation had given them experience, hardiness, and courage, they generally composed the most formidable part of those armies, which decided the political quarrels of princes. Several of them were enlisted among the forces levied by Henry's enemies ‡; but the great treasures amassed by that prince enabled him to engage more numerous troops of them in his service; and the situation of his affairs rendered even such banditti the only forces on whose fidelity he could repose any confidence. His licentious barons, disaffected with a vigilant government, were more desirous of being ruled by young princes, ignorant of public affairs, remiss in their conduct, and profuse in their grants §; and as the King had ensured to his sons the succession to every particular province of his dominions, the nobles dreaded no danger in adhering to those who, they knew, must some time become their sovereigns. Prompted by these motives, many of the Norman nobility had deferred to his son Henry; the Breton and Gasccon barons.

rons seemed equally disposed to embrace the quarrel of Geoffrey and Richard*. Disaffection had crept in among the English; and the earls of Leicester and Chester in particular had openly declared against the King†: Twenty thousand Brabançons, therefore, joined to some troops, which he brought over from Ireland, and a few barons of approved fidelity, formed the sole force, with which he proposed to reftit his enemies‡.

Lewis, in order to bind the confederates in a clofer union, summoned at Paris an assembly of the chief vassals of the crown, received their approbation of his measures, and engaged them by oath to adhere to the cause of young Henry.§ That prince in return bound himself by a like tie never to defert his French allies; and having made a new great seal†, he lavishly distributed among them many considerable parts of those territories which he proposed to conquer from his father ‡. Philip, count of Flanders, Matthew, count of Boulogne, his brother, Theobald, count of Blois, Henry, count of Eu, partly moved by the general jealousy which had been excited by Henry's power and ambition, partly allured by the prospect of reaping advantage from the inconsiderate temper and the necessities of the young prince, declared openly in favour of the latter. William, King of Scotland, had also entered into this great confederacy*, and a plan was concerted for a general invasion on different places of the King's extensive and factious dominions.

Hostilities were firft commenced by the counts of Flanders and Boulogne on the frontiers of Normandy. These princes formed the siege of Aumale, which, by the treachery of the count of that name was delivered into their hands §: That nobleman surrendered himself prisoner; and on pretence of thereby paying his ransom, opened the gates of all his other fortresses. The two counts next besieged and made themselves masters of Drincourt: But the count of Boulogne was here mortally wounded in the assault; and this event put some fpop to the progress of the Flemifh arms †.

In another quarter, the King of France, being strongly affifted by his vassals, Wars and in-assembled a great army of seven thousand knights and their followers on horfeback, and a proportionable number of infantry; and carrying young Henry along with

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him, laid siege to Verneuil, which was vigorously defended by Hugh de Lacy and Hugh de Beauchamp, the governors*. After he had lain a month before the place, the garrison, being straitened for provisions, were obliged to capitulate, and they engaged, if not relieved within three days, to surrender the town, and to retire into the citadel. On the last of these days, Henry appeared with his army upon the heights above Verneuil; and Lewis, dreading an assault, sent the archbishop of Sens and the count of Blois to the English camp, and desired that next day should be appointed for a conference, in order to establish a general peace, and terminate the differences between Henry and his sons. The King, who passionately desired this agreement, and suspected no fraud, gave his consent; but Lewis, that morning, obliging the garrison to surrender according to the capitulation, set fire to the place, and began to retire with his army†. Henry, provoked at this artifice, attacked the rear with vigour, put them to rout, committed some slaughter, and took several prisoners. The French army, as their time of service was now expired, immediately dispersed themselves into their several provinces; and left Henry free to prosecute his advantages against his other enemies.

The nobles of Brittany, excited by the earl of Chester and Ralph de Fougeres, were all in arms; but their progress was checked by a body of Brabançons, which the King, after Lewis's retreat, had sent against them. The two armies came to an action near Dol; where the rebels were defeated, fifteen hundred killed on the spot, and the leaders, the earl of Chester and Fougeres, obliged to take shelter in the town of Dol‡. Henry hastened to form the siege of that place, and carried on the attack with such ardour, that he obliged the governor and garrison to surrender themselves prisoners of war§. By these vigorous measures and happy successes, the insurrections were entirely quelled in Brittany; and the King, being thus fortunate in all quarters, willingly agreed to a conference with Lewis, in hopes, that his enemies, finding all their mighty efforts entirely frustrated, would agree to terminate hostilities on some moderate and reasonable conditions.

The two monarchs met between Trie and Gifors; and Henry had the mortification to see his three sons in the retinue of his mortal enemy. As Lewis had no other pretence for war than supporting the claims of thefe young princes, the King made them such offers as children ought to be ashamed to insist on, and could be extorted from him by nothing but his parental affection or by the pre-

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fent necessity of his affairs*. He insisted only on retaining the sovereign authority in all his dominions; but offered young Henry the half of the revenues of England, with some places of suzerainty in that kingdom; or if he rather chose to reside in Normandy, the half of the revenues of that duchy, with all those of Anjou. He made a like offer to Richard in Guienne; he promised to resign all Brittany to Geoffrey; and if these concessions were not deemed sufficient, he agreed to add to them whatever the Pope's legates, who were present, should require of him †. The earl of Leicester was admitted to this negotiation; and either from the impetuosity of his temper, or from a view of breaking off abruptly a conference, which must cover the allies with confusion, he gave vent to the most violent reproaches against Henry, and even put his hand to his sword, as if he meant to attempt some violence upon him. This furious action threw the whole company into confusion, and put an end to the treaty ‡.

The chief hopes of Henry's enemies seemed now to depend on the state of affairs in England, where his authority was exposed to the most imminent danger. One article of young Henry's agreement with his foreign confederates, was, that he should resign Kent, with Dover and all its other fortresses, into the hands of the count of Flanders §; yet so little national or public spirit prevailed among the independant English nobility, so wholly bent were they on the aggrandizement each of himself and his own family, that, notwithstanding this pernicious concession, which must have produced the total ruin of the kingdom, the majority of them had conspired to make an insurrection and to support the prince's pretensions. The King's chief resource lay in the church and the bishops, with whom he was now in perfect agreement; whether that the decency of their character made them ashamed of supporting so unnatural a rebellion, or that they were entirely satisfied with Henry's atonement for the murder of Becket and for his former invasion of ecclesiastical immunities. That prince, however, had resigned none of the essential rights of his crown in the accommodation; he maintained still the same prudent jealousy of the court of Rome; admitted no legate into England, without his swearing to attempt nothing against his royal prerogatives; and he had even obliged the monks of Canterbury, who pretended to a free election on the vacancy, made by the death of Becket, to choose Roger, prior of Dover, in the place of that turbulent prelate §.

The King of Scotland now made an irruption into Northumberland, and committed great devastations; and being opposed by Richard de Lucy, whom Henry Scotland had left guardian of the realm, he retreated into his own kingdom, and agreed

This truce enabled the guardian to march southwards with his army, in order to oppose an invasion, which the earl of Leicesters, at the head of a great body of Flemings, had made upon Suffolk. The Flemings had been joined by Hugh Bigod, who made them masters of his castle of Framingham; and marching into the heart of the kingdom, where they hoped to be supported by Leicesters vassals, they were met by Lucy, who, assisted by Humphrey Bohun, the constable, and the earls of Arundel, Glocester, and Cornwall, had advanced to Farnham with a less numerous, but braver army, to oppose them. The Flemings, who were mostly weavers and other tradesmen (for manufactures were now beginning to be established in Flanders) were broke in an instant; ten thousand of them were put to the sword, the earl of Leicesters was taken prisoner, and the remains of the invaders were glad to compound for a safe retreat into their own country.

This great defeat did not dishearten the malecontents; who, being supported by the alliance of so many foreign princes, and encouraged by the King's own sons, determined to persevere in their enterprize. The earl of Ferrars, Roger de Mowbray, Archetil de Mallory, Richard de Moreville, Hamo de Mascie, together with many friends of the earls of Leicesters and Chester, rose in arms: the fidelity of the earls of Clare and Glocester was suspected; and the guardian, tho' vigorously supported by Geoffrey, bishop of Lincoln, the King's natural son by the fair Rosamond, found it difficult to defend himself on all quarters, from so many open and concealed enemies. The more to augment the confusion, the King of Scotland, on the expiration of the truce, broke into the northern provinces with a vast army of 80,000 men; which, tho' undisciplined and disorderly, and better adapted for committing devastation, than for executing any military enterprize, was become dangerous from the present factious and turbulent spirit of the kingdom. Henry, who had baffled all his enemies in France, and had put his frontiers in a posture of defence, now found England the seat of danger; and he determined by his presence to overawe the malecontents, or by his conduct and courage to subdue them. He landed at Southampton; and knowing the influence of superstition over the minds of the people, he immediately hastened to Canterbury, in order to make atonement to the ashes of Thomas a Becket, and tender his submissions to a dead enemy. So soon as he came within sight of the church of Canterbury, he descended from horseback, walked

barefoot towards it, prostrated himself before the shrine of the saint, remained
in fasting and prayer during a whole day, watched all night the holy reliques;
and not satisfied with this hypocritical devotion towards a man, whose violence
and ingratitude had so long disquieted his government, and had been the object
of his most inveterate animosity, he submitted to a penance, still more singular
and humiliating. He assembled a chapter of the monks, disrobed himself be-
fore them, put a scourge or discipline into each of their hands, and presented his
bare shoulders to the lashes which these ecclesiastics successively inflicted upon
him.* Next day, he received absolution, and departing for London, got soon
after the agreeable intelligence of a great victory which his generals had obtained
over the Scots, and which, being gained on the very day of his absolution, was
regarded as the earnest of his final reconciliation with heaven and with Thomas
a Becket.†

William, King of Scots, tho' repulsed before the castle of Prudhow, and
other fortified places, had been able to commit the most horrible depredations
upon the northern provinces ‡; but on the approach of Ralph de Glanville, the
famous lawyer and judiciary, seconded by Bernard de Bariol, Robert de Stuteville,
Odonel de Umfreveille, William de Vesci, and other northern barons, together
with the gallant bishop of Lincoln, he thought proper to retreat nearer his own
country, and fixed his station at Alnwic. He had here weakened his army ex-
tremely, by sending out numerous detachments in order to extend his ravages;
and he lay absolutely safe, as he imagined, from any attack of the enemy. But
Glanville, informed of his situation, made a hasty and fatiguing march to New-
castle; and allowing his soldiers only a small interval for refreshment, he im-
mediately set out towards evening for Alnwic. He marched that night above
thirty miles; arrived in the morning under cover of a mist near the Scots camp;
and regardles of the great multitude of the enemy, he began the attack with his
small, but determined, body of cavalry. William was living in such supine se-
curity, that he took the English at first for a body of his own ravagers, who
were returning to the camp: But the sight of their banners convincing him of
his mistake, he entered on the action with no more than a body of a hundred horfe,
in confidence, that the numerous army, which surronded him, which surronded him, which surronded him, would soon haften to his relief. He was dismounted on the first shock, and taken prisoner, and taken
prisoner.

brig. p. 408.

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while his troops, hearing of this disaster, fled on all sides with the utmost precipitation*. The disordered ravagers made the best of their way to their own country; and discord arising among them, they proceeded even to mutual slaughter, and suffered more from each other’s sword than from that of the enemy†.

This great and important victory proved at last decisive in favour of Henry, and broke entirely the spirit of the English rebels. The bishop of Durham, who was preparing to revolt, made his submission‡; Hugh Bigod, tho’ he had received a strong reinforcement of Flemings, was obliged to surrender all his castles, and throw himself on the King’s mercy §; no other resource was left to the earl of Ferrers and Roger de Mounbray ₹; the inferior rebels imitating the example, all England was restored to tranquillity in a few weeks; and as the King appeared to lie under the immediate protection of heaven, it was deemed impious any longer to resist him. The clergy exalted anew the merits and powerful intercession of Becket; and Henry, instead of opposing this superstition, plumed himself on the new friendship of that saint, and propagated an opinion which was so favourable to his interests.§

Young Henry, who was ready to embark at Gravelines with the earl of Flanders and a great army, hearing of the suppression of his partizans in England, abandoned all thoughts of the enterprise, and joined the camp of the French King, who, during the absence of old Henry, had made an irruption into Normandy, and had laid siege to Rouen*. The place was defended with great vigour by the inhabitants †; and Lewis, despairing of success by open force, tried to gain the town by a stratagem, which, in that superstitious age, was deemed very little honourable. He proclaimed in his own camp a cessation of arms on pretence of celebrating the festival of St. Laurence; and when the citizens, supposing themselves in safety, were so imprudent as to remit their guard, he proposed to take advantage of their security. Happily some priests had, from mere curiosity, mounted a steeple, where the alarm bell hung; and observing the French camp in motion, they immediately rang the bell, and gave warning to the inhabitants, who ran to their several stations. The French, who, on hearing the bell, hurried to the assalt, had already mounted the walls in several places; but being repulsed by the enraged citizens, were obliged to retreat with considerable loss ‡.


Next
Next day, Henry, who had hastened to the defence of his Norman dominions, passed over the bridge in triumph; and entered Rouen in sight of the French army. The city was now in absolute safety; and the King, in order to brave the French monarch, commanded the gates, which had been walled up, to be opened *; and he prepared to push his advantages against the enemy. Lewis saved himself from this perilous situation by a new piece of deceit, not so justifiable. He proposed a conference for adjusting the terms of a general peace, which, he knew, would be greedily embraced by Henry; and while the King of England trusted to the execution of his promise, he made a retreat with his army into France †.

There was, however, a necessity on both sides for an accommodation. Henry could no longer bear to see his three sons in the hands of his enemy; and Lewis dreaded, lest this great monarch, victorious on all quarters, crowned with glory, and absolute master of his dominions, might take revenge for the many dangers and disquietudes, which the arms, and still more the intrigues of France, had, in his disputes both with Becket and his sons, been able to raise him. After making a cessation of arms, a conference was agreed on near Tours; where Henry granted his sons less advantageous terms than he had formerly proffered; and he received their submissions. The most material of his concessions were some pensions which he stipulated to pay them, and some castles which he granted them for the place of their residence; together with an indemnity to all their adherents, who were restored to their estates and honours ‡.

Of all those who had embraced the cause of the young princes, William, King of Scotland, was the only considerable sufferer, by that invidious and unjust enterprise. Henry delivered from confinement, without exacting any ransom, about nine hundred knights whom he had taken prisoners ‖; but it cost William the antient independancy of his crown as the price of his liberty. He stipulated to do homage to Henry, as his liege lord, for Scotland and all his other dominions; he engaged that all the barons and nobility of his kingdom should also do homage; that the bishops should swear fealty; that both should swear to adhere to the King of England against their native prince, if the latter should break his engagements; and that the fortresses of Edinburgh, Stirling, Berwic, Roxborough, and Jedborough should be delivered into Henry’s hands, till the performance of articles §. This severe and humiliating treaty was executed in its 11th Aug.


full
full rigour. That prince, being released, brought up all his barons, prelates, and abbots; and, they did homage to Henry in the cathedral of York, and acknowledged him and his successors for their superior lord*. The English monarch stretched still farther the rigour of the conditions which he exacted. He engaged the King and states of Scotland to make a perpetual cession of the fortresses of Berwic and Roxborough, and to allow the castle of Edinburgh to remain in his hands for a limited time. This was the first great ascendant which England obtained over Scotland; and indeed the first important event, which had passed between these kingdoms. Few princes have been so fortunate as to gain considerable advantages over their weaker neighbours with less violence and injustice than was practised by Henry against the King of Scotland, whom he had taken prisoner in battle, and who had wantonly engaged in a war, in which all the neighbours of that prince, and even all his own family, were, without provocation, combined against him.

Henry, having thus, contrary to expectation, extricated himself with honour from a situation, in which his throne was exposed to the most imminent danger, occupied himself for several years in the administration of justice, in the execution of the laws, and in guarding against those inconveniences, which either the past convulsions of his state, or the political institutions of that age, unavoidably occasioned. The provisions, which he made, show such a largeness of thought as qualified him to become a legislator: and they were commonly calculated for the future as well as present happiness of his kingdom.

He enacted severe penalties against robbery, murder, false coining, burning houses; and ordained that these crimes should be punished by the amputation of the right hand and right foot†. These punishments were probably esteemed more severe than death: The pecuniary commutation for crimes, which has a false appearance of lenity, had been gradually diffused; and seems to have been entirely abolished by the rigour of these statutes. The superstitious trial by water ordeal, tho' condemned by the church‡, still subsisted; but Henry, ordained, that any man, accused of murder or any heinous felony by the oath of the legal knights of the county, should, even tho' acquitted by the ordeal, be obliged to abjure the realm.§

All advances towards reason and good sense are slow and gradual. Henry, tho' sensible of the great absurdity attending the trial by duel or battle, did not venture to abolish it: He only admitted either of the parties to challenge

a trial by an assize or jury of twelve freeholders*. This method of trial seems to have been very ancient in England, and was fixed by the laws of King Alfred: But the barbarous and violent genius of the age had of late given more credit to the trial by battle, which had become the general method of deciding all important controversies. It was never abolished by law in England, and there is an instance of it so late as the reign of Elizabeth: But the institution revived by this King, being found more reasonable and more suitable to a civilized people, gradually prevailed over it.

The partition of England into four divisions, and the appointment of itinerant justices to go the circuit in each division, and decide the causes in the counties, was another important ordinance of this prince, had a direct tendency to restrain the oppressions of the barons, and to protect the inferior gentry and common people in their property †. These justices were either prelates or considerable nobility; and besides carrying the authority of the King's commission, were able, by the dignity of their own character, to give weight and credit to the laws.

That there might be fewer obstacles to the execution of justice, the King was vigilant in demolishing all the new erected castles of the nobility, in England as well as in his foreign dominions; and he permitted no fortresses to remain in hands, whom he found reason to suspect‡.

But lest the kingdom should be exposed by this demolition of the strong places, the King fixed an assize of arms, by which all his subjects were obliged to put themselves in a situation proper for defending themselves and the realm. Every man, possessed of a knight's fee, was ordained to have for each fee a coat of mail, a helmet, a shield, and a lance; every free layman possessed of goods to the value of sixteen marks, was to be armed in like manner; every one possessed of ten marks was obliged to have an iron gorget, a cap of iron, and a lance; all burgesses were to have a cap of iron, a lance, and a wambais, that is, a coat twilled with wool, tow, or such other materials. It appears, that archery, for which the English were afterwards so renowned, had not, at this time, become very common among them. The spear was the chief weapon employed in battle.

The clergy and the laity were during that age in a strange situation with regard to each other, and such as may seem totally incompatible with a civilized, and indeed with any government. If a clergyman was guilty of murder, he could only be punished by degradation: If he was murdered, the murderer was only expo-

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Fed to excommunication and ecclesiastical censures; and the crime was atoned for by penances and submission. Hence the assassins of Thomas a Becket himself, who were guilty of the most atrocious wickedness, and the most repugnant to the sentiments of that age, lived securely in their own houses, without being called to account by Henry himself, who was so much concerned, both in honour and interest, to punish that crime, and who professed or affected on all occasions the most extreme abhorrence of it. It was not till they found their presence shunned by every one as excommunicated persons, that they were induced to take a journey to Rome, to throw themselves at the Pope's feet, and to submit to the penances imposed upon them: After which, they continued to possess, without molestation, their honours and fortunes, and seem even to have recovered the countenance and good opinion of the public. But as the King, by the constitutions of Clarendon, which he endeavoured still to maintain in force, had subjected the clergy to a trial by the civil magistrate, it seemed but just to give them the protection of that power, to which they were subjected; and it was enacted, that the murderers of clergymen should be tried before the judiciary in the presence of the bishop or his official; and besides the usual punishment for murder, should be subjected to a forfeiture of their estates, and a confiscation of their goods and chattels.

The King passed a very equitable law, that the goods of a vassal shall not be seized for the debt of his lord, unless the vassal be surety for the debt; and that the rents of vassals shall be paid to the creditors of the lord, not to the lord himself. It is remarkable, that this law was enacted by the King in a council which he held at Verneuil, and which consisted of some prelates and barons of England, as well as some of Normandy, Poitou, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, and Brittany; and the statute took place in all these different territories. A certain proof how irregular the ancient feudal government was, and how near the Kings, in some instances, approached to despotism, tho' in others they seemed scarce to possess any authority. If a prince, much dreaded and revered like Henry, obtained but the appearance of general consent to an ordinance, which was equitable and just, it became immediately an established law, and all the world acquiesced in it. If the prince was hated or despised; if the nobles who supported him, had small influence; if the humours of the times disposed the people to question the justice of his ordinances; the fullest and most authentic council had no au-

† Chron. Gerv. p. 4433.
authority. Thus all was confusion and disorder; no regular ideas of a constitution prevailed; force and violence decided every thing.

The success which had attended Henry in his wars did not encourage his neighbours to attempt anything against him; and his transactions with them, during the remainder of his reign, contain little memorable. Scotland remained in that state of feudal subjection, to which he had reduced it; and gave him no farther inquietude. He sent over his fourth son, John, into Ireland, with a view of making a more complete conquest of that island; but the petulance and incapacity of this prince, by which he enraged the Irish chieftains, obliged him soon after to recall him. The King of France had fallen into a very abject superstitition; and was induced by a devotion, more sincere than that of Henry, to make a pilgrimage to the tomb of Becket, in order to obtain his intercession for the recovery of Philip, his eldest son. He probably thought himself well intitled to the favour of that saint, on account of their antient intimacy; and hoped, that Becket, whom he had protected while on earth, would not now, that he was so highly advanced in heaven, forget his old friend and benefactor. The monks, sensible that their saint's honour was concerned in the case, failed not to publish, that Lewis's prayers were answered, and that the young prince was, by Becket's intercession, restored to health. That king himself was soon after struck with an apoplexy, which deprived him of his judgment; Philip, tho' a youth of fifteen, took on him the administration, till his father's death, which happened soon after, opened his way to the throne; and he proved the ablest and greatest monarch that had governed that kingdom, since the age of Charlemagne. The superior years, however, and experience of Henry, while they moderated his ambition, gave him such an ascendant over this prince, that no dangerous rivalry, for a long time, arose between them. The English monarch, instead of taking advantage of his situation, rather employed his good offices to compose the quarrels which arose in the royal family of France; and he was successful in mediating a reconciliation between Philip and his mother and uncles. These services were but ill requited by Philip, who, when he came to man's estate, fomented all the domestic discords in the royal family of England, and encouraged Henry's sons in their ungrateful and undutiful behaviour towards him.

Young Henry, equally impatient of obtaining power, and incapable of using it, renewed his demand to the King, of resigning Normandy; and on meeting...

with a refusal, he fled with his spouse to the court of France: But not finding Philip disposed to enter into war for his sake, he accepted of his father's offers of reconciliation, and made his submissions. It was a cruel circumstance in the King's fortune, that he could hope for no tranquillity from the criminal enterprises of his sons but by their mutual discord and animosities, which disturbed his family, and threw his state into convulsions. Richard, whom he had made master of Guienne, and who had displayed his valour and military genius, by suppressing the revolts of his mutinous barons, refused to obey Henry's orders in doing homage to his elder brother for that duchy; and he defended himself against young Henry and Geoffrey, who, uniting their arms, carried war into his territories*. The King with some difficulty composed this difference; but immediately found his eldest son engaged in conspiracies, and ready to take arms against him. While the young prince was conducting these criminal designs, he was seized with a fever at Martel, a castle near Turenne, to which he had retired in discontent; and seeing the approach of death, he was at last struck with remorse for his undutiful behaviour towards his father. He sent a messenger to the King, who was not far distant; expressed his contrition for his faults; and entreated the favour of a visit, that he might at least die with the satisfaction of having received his forgiveneas. Henry, who had so often experienced the prince's ingratitude and violence, apprehended that this sickness was entirely a feint, and he dared not to entrust himself into his son's hands †: But when he soon after received intelligence of young Henry's death, and the proofs of his sincere repentance, this good prince was affected with the deepest sorrow; he thrice fainted away; he accused his own hard-heartedness in refusing the dying request of his son; and he lamented, that he had deprived that prince of the last opportunity of making atonement for his offences, and of pouring out his soul in the bosom of his reconciled father ‡. Young Henry died in the twenty-eighth year of his age. The behaviour of his surviving children was ill calculated to give the King any consolation for this loss. As prince Henry had left no posterity, Richard was become the heir of all his dominions; and the King intended, that John, his third surviving son and favourite, should inherit Guienne as his appanage: But Richard refused his consent, fled into that duchy, and even made preparations for carrying on war, as well against his father as against his brother Geoffrey, who was now put in possession of Brittany. Henry sent for Eleanor, his Queen, the heiress of Guienne, and required Richard to deliver up to her the dominion.
dominion of these territories; which that prince, either dreading an insurrection of the Galcons in her favour, or retaining some sense of duty towards her, readily performed; and he returned peaceably to his father's court. No sooner was this quarrel accommodated, than Geoffrey, the most vicious perhaps of all Henry's unhappy family, broke out into violence; demanded Anjou to be annexed to his dominions of Brittany; and on meeting with a refusal, fled to the court of France, and levied armies against his father*. Henry was freed from this danger by receiving the affliction of his son's death, who was slain in a tournament at Paris†. The widow of Geoffrey, soon after his decease, was delivered of a son, who received the name of Arthur, and was invested in the duchy of Brittany, under the guardianship of his grandfather, who, as duke of Normandy, was also superior lord of that territory. Philip, as lord paramount, disputed some time his title to this wardship; but was obliged to yield to the inclinations of the Bretons, who preferred the government of Henry.

But the rivalry among these potent princes, and all their inferior interests, Crusades, seemed now to have given place to the general passion for the relief of the holy land, and the expulsion of the Saracens. These infidels, tho' obliged to yield to the immense inundation of Christians in the first crusade, had recovered courage after the torrent was past; and attacking on all quarters the settlements of the Europeans, had reduced them to great difficulties, and obliged them to apply again for succours from the west. A second crusade, under the Emperor Conrad, and Lewis VII. King of France, in which there perished above 200,000 men, brought them but a temporary relief; and these princes, after losing such immense armies, and seeing the flower of their nobility fall by their side, returned with little honour into Europe. But these repeated misfortunes, which drained the western world of its people and treasure, were not yet sufficient to cure men of their passion for these spiritual adventures; and a new incident rekindled with fresh fury the zeal of the ecclesiastics and military adventurers of the Latin Christians. Saladin, a prince of great generosity, bravery, and conduct, having fixed himself on the throne of Egypt, began to extend his conquests over all the East; and finding the settlements of the Christians in Palestine an invincible obstacle to the progress of his arms, he bent the whole force of his policy and valour to subdue that small and barren, but important territory. Taking advantage of dissensions, which prevailed among the champions of the cross, and having secretly gained the count of Tripoli, who commanded their armies, he invaded the frontiers with a mighty power; and, aided by the treachery of that count,

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1187. gained at Tiberiade a complete victory over them, which utterly annihilated the
force of the already languishing kingdom of Jerufalem. The holy city itself fell
into his hands after a feeble refi{rance; the kingdom of Antioch was almost en-
tirely subdued; and except some maritime towns, nothing of importance remain-
ed of thofe boasted conquests, which, near a century before, had cost the efforts
of all Europe to acquire*.

The western Chriftians were a{tonifhed on receiving this difmal intelligence.
Pope Urban III. it is pretended, died of grief; and his fucces{or, Gregory VIII.
employed the whole time of his fhort pontificate in rouzing to arms all the Chri-
tians who acknowledged his authority. The general cry was, that they were
unworthy of enjoying any inheritance in heaven, who did not vindicate from the
dominion of the infidels the inheritance of God on earth, and deliver from flav­ery
that country which had been confecrate by the footfteps of their Saviour. Wil­liam,
archbishop of Tyre, having procured a conference between Henry and
Philip near Gifors, enforced all these topics; gave a pathetic defcription of the
miferable state of the eastern Chriftians; and employed every topic to excite the
rufling paftions of the age, fuperftition and jealoufy of military honour †. The
two monarchs immediately took the crofs; many of their moft con{iderable vaf­
fals imitated the example ‡; and as the Emperor Frederic I. entered into the
fame confederacy, fome well-grounded hopes of fucces{ were entertained; and
men flattered themselves, that an enterprize, which had failed under the confduc­
t of many independant chieftains, or of weak princes, might at laft, by the efforts
of fuch potent and able monarchs, be brought to a happy issue.

The Kings of France and England impofed a tax, amounting to the tenth of
all moveable goods, on fuch as remained at home ‡; but as they exempted from
this burden moft of the regular clergy, the fecular aspired to the fame privilege;
pretended that it was only their duty to affift the cru{ade with their prayers; and
it was with fome difficulty they were obliged to defift from an oppofition, which
in them, who had been the chief intigators to thofe pious enterprizes, appeared
with the worft grace imaginable §. This backwardnefs of the clergy is perhaps
a fymptom, that the enthufiaftic ardour, which had at firft feized the people for
cru{ades, was now considerably abated by time and ill fucces{s; and that the frenzy
was chiefly {upported by the military genius and love of glory in the great mo­
narchs.

But before this great machine could be put in motion, there were ftil{ many
ob{acles to fummount. Philip, jealous of Henry's greatnefs, entered into


a pri-
private confederacy with young Richard, and working on his ambitious and impatient temper, persuaded him, instead of supporting and aggrandizing that monarchy, which he was one day to inherit, to seek present power and independance, by disturbing and dismembering it. In order to give a pretence for hostilities between the two Kings, Richard broke into the territories of Raymond, count of Tholouse, who immediately carried his complaints of this violence before the King of France as his superior lord. Philip remonstrated with Henry; but received for answer, that Richard had confessed to the archbishop of Dublin, that his enterprise against Raymond had been undertaken by the approbation of Philip himself, and was conducted by his authority. The King of France, who might have been covered with shame and confusion by this detection, still prosecuted his design, and broke into the provinces of Berri and Auvergne, under colour of revenging the quarrel of the count of Tholouse. Henry retaliated by making inroads upon the frontiers of France, and burning Dreux. As this war, which destroyed all hopes of success in the projected crusade, gave great scandal, the two Kings held a conference at the accustomed place between Gisors and Trie, in order to find means of accommodating their differences: They separated on worse terms than before; and Philip, to show his disgust, ordered a great elm, under which the conferences had been usually held, to be cut down; as if he had renounced all desire of accommodation, and was determined to carry the war to extremity against the King of England. But his own vassals refused to serve under him in so invidious a cause; and he was obliged to come anew to a conference with Henry, and to offer terms of peace. These terms were such as entirely opened the eyes of the King of England, and fully proved to him the perfidy of his son, and his secret alliance with Philip, of which he had before only entertained some suspicions. The King of France required, that Richard should be crowned King of England in the lifetime of his father, should be invested in all his transmarine dominions, and should be immediately married to Alice, Philip's sister, to whom he had formerly been contracted, and who had been already conducted into England. Henry had experienced such fatal effects, both from the crowning his eldest son, and from that prince's alliance with the royal family of France, that he rejected these terms; and Richard, in consequence of his secret agreement with Philip, immediately revolted from him, did homage to the King of France for all the dominions which Henry held of that crown, and received the investitures, as if he had already been the lawful proprietor. Some

historians assert, that Henry himself had become enamoured of young Alice, and assign this as an additional reason for his refusing these conditions: But he had so many other just and equitable motives for his conduct, that it is needless to seek for a cause, which the great prudence and advanced age of that monarch render somewhat improbable.

Cardinal Albano, the Pope’s legate, displeased with these increasing obstacles to the crusade, excommunicated Richard, as the chief spring of discord: But the sentence of excommunication, which, when it was properly prepared, and was zealously supported by the clergy, had often great influence in that age, proved entirely ineffectual in the present case. The chief barons of Poitou, Guienne, Normandy, and Anjou, being attached to the young prince, and seeing that he had now received the investiture from their superior lord, declared for him, and made inroads into the territories of such as still adhered to the old King. Henry, disquieted by the daily revolts of his mutinous subjects, and dreading still worse effects from their turbulent disposition, had again recourse to papal authority; and engaged the cardinal Anagni, who had succeeded Albano in the legateship, to threaten Philip with laying an interdict on all his dominions. But Philip, who was a prince of great vigour and capacity, despised the menace; and told Anagni, that it belonged not to the Pope to interpose in the temporal disputes of princes, much less in those between him and his rebellious vassals. He even proceeded so far as to reproach the cardinal with partiality, and with receiving bribes from the King of England; while Richard, still more outrageous, offered to draw his sword upon the legate, and was only hindered by the interposition of the company, from committing violence upon him.

The King of England was now obliged to defend his dominions by arms, and to enter on a war with France and with his eldest son, a prince of great valour, on such disadvantageous terms. Ferté-Barnard fell first into the hands of the enemy: Mans was next taken by assault; and Henry, who had thrown himself into that place, escaped with some difficulty: Amboise, Chaumont, and Chateau de Loire, opened their gates on the appearance of Philip and Richard: Tours was invested; and the King, who had retired to Saumur, and had daily instances of the cowardice or infidelity of his governors, expected the most dismal issue to all his enterprizes: While he was in this state of despondency, the duke of Burgundy, the count of Flanders, and the archbishop of Rheims interposed with their good offices; and the intelligence, which he received of the taking Tours, and which made him fully sensible of the desperate situation of his affairs, so subdued

his spirit, that he submitted to all the rigorous terms, which were imposed upon him. He agreed, that Richard should marry the princess, Alice; that that prince should receive the homage and oath of fealty of all his subjects both in England and his transmarine dominions; that he himself should pay twenty thousand marks to the King of France as a compensation for the charges of the war; that his own barons should engage to make him observe this treaty by force, and in case of his violating it, should promise to join Philip and Richard against him; and that all his vassals, who had entered into confederacy with Richard, should receive an indemnity for this offence.

But the mortification, which Henry, who had been accustomed to give the law in most treaties, received from these disadvantageous and humiliating terms, was the least which he met with on this occasion. When he demanded a list of those barons, to whom he was to grant a pardon for their connexions with Richard; he was astonished to find, at the head of them, the name of his second son, John; who had always been his favourite, whose interests he had ever anxiously at heart, and who had even, on account of his ascendant over him, often excited the jealousy of Richard. This unhappy father, already overloaded with cares and sorrows, finding this last disappointment in his domestic tenderness, broke out into expressions of the utmost despair, cursed the day in which he received his miserable being, and bestowed, on his ungrateful and undutiful children, a malediction, which he never could be prevailed on to retract. The more his heart was disposed to friendship and affection, the more he resented the barbarous return, which his four sons had successively made to his parental care; and this finishing blow, by depriving him of every comfort in life, quite broke his spirits, and threw him into a lingering fever, of which he soon after expired, at the castle of Chinon near Saumur. His natural son, Geoffrey, who alone had behaved dutifully towards him, attended his corpse to the nunnery of Fontevrault. Death, where it lay in state in the abbey-church. Next day, Richard, who came to visit the dead body of his father, and who, notwithstanding his criminal conduct, was not altogether devoid of generosity, was struck with horror and remorse at the sight; and as the attendants observed, that, at that very instant, blood gushed out of the mouth and nostrils of the corpse, he exclaimed, according to a vulgar superstition, that he was his father's murderer; and he expressed a deep sense, tho' too late, of that undutiful behaviour, which had brought his parent to an untimely grave.

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Thus.
Thus died, in the fifty-eighth year of his age and thirty-fifth of his reign, the greatest prince of his time for wisdom, virtue and ability, and the most powerful in extent of dominion of all those that had ever filled the throne of England. His character, both in public and private life, is almost without a blemish; and he seems to have possessed every accomplishment both of body and mind, which makes a man either estimable or amiable. He was of a middle stature, strong and well-proportioned; his countenance was lively and engaging; his conversation affable and entertaining; his elocution easy, persuasive, and ever in command. He loved peace, but possessed both bravery and conduct in war; was provident without timidity; severe in the execution of justice, without rigour; and temperate without avarice. He preferred health, and kept himself from corpulence, to which he was somewhat inclined, by an abstemious diet, and by frequent exercise, particularly hunting. When he could enjoy leisure, he recreated himself either in learned conversation or in reading; and he cultivated his natural talents by study, above any prince of his time. His affections, as well as his enemies, were warm and durable; and his long experience of the ingratitude and infidelity of men never destroyed the natural sensibility of his temper, which disposed him to friendship and society. His character has been transmitted to us by many writers, who were his contemporaries; and it resembles extremely, in its most remarkable strokes, that of his maternal grandfather Henry I: Excepting only that ambition, which was a ruling passion in both, found not in the first Henry such unexceptionable means of exerting itself, and pushed that prince into measures, which were both criminal in themselves, and were the cause of farther crimes, from which his grandson's conduct was happily exempted.

This prince, like most of his predecessors of the Norman line, except Stephen, passed more of his time on the continent than in this island: He was surrounded with the English gentry and nobility, when abroad: The French gentry and nobility followed him when he resided in England: Both nations acted in the government, as if they were the same people; and on many occasions, the legislatures seem not to have been distinguished. As the King and English barons were all of them of French extraction, the manners of that people acquired the ascendant, and were regarded as the great models of imitation. All foreign improvements, therefore, such as they were, in literature and politeness, in laws and arts, seem now to have been, in a good measure, transplanted into England; and that nation was become nowise inferior, in all the fashionable accomplishments, to any of its neighbours on the continent. The more homely,
but more sensible manners and principles of the Saxons were exchanged for the affectations of chivalry, and the subtleties of school philosophy: The feudal ideas of civil government, the Romish sentiments of religion, had taken entire possession of the people: By the former, the sense of submission towards princes was somewhat diminished in the barons; by the latter, the devoted attachment to papal authority was much augmented among the clergy. The Norman and other foreign families, established in England, had now struck deep root; and being entirely coalesced with the people, whom at first they oppressed and despised, they no longer thought, that they needed the protection of the crown for the enjoyment of their fortunes, or considered their tenure as precarious and dependant. They aspired to the same liberty and independance, which they saw enjoyed by their brethren on the continent, and desired to restrain those exorbitant prerogatives and arbitrary practices, which the necessities of war and the violence of conquest had at first obliged them to indulge in their monarch. That memory also of a more equal government under the Saxon princes, which still remained with the English, diffused still farther the spirit of liberty, and made the barons both desirous of more independance to themselves, and willing to indulge it to the people. And it was not long before this secret revolution in the sentiments of men produced first violent convulsions in the state, and then an evident alteration in the maxims of government.

The history of all the preceding Kings of England since the Conquest, give evident proofs of the disorders attending the feudal government; the licentiousness of the barons, their spirit of rebellion against the prince and laws, and of animosity against each other: The conduct of the barons in the transmarine dominions of those monarchs afforded perhaps still more flagrant instances of these convulsions; and the history of France, during several ages, conflicts almost entirely of narrations of this nature. The cities, during the continuance of this violent government, could neither be very populous nor numerous; and there occur instances, which seem to prove, that, tho' these are always the first seat of law and liberty, their police was in general very loose and irregular, and exposed to the same disorders, with those by which the country was generally infested. It was a custom in London for great numbers, to the amount of a hundred or more, of the sons and relations of eminent citizens, to form themselves into a licentious confederacy, to break into rich houses and plunder them, to rob and murder the passengers, and to commit with impunity all sorts of disorder. By these crimes, it had become so dangerous to walk the streets a-nights, that the citizens dared no more to venture abroad after sunser, than if they were exposed to the incursions of a public enemy. The brother of the earl of Ferrars had been murdered
murdered by some of these nocturnal rioters; and the death of a person of that
noble birth, which was much more regarded than that of many thousands of an
inferior station, so provoked the King, that he swore vengeance against the crimi­
nals, and became thenceforth much more rigorous in the execution of the laws *.

There is another instance given by historians, which proves to what a height
such riots had proceeded, and how open these criminals were in committing their
robberies. A band of them had attacked the house of a rich citizen, with an
intention of plundering it; had broke thro' a stone-wall with hammers and
wedges; and had already entered the house sword in hand; when the citizen,
amined cap-a-pee and supported by his faithful servants, appeared in the passage
to oppose them: He cut off the right-hand of the first robber that entered; and
made such stout resistance, that his neighbours had leisure to assemble, and come
to his relief. The man, who lost his hand, was caught; and was tempted by
the promise of pardon to reveal his confederates; among whom was one John
Senex, esteemed among the richest and best born citizens of London. He was
convicted by the ordeal trial; and tho' he offered five hundred marks for his life,
the King refused the money, and ordered him to be hanged.

Henry's exactness in administering justice had gained him so great reputation,
that even foreign and distant princes made him an arbiter, and submitted their
differences to his judgment. Sanchez, King of Navarre, having some contro­
versies with Alfonzo, King of Castile, was contented, tho' Alfonso had married
the daughter of Henry, to choose that prince for a referee; and they agreed,
each of them, to confign three castles into neutral hands, as a pledge of their not
departing from his award. Henry made the cause be examined before his great
council, and gave a sentence, which was willingly submitted to by both parties.
These two Spanish Kings sent each a stout champion to the court of England, in
order to defend his cause by arms, in case the way of duel had been chosen by
Henry.

Henry so far abolished the barbarous and absurd practice of forfeiting ships,
which had been wrecked on the coast, that if one man or animal was alive in the
ship, the vessel and goods were restored to the owners.

The reign of Henry was remarkable for an innovation, which was afterwards
carried farther by his successors, and was attended with the most important con­
sequences to the government. This prince was disgusted with the species of
military force, which was established by the feudal institutions, and which tho' it

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† Bened. Abb. 197, 198.
|| Rymer, vol. i. p. 36.

was
was extremely burdensome to the subject, yet rendered very little service to
the sovereign. The barons, or military tenants, came late into the field; they
were obliged to serve only for forty days; they were unskilful and disorderly
in all their operations; and they were apt to carry into the camp the same refrac-
tory and independant spirit, to which they were accustomed in their civil govern-
ment. Henry, therefore, introduced the practice of making a commutation
of their military service for money; and he levied scutages from his baronies
and knights fees, instead of requiring the personal attendance of his vaftals.

There is mention made, in the history of the exchequer, of these scutages in his
second, fifth, and eighteenth year*; and other writers give us an account of
three more of them †. When the prince had thus obtained money, he made a
contract with some of those adventurers, in which Europe at that time abound-
ed: They found him soldiers of the same character with themselves, who were
bound to serve for a stipulated time: The armies were much less numerous, but
more useful, than when composed of all the military vaftals of the crown: The
feudal institutions began to relax: The Kings became rapacious for money, on
which all their power depended: The barons, seeing no end of exactions, fought
to defend their property: and as the same causes had nearly the same effect in
the different countries of Europe, the several crowns either lost or acquired au-
tority, according to their different success in this struggle.

This prince was also the first who levied a tax on the moveables or personal
estates of his subjects, nobles as well as people. Their zeal for the holy wars
made them submit to this innovation; and a precedent being once obtained, this
taxation became, in following reigns, the usual method of supplying the necessi-
ties of the crown. The tax of Danegelt, so generally odious to the nation, was
remitted in this reign.

It was an usual practice of the Kings of England, to repeat the ceremony of
their coronation thrice a-year, on assembling the states at the three great festivals.
Henry, after the first years of his reign, never renewed this ceremony, which
was found to be very expensive and very useless. None of his successors ever re-
vived it. It is deemed a great act of grace in this prince, that he mitigated the
rigor of the forest laws, and punished any transgressions of them, not capital,
but by fines, imprisonments, and other more moderate penalties.

Since we are here collecting some detached instances, which shew the genius
of the age, and which could not so well enter into the body of the history, it
may not be amiss to mention the quarrel between Roger archbishop of York, and


Vol. I. U u Richard
Richard archbishop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when ecclesiastics could proceed to such extremities. Cardinal Haguezun being sent, in 1176, as legate into Britain, summoned an assembly of the clergy at London; and as both the archbishops pretended to sit on his right hand, this question of precedence begot a controversy between them. The monks and retainers of archbishop Richard fell upon Roger, in the presence of the cardinal and of the synod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and so bruised him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was, with difficulty, saved from their violence. The archbishop of Canterbury was obliged to give a large sum of money to the legate, in order to suppress all complaints of this enormity.

This King left only two legitimate sons, Richard, who succeeded him, and John, who inherited no territory, tho' his father had often intended to leave him a part of his extensive dominions. He was thence commonly denominated Lackland. Henry left three legitimate daughters; Maud, born in 1156, and married to Henry, duke of Saxony; Eleanor, born in 1162, and married to Alphonso, King of Castile; Joan, born in 1165, and married to William, King of Sicily.

Henry is said by antient historians to have been of a very amorous disposition; and they mention two of his natural sons by Rosamond, daughter of lord Clifford, viz. Richard Longespée, or Long-sword, (so called from the sword he usually wore) who was afterwards married to Ela, the daughter and heiress of the earl of Salisbury; and Geoffrey, first bishop of Lincoln, and then archbishop of York. All the other circumstances of the story commonly told of that lady seem to be fabulous.

† Diceto, p. 616.
THE compunction of Richard, for his undutiful behaviour towards his father, was very durable, and influenced him in the choice of his ministers and servants after his accession. Those who had seconded and favoured his rebellion, instead of meeting with that honour and trust which they expected, were surprised to find, that they lay under disgrace with the new King, and were on all occasions hated and despised by him. The faithful ministers of Henry, who had vigorously opposed all the enterprizes of his sons, were received with open arms, and were continued in those employments, which they had honourably discharged to their former master. This prudent conduct might be the result of reflection; but in a prince, like Richard, so much guided by passion, and so little by policy, it was commonly ascribed to a principle still more virtuous and more honourable.

Richard, that he might make atonement to one parent for his breach of duty to the other, immediately sent orders for releasing the Queen-dowager from the confinement in which she had been so long detained; and he entrusted her with the government of England, till his arrival in that kingdom. His bounty to his brother John was rather profuse and imprudent. Besides bestowing on him the county of Mortaigne in Normandy, granting him a pension of four thousand marks a-year, and marrying him to Avifa, the daughter of the earl of Gloucester, by whom he inherited all the possessions of that opulent family; he increased this


appanage, which the late King had defined him, by other extensive grants and concessions. He conferred on him the whole estate of William Peverell, which had escheated to the crown: He put him in possession of eight castles, with all the forests and honours annexed to them: He delivered over to him no less than six earldoms, Cornwall, Devon, Somerset, Nottingham, Dorset, Lancaster and Derby: And endeavouring, by favours, to fix that vicious prince in his duty, he put it too much in his power, whenever he pleased, to depart from it.

The King, impelled more by the love of military glory than by superstition, acted, from the beginning of his reign, as if the sole purpose of his government had been the relief of the holy land, and the recovery of Jerusalem from the Saracens. This zeal against infidels, being communicated to his subjects, broke out in London on the day of his coronation, and made them find a crusade less dangerous, and attended with more immediate profit. The prejudices of the age had made the lending of money on interest pass by the invidious name of usury; yet the necessity of the practice had still continued it, and the greatest part of that kind of dealing fell every where into the hands of the Jews; who, being already infamous on account of their religion, had no honour to lose, and were apt to exercise a profession, odious in itself, by every kind of rigor, and even sometimes by rapine and extortion. The industry and frugality of that people had put them in possession of all the ready money, which the idleness and profuse of the English, as well as of other European nations, enabled them to lend on exorbitant and unequal interest. The monkish writers represent it as a great stain on the wise and equitable government of Henry, that he had carefully protected this infidel race from all injuries and insults; but the zeal of Richard afforded the populace a pretence for exercising their animosity against them. The King had issued a proclamation, prohibiting their appearance at his coronation; but some of them, bringing him large presents from their nation, presumed, in confidence of that merit, to approach the hall in which he dined, and being discovered, they were exposed to the insults and injuries of the bystanders. They took to flight; the people pursued them; the rumor was spread, that the King had given orders to massacre all the Jews; a command so agreeable was executed in an instant, on such as fell into the hands of the populace; those who had kept at home were exposed to equal danger; the people, moved by rapacity and zeal, broke into their houses, which they plundered, after having murdered the owners, where the Jews barricaded their doors, and defended themselves with vigour.

the rabble set fire to the houses, and made way thro' the flames to exercise their pillage and violence*; the usual licentiousness of London, which the sovereign power with difficulty restrained, broke out with fury, and continued these outrages; the houses of the rich citizens, tho' Christians, were next attacked and plundered†; and weariness and satiety at last put an end to the disorder: Yet when the King impowered Glanville, the justiciary, to inquire into the authors of these crimes, the guilt was found to involve so many of the most considerable inhabitants, that it was deemed more prudent to drop the prosecution; and very few suffered the punishment due to this enormity‡. But the disorder stopped not at London. The inhabitants of the other cities of England, hearing of this execution of the Jews, imitated the barbarous example||; and in York, five hundred of that nation, who had retired into the castle for safety, and found themselves unable to defend the place, murdered their own wives and children, threw the dead bodies over the walls upon the populace, and then setting fire to the houses, perished in the flames§. The gentry of the neighbourhood, who were all indebted to the Jews, ran to the cathedral, where their bonds were kept, and made a solemn bonfire of the papers before the altar.‡.

The antient situation of England, when the people possessed little riches and the public no credit, made it impossible for the sovereigns to bear the expenses of a steady or durable war, even on their frontiers; much less could they find regular means for the support of such distant expeditions as those into Palestine, which were more the result of popular frenzy than of sober reason or deliberate policy. Richard, therefore, knew, that he must carry with him all the treasure requisite for his enterprize, and that both the remoteness of his own country and its poverty made it unable to furnish him with those continued supplies, which the exigencies of so perilous a war must necessarily require. His father had left him a treasure of above an hundred thousand marks*; and the King, negligent of every interest, but that of present glory, endeavoured to augment this sum by all expedients, however pernicious to the public, or dangerous to royal authority†: He put to sale the revenues and manors of the crown; the offices of greatest trust and power, even those of forester and sheriff, which antiently were so important‡, became venal; the dignity of chief justiciary, in whose hands

was lodged the whole execution of the laws, was sold to Hugh de Puzas, bishop of Durham, for a thousand marks; the same prelate bought the earldom of Northumberland for his life*; many of the champions of the cross, who had repented of their vow, purchased the liberty of violating it; and Richard, who stood in need of men than money, readily, on these conditions, dispensed with their attendance. Elated with the hopes of fame, which in that age attended no wars but those against the infidels, he was blind to every other consideration; and when some of his wiser ministers objected against this dissipation of the revenue and power of the crown, he replied, that he would sell London itself, if he could find a purchaser †. Nothing indeed could be a stronger proof how negligent he was of all future interests in comparison of the crusade, than his selling, for so small a sum as 10,000 marks, the vassallage of Scotland, together with the fortresses of Roxborough and Berwic, the greatest acquisition which had been made by his father during the course of his victorious reign; and his accepting the homage of William in the usual terms, merely for the territories which that prince held in England‡. Numerous exactions were practised on the English of all ranks and stations: Menaces were employed both against the innocent and the guilty, in order to force money from them: And where a pretence was wanting against the rich, the King obliged them, by the fear of his displeasure, to lend him sums, which, he knew, it would never be in his power to repay.

But Richard, tho' he sacrificed every interest and consideration to the success of this pious enterprize, carried so little the appearance of sanctity in his conduct, that Fulk, curate of Neufly, a zealous preacher of the crusade, who from that merit had acquired the privilege of speaking the boldest truths, advised him to rid himself of his notorious vices, particularly his pride, avarice, and voluptuousness, which he called the King's three favourite daughters. You counsel well, replied Richard; and I hereby dispose of the first to the Templars, of the second to the Benedictines, and of the third to my prelates.

Richard, jealous of attempts which might be made on England during his absence, laid prince John, as well as his natural brother Geoffrey, archbishop of York, under engagements, confirmed by their oaths, that neither of them should enter that kingdom till his return; tho' he thought proper, before his departure, to withdraw this prohibition¶. The administration was left in the hands of Hugh, bishop of Durham, and of Longchamp, bishop of Ely, whom he appointed justiciaries and guardians of the realm.§. The latter was a Norman of

mean birth, and of a violent character; who by art and address had insinuated himself into favour, whom Richard had created chancellor, and whom he had engaged the Pope also to invest with the legatine authority; that, by centering every kind of power in his person, he might the better ensure the public tranquillity *. All the military and turbulent spirits flocked about the person of the King, and were impatient to distinguish themselves against the infidels in Asia; whither his inclinations, his engagements, led him, and whither he was impelled by messages from the King of France, ready to embark in this enterprise †.

The Emperor Frederic, a prince of great spirit and conduct, had already taken the road to Palestine at the head of 150,000 men, collected from Germany and all the northern states; and having surmounted every obstacle thrown in his way by the artifices of the Greeks and the power of the infidels, had penetrated to the borders of Syria; when, bathing in the cold river Cydnus, during the greatest heat of the summer-heat, he was seized with a mortal distemper, which put an end to his life and his rash enterprise ‡. His army under the command of his son Conrad, reached Palestine; but was so diminished by fatigue, famine, maladies, and the sword, that it scarce amounted to eight thousand men; and was insufficient to make any progress against the great power, valour, and conduct of Saladin. These reiterated calamities, attending the crusades, had taught the Kings of France and England the necessity of trying another road to the holy land; and they determined to conduct their armies thither by sea, to carry provisions along with them, and by means of their naval power to maintain an open communication with their own states, and with the western parts of Europe. The first place of rendezvous was appointed in the plains of Vezelay, on the borders of Burgundy ||; and Philip and Richard, on their arrival there, found their armies amount to 100,000 men §; an invincible force, animated with glory and religion, conducted by two warlike monarchs, provided with every thing which their several dominions could afford, and not to be overcome but by their own misconduct, or by the insurmountable obstacles of nature.

The French prince and the English here reiterated their promises of mutual friendship, pledged their faith not to invade each other’s dominions during the crusade, exchanged the oaths of all their barons and prelates to the same effect, and subjected themselves to the penalty of interdicts and excommunications, if they should ever violate this public and solemn engagement †. They then sepa-

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Chap. X. rated; Philip took the road to Genoa, Richard that to Marfelles, with a view of meeting their fleets, which were severally appointed to rendezvous in these harbours*. They put to sea; and nearly about the same time, were obliged, by stress of weather, to take shelter in Messina, where they were detained during the whole winter. This event laid the foundation of animosities, which proved fatal to their enterprize.

Richard and Philip were, by the situation and extent of their dominions, rivals in power; by their age and inclinations, competitors for glory; and these causes of emulation, which, had the princes been employed in the field against the common enemy, might have stimulated them to martial enterprizes, soon excited, during the present leisure and repose, quarrels between monarchs of such a fiery character. Equally haughty, ambitious, intrepid, and inflexible; they were irritated with the least appearance of injury, and were incapable, by mutual condescensions, to efface those causes of complaint, which unavoidably arose between them. Richard, candid, sincere, undesigning, impolitic, violent, laid himself open, on every occasion, to the designs of his antagonist; who, provident, interested, deceitful, failed not to take all advantages against him: And thus, both the circumstances of their disposition in which they were similar, and those in which they differed, rendered it impossible for them to persevere in that harmony, which was so essential to the success of their undertaking.

The last King of Sicily and Naples was William II. who had married Joan, sister to Richard, and who, dying without issue, had bequeathed his dominions to his paternal aunt, Constanția, the only legitimate offspring surviving of Roger, the first sovereign of those states who had been honoured with the royal title. This princess had, in expectation of that rich inheritance, been married to Henry VI. the present Emperor †; but Tancred, her natural brother, had fixed such an interest among the barons, that, taking advantage of Henry's absence, he had acquired possession of the throne, and maintained his claim, by force of arms, against all the efforts of the Germans ‡. The approach of the crusaders naturally gave him apprehensions for his unstable government; and he was uncertain, whether he had most reason to dread the presence of the French or of the English monarch. Philip was engaged in strict alliance with the Emperor, his competitor: Richard was disdained by his rigors towards the Queen-dowager, whom the Sicilian prince had confined in Palermo; because he had opposed with all her interest his succession to the crown. Tancred, therefore, sensible of the

‡ Hoveden, p. 663.
present necessity, resolved to pay court to both these formidable princes; and he was not unsuccessful in his endeavours. He persuaded Philip that it was highly improper for him to interrupt his enterprise against the infidels, by any attempt against a Christian prince: He restored Queen Joan to her liberty; and even found means to make an alliance with Richard, who stipulated by treaty to marry his nephew, Arthur, the young duke of Brittany, to one of the daughters of Tancred*. But before these terms of friendship were agreed on, Richard, jealous both of Tancred and of the inhabitants of Messina, had taken up his quarters in the suburbs, and had possessed himself of a small fort, which commanded the harbour; and he remained extremely on his guard against their enterprises. The citizens took umbrage: Mutual insults and attacks passed between them and the English: Philip, who had quartered his troops in the town, endeavoured to accommodate the quarrel, and held a conference with Richard for that purpose. While the two Kings, meeting in the open fields, were engaged in discourse on this subject, a body of these Sicilians seemed to be drawing towards them; and Richard pushed forwards, in order to inquire into the reason of this extraordinary movement †. The English, insolent from their power, and inflamed with former animosities, wanted but a pretence for attacking the Messinefes; and they soon chased them from the field, drove them into the town, and entered with them at the gates. The King employed his authority to restrain them from pillaging and maiming the defenceless inhabitants; but he gave orders, in token of his victory, that the standard of England should be erected on the walls. Philip, who considered that place as his quarters, exclaimed against the insult, and ordered some of his troops to pull down the standard: But Richard informed him by a messenger, that tho' he himself would willingly remove that ground of offence, he would not permit it to be done by others, and if the French King attempted such an insult upon him, he should not succeed but by the utmost effusion of blood. Philip, contented with this species of haughty submission, recalled his orders ‡. The difference was seemingly accommodated; but left still the remains of rancour and jealousy in the breast of the two monarchs.

Tancred, who, for his own security, desired to inflame their mutual hatred, practised an artifice, which might have been attended with consequences still more fatal. He showed Richard a letter, signed by the French King, and delivered him, as he pretended, by the duke of Burgundy; in which that monarch desired Tancred to fall upon the quarters of the English, and promised to assist

† Bened. Abb. p. 608.
‡ Hoveden, p. 674.
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him
him in putting them to the sword, as common enemies. The unwary Richard gave credit to the information; but was too candid not to betray his discontent to Philip, who absolutely denied the letter, and charged the Sicilian prince with forgery and falsehood. Richard either was, or pretended to be, entirely satisfied.

Lest these jealousies and complaints should multiply between them, it was proposed, that, by a solemn treaty, they should cut off the root of all future differences, and adjust every point which could possibly hereafter become a controversy between them. But this expedient started a new dispute, which might have proved more dangerous than any of the foregoing, and which deeply concerned the honour of Philip's family. When Richard, in every treaty with Henry II. insisted so strenuously on being allowed to marry Alice of France, he had only sought a pretence for quarrelling; and never meant to take into his bed a princess suspected of a criminal amour with his own father. After he became master, he no longer talked of compleating that alliance: He even took measures for espousing Berengaria, daughter of Sanchez, King of Navarre, with whom he had become enamoured during his abode in Guienne: Queen Eleanor was daily expected with that princess at Messina: And when Philip renewed to him his applications for espousing his sister Alice, Richard was obliged to give him an absolute refusal. It is pretended by Hoveden and other historians, that he was able to produce such convincing proofs of Alice's infidelity, and even of her having borne a child to Henry, that her brother desisted from his applications, and chose to wrap up the dishonour of his family in silence and oblivion. It is certain, from the treaty itself, which yet remains, that, whatever were his motives, he permitted Richard to give his hand to Berengaria; and having settled all other controversies with that prince, he immediately set sail for the holy land. Richard awaited some time the arrival of his mother and bride; and when they joined him, he separated his fleet into two squadrons, and set forward on his enterprise. Queen Eleanor returned to England; but Berengaria, and the Queen-dowager of Sicily, his sister, attended him on the expedition.

12th April. The English fleet, on leaving the port of Messina, met with a furious tempest; and the squadron, on which the two princesses were embarked, was drove on the coast of Cyprus, and some of the vessels were wrecked near Limissïo in that island. Isaac, prince of Cyprus, who assumed the magnificent title of Emperor, pillaged the ships that were stranded, threw the seamen and passengers into prison, and even refused to the princesses liberty, in their dangerous situation, of entering.

RICHARD I.

the harbour of Limisso*. But Richard, who arrived soon after, took ample
vengeance on him for the injury. He disembarked his troops; defeated the ty-
rant, who opposed his landing; entered Limisso by storm; gained next day a
second victory; obliged Isaac to surrender at discretion; and established governors
over the island†. The Greek prince, being thrown into prison and loaded with
irons, complained of the little regard with which he was treated: Upon which,
Richard ordered silver fetters to be made for him; and this Emperor, pleased
with the distinction, expressed a sense of the generosity of his conqueror‡. The
King here espoused Berengaria§, who, immediately embarking, carried along
with her to Palestine the daughter of the Cypriot prince; a dangerous rival,
who was believed to have seduced the affections of her husband. Such were
the libertine character and conduct of the heroes engaged in this pious enter-
prize!

The English army arrived in time to partake in the glory of the siege of Acre
or Ptolemais, which had been attacked for above two years by the united force of
all the christians in Palestine, and had been defended by the utmost efforts of Sal-
adin and the Saracens. The remains of the German army, conducted by the Em-
peror Frederic, and the separate bodies of adventurers, who continually poured in
from the west, had enabled the King of Jerusalem to form this important enter-
prise§: But Saladin, having thrown a strong garrison into the place under the
command of Caracos†, his own master in the art of war, and molesting the be-
siegers with continual attacks and inroads, had protracted the success of the en-
terprise, and wasted the force of his enemies. The arrival of Philip and Ri-
chard inspired new life into the Christians; and these princes, acting by concert,
and sharing the honour and danger of every action, gave hopes of a final victory
over the infidels. They agreed on this plan of operations: When the French
monarch attacked the town, the English guarded the trenches: Next day, when
the English prince conducted the assault, the French succeeded him in providing
for the safety of the assailants. The emulation between these rival Kings and rival
nations produced extraordinary acts of valour; and Richard in particular, an-
mated with a more precipitate courage than Philip, and more agreeable to the
romantic spirit of that age, drew to himself the attention of all the world, and ac-
quired a great and splendid reputation. But this harmony was of very short du-

†† Diceto, p. 654.
§§ Vinifaus, p. 269, 271, 279.
The family of Boulogne, which had been first placed on the throne of Jerusalem, ending in a female, Fulk, count of Anjou, grandfather to Henry II. of England, married the heiress of that kingdom, and transmitted his title to the younger branches of his family. The Anjevin race, ending also in a female, Guy de Lusignan, by espousing Sibylla, the heiress, had succeeded to the title; and though he lost his kingdom by the invasion of Saladin, he was still acknowledged by all the Christians for King of Jerusalem. But as Sibylla died without issue, during the siege of Acre, Isabella, her younger sister, put in her claim to that titular kingdom, and required Lusignan to resign his pretensions to her husband Conrade, marquis of Montferrat. Lusignan, maintaining that the royal title was unalienable and indefeasible, had recourse to the protection of Richard, attended on him before he left Cyprus, and engaged him to embrace his cause. There needed no other reason for throwing Philip into the party of Conrade; and the opposite views of these great monarchs brought faction and dissention into the Christian army, and retarded all its operations. The Templars, the Genoese, and the Germans, declared for Philip and Conrade; the Flemings, the Pisans, the knights of the hospital of St. John, adhered to Richard and Lusignan. But notwithstanding these disputes, as the length of the siege had reduced the Saracen garrison to the last extremity, they surrendered themselves prisoners of war; stipulated, for the saving their lives, other advantages to the Christians, such as the restoring of prisoners, and the delivery of the wood of the true cross; and this great enterprise, which had long engaged the attention of all Europe and Asia, was at last, after the loss of 300,000 men, brought to a happy period.

But Philip, instead of pursuing the hopes of farther conquests, and redeeming the holy city from slavery, being disunited with the ascendant ascribed to Richard, and having views of many advantages, which he might reap by his presence in Europe, declared his resolution of returning into France; and he pleaded his bad state of health as an excuse for his desertion of the common cause. He left, however, to Richard ten thousand of his troops: under the command of the duke of Burgundy; and he renewed his oath never to commence hostilities against that prince's dominions during his abscence. But he had no sooner reached Italy than he applied to Pope Celestine III. for a dispensation.

from this vow *; and when denied that request, he still proceeded, tho' after a more covert manner, in a project, which the present situation of England rendered so inviting, and which gratified, in so eminent a degree, both his resentment and his ambition.

Immediately after Richard had left England, and begun his march to the Disorders in holy land, the two prelates, whom he had appointed guardians of the realm, broke out into the fiercest animosities against each other, and threw the whole kingdom into combustion. Longchamp, presumptuous in his nature, elated by the favour of his master, and armed with the legatine commission, could not submit to an equality with the bishop of Durham; and even went so far as to arrest the person of his colleague, and to extort from him a resignation of the earldom of Northumberland, and of his other dignities, as the price of his liberty †. The King informed of these dissensions, ordered, by letters from Marseilles, that the bishop should be reinstated in all his offices; but Longchamp had still the boldness to refuse compliance, on pretence that he himself was better acquainted with the King’s secret intentions ‡. He proceeded still to govern the kingdom by his sole authority; to treat all the nobility with the greatest arrogance; and to display his power and riches with an invidious ostentation. He never travelled without a strong guard of fifteen hundred foreign soldiers, collected from that licentious tribe with which the age was generally infested §. Nobles and knights were proud of being admitted into his train: His retinue wore the aspect of royal magnificence: And when, in his progress through the kingdom, he lodged in any monastery, his attendants, it is said, were sufficient to devour, in one night, the revenue of several years ‖. The King, who was detained in Europe longer than the haughty prelate expected, hearing of this ostentation, which exceeded even what the habits of that age indulged to ecclesiastics; being also informed of the insolent, tyrannical conduct of his minister; thought proper to restrain his exorbitant power; and he sent new orders, appointing Walter archbishop of Rothen, William Marshal earl of Stigul, Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, William Briedere, and Hugh Bardolf, counsellors to Longchamp, and commanding him to take no measures of importance without their concurrence and approbation *. But such general terror had this man impressed by his violent conduct, that even the archbishop of Rothen and the earl of Stigul durst not produce this mandate of the King; and Longchamp still maintained an

Knyghton, p. 2403. ‡ W. Heming. p. 528. ‖ Hoveden, p. 702.
Brompton, p. 1194.
uncontrouled authority over the nation*. But when he proceeded so far as to
throw into prison Geoffrey archbishop of York, who had opposed his measures†,
this breach of ecclesiastical privileges excited such an universal ferment, that prince
John, disgusted with the small share he possessed in the government, and personally
obliged by Longchamp, ventured to summon at Reading a general council
of the nobility and prelates, and cite him to appear before them. Longchamp
thought it dangerous to entrust his person in their hands, and he shut himself up
in the tower of London‡: But being soon obliged to surrender that fortress, he
fled beyond sea, concealed under a female habit, and was deprived of his offices
of chancellor and chief justice; the last of which was conferred on the arch­
bishop of Roëne, a prelate of great prudence and moderation]]. The office of
legate, however, which had been renewed to Longchamp by Pope Celestine, still
gave him, notwithstanding his absence, great authority in the kingdom, enabled
him to disturb the government, and forwarded the views of Philip, who watched
every opportunity of annoying Richard's dominions. That monarch first attempt­ed to carry open war into Normandy; but as the French nobility refused to follow
him in an invasion of a state which they had sworn to protect, and as the Pope,
who was the general guardian of all princes that had taken the cross, threatened
him with ecclesiastical censures, he desisted from his enterprise, and employed a­gainst England the expedient of secret policy and intrigue. He debauched prince
John from his allegiance; promised him his sister Alice in marriage; offered to
give him possession of all Richard's transmarine dominions; and had not the au­thority
of Queen Eleanor, and the menaces of the English council prevailed over the
inclinations of that turbulent prince, he was ready to have crossed the seas
and to have put in execution his criminal enterprises.

The jealousy of Philip was every moment excited by the glory which the heroic actions of Richard were gaining him in the East, and which, being com­pared to his own desertion of that popular cause, threw a double lustre on his riva­l. His envy, therefore, prompted him to obscure that fame, which he had not equalled; and he embraced every pretence of throwing the most violent and most improbable calumnies on the King of England. There was a petty prince in Asia, commonly called the old man of the mountain, who had acquired such an ascendant over his fanatical subjects, that they paid the most implicit deference
to all his commands; esteemed assassination meritorious, when sanctified by his
mandate; courted danger, and even certain death, in the execution of his orders;

|| W. Heming. p. 530.

and
and fancied, that where they sacrificed their lives for his sake, the highest joys of paradise were the infallible reward of their devoted obedience*. It was the custom of this prince, when he imagined himself injured, to dispatch secretly some of his subjects against the aggressor, to charge them with the execution of his revenge, to instruct them in every art of disguising their purpose; and no precaution was sufficient to guard any man, however powerful, against the attempts of these subtle and determined ruffians. The greatest monarchs stood in awe of this prince of the assassins, (for that was the name of his people; whence the word has been transferred into most European languages) and it was the highest indisccretion of Conrade, marquis of Montferrat, to offend and affront him. The inhabitants of Tyre, who were governed by that nobleman, had put to death some of this dangerous people: The prince demanded satisfaction; for as he piqued himself on never beginning any offence †, he had his regular and established formalities in requiring atonement: Conrade treated his messengers with disdain:

The prince issued his fatal orders: Two of his subjects, who had insinuated themselves in disguise among Conrade’s guards, openly, in the streets of Sidon, put him to death; and when they were seized and condemned to the most cruel tortures, they triumphed amidst their agonies, and rejoiced that they had been destined by heaven to suffer in so just and meritorious a cause.

Every one in Palestine knew from what hand the blow came. Richard was entirely free from suspicion. Though that monarch had formerly maintained the cause of Lusignan against Conrade, he had become sensible of the bad effects attending these dissensions, and had voluntarily conferred on the former the kingdom of Cyprus, on condition that he should resign to his rival all pretensions to the crown of Jerusalem‡. Conrade himself, with his dying breath, had recommended his widow to the protection of Richard §§; the prince of the assassins avowed the action in a formal narrative which he sent to Europe §§; yet, on this foundation, the King of France thought fit to build the most egregious calumnies, and to impute to Richard the murder of the marquis of Montferrat, whose elevation he had once openly opposed. He filled all Europe with exclamations against the crime; appointed a guard to his own person, in order to defend himself against a like attempt ‡; and endeavoured, by these shallow artifices, to cover the infamy of attacking the dominions of a prince, whom he himself had deferted, and who was engaged with so much glory in a war, universally acknowledged to be the common cause of Christendom.

But Richard's heroic actions in Palestine were the best apology for his conduct. The Christian adventurers under his command determined, on opening the campaign, to attempt the siege of Ascalon, in order to prepare the way for that of Jerusalem; and they marched along the sea-coast with that intention. Saladin proposed to intercept their passage; and he placed himself on the road with an army, amounting to 300,000 combatants. On this occasion was fought one of the greatest battles of that age; and the most celebrated, for the military genius of the commanders, for the number and valour of the troops, and for the great variety of events which attended it. Both the right wing of the Christians, commanded by d'Avesnes, and the left, headed by the duke of Burgundy, were, in the beginning of the day, broken and defeated; when Richard, who led on the main body, restored the battle; attacked the enemy with admirable intrepidity and presence of mind; performed the part both of a consummate general and gallant soldier; and not only gave his two wings leisure to recover from their confusion, but obtained a complete victory over the Saracens, of whom forty thousand are said to have perished in the field. Ascalon soon after fell into the hands of the Christians. Other sieges were carried on with success: Richard was even able to advance within sight of Jerusalem, the object of all his enterprises; when he had the mortification to find, that he must abandon all hopes of immediate success, and must put a stop to his career of victory. The crusaders, animated with an enthusiastic ardor for the holy wars, broke at first through all regards to safety or interest in the prosecution of their purpose; and trusting to the immediate assistance of heaven, set nothing before their eyes but fame and victory in this world, and a crown of glory in the next. But long absence from home, fatigue, disease, want, and the varieties of success which naturally attend war, had gradually abated that fury, which nothing was able directly to withstand; and every one, except the King of England, expressed a desire of speedily returning into Europe. The Germans and the Italians declared their resolution of deserting from the enterprise; the French were still more obstinate in this purpose: The duke of Burgundy, in order to pay court to Philip, took all opportunities of mortifying and opposing Richard: And there appeared an absolute necessity of abandoning for the present all hopes of farther conquest, and of securing the acquisitions of the Christians by an accommodation with Saladin. Richard, therefore, concluded a truce with that monarch; and stipulated, that Ascalon, Joppa, and other seaport towns of Palestine, should remain in the hands of the Christians, and that every one of that religion should have liberty to perform his pilgrimage.

† Vinifauf, p. 380.
to Jerusalem unmolested *. This truce was concluded for three years, three months, three weeks, three days, and three hours; a magical number, which had probably been devised by the Europeans, and which was suggested by a superstition well suited to the object of the war.

The liberty in which Saladin indulged the Christians, to perform their pilgrimages to Jerusalem, was an easy sacrifice on his part; and the furious wars, which he waged in defence of the barren territory of Judea, were not with him, as with the European adventurers, the result of superstition, but of policy. The advantage indeed of science, moderation, humanity, was at that time entirely on the side of the Saracens; and this gallant emperor, in particular, displayed, during the course of the war, a spirit and generosity, which even his bigotted enemies were obliged to acknowledge and admire. Richard, equally martial and brave, carried with him more of the barbarian character; and was guilty of acts of ferocity, which throw a stain on his celebrated victories. When Saladin refused to ratify the capitulation of Acre, the King of England ordered all his prisoners, to the number of five thousand, to be butchered; and the Saracens found themselves obliged to retaliate upon the Christians by a like cruelty †. Saladin died at Damascus soon after the conclusion of the truce with the princes of the crusade; and it is memorable, that, before he expired, he ordered his winding-sheet to be carried as a standard thro' every street of the city; while a crier went before, and proclaimed with a loud voice, This is all that remains to the mighty Saladin, the conqueror of the East. By his last will, he ordered charities to be distributed to the poor, without distinction of Jew, Christian, or Mahometan.

There remained, after the truce, no business of importance to detain Richard in Palestine; and the intelligence which he received, of the intrigues of his brother John, and of the King of France, made him sensible, that his presence was necessary in Europe ‡. As he dared not to pass thro' France, he failed to the Adriatic: and being shipwrecked near Aquileia, he put on the disguise of a pilgrim, with a purpose of taking his journey secretly thro' Germany. Pursued by the governor of Istria †, he was forced out of the direct road to England, and was obliged to pass by Vienna; where his expenses and liberalities betrayed the monarch in the habit of the pilgrim; and he was arrested by orders of Leopold, duke of Austria §. This prince had served under Richard at the siege of Acre; but being disgusted by some insult of this haughty monarch, he was so ungenerous as to seize the present opportunity of gratifying at once his avarice and re-

venge; and he threw the King into prison *. The Emperor, Henry VI. who also considered Richard as an enemy, on account of the alliance contracted by him with Tancred, King of Sicily, dispatched messengers to the duke of Austria, required the royal prisoner to be delivered to him, and stipulated a large sum of money as a reward for this service †. Thus, the King of England, who had filled the whole world with his renown and glory, found himself, during the most critical state of his affairs, confined to a dungeon, and loaded with irons, in the heart of Germany ‡, and entirely at the mercy of his enemies, the basest and most fordid of mankind.

The English council were astonifhed on receiving this fatal intelligence; and foresaw all the dangerous consequences, which might naturally arise from that event. The Queen-dowager wrote reiterated letters to Pope Celestine; exclaiming against the injury which her son had sustained, representing the impiety of detaining in prison the most illustrious prince, who had yet carried the banners of Christ into the holy land; claiming the protection of the apostolic see, which was due even to the meanest of these adventurers; and upbraiding the Pope, that in a cause where justice, religion, and the dignity of the church, were so much concerned; a cause, which it might well befit his Holiness himself to support by taking in person a journey into Germany, the spiritual thunders should be so long suspended over these sacrilegious offenders §. The zeal of Celestine corresponded not to the impatience of the Queen-mother; and the regency of England were, for a long time, left to struggle by themselves, with all their domestic and foreign enemies.

The King of France, quickly informed of Richard's confinement by a message from the Emperor ‡, prepared himself to take advantage of that incident; and he employed every means of force and intrigue, of war and negotiation, against the dominions and the person of his unfortunate rival. He revived the calumny of Richard's assassinating the marquis of Montferrat; and by that absurd pretence, he induced his barons to violate their oaths, by which they had engaged, that, during the crusade, they never would, on any account, attack the dominions of the King of England ‡. He made the Emperor the largest offers, if he would deliver into his hand the royal prisoner, or at least detain him in perpetual captivity; and he even formed an alliance by marriage with the King of Denmark, desired that the ancient Danish claim to the crown of England

should be transferred to him, and solicited a supply of shipping to maintain it.

But the most successful of Philip's negotiations was with Prince John, who, forgetting every tie to his brother, his sovereign, and his benefactor, thought of nothing but how to make his own advantage of the public calamities. That traitor, on the first invitation from the court of France, suddenly went abroad, held a conference with Philip, and made a treaty, of which the object was the perpetual ruin of his unhappy brother. He stipulated to deliver into Philip's hands a great part of Normandy; and in return, he received the investiture of all Richard's transmarine dominions: and it is reported by several historians, that he even did homage to the French King for the crown of England.

In consequence of this treaty, Philip invaded Normandy; and by the treachery of John's emissaries, made himself master, without opposition, of many fortresses, Neufchatel, Neaufle, Gisors, Pacey, Ivry; he subdued the counties of Eu and Aumale; and advancing to form the siege of Rouen, he threatened to put all the inhabitants to the sword, if they dared to make the least resistance to his arms. Happily, Robert earl of Leicester appeared in that critical moment; a gallant nobleman, who had acquired great honour during the crusade, and who being more fortunate than his master in finding his passage homewards, took on him the command in Rouen, and exerted himself, by his presence and example, to infuse courage into the dismayed Normans. Philip was repulsed in every attack; the time of his vassals' service expired; and he consented to a truce with the English regency, received in return the promise of 20,000 marks, and had four castles put into his hands, as security for the payment.

Prince John, who, with a view of increasing the general confusion, went over to England, was less successful in his enterprises. He was only able to make himself master of the castles of Windsor and Wallingford; but when he arrived in London, and claimed the kingdom as heir to his brother, of whole death he pretended to have received certain intelligence, he was rejected by all the barons, and measures were taken to oppose and subdue him. The justiciaries, supported by the general affections of the people, provided so well for the defence of the kingdom, that John was obliged, after some fruitless efforts, to conclude a truce with them; and before its expiration, he thought it prudent to return into France, and he openly acknowledged his alliance with Philip.
Meanwhile, the high spirit of Richard suffered in Germany every kind of insult and indignity. The French ambassadors, in their master's name renounced him as a vassal to the crown of France, and declared all his fiefs to be forfeited to his liege-lord. The Emperor, that he might render him more impatient for the recovery of his liberty, and make him submit to the payment of a larger ransom, treated him with the greatest severity, and reduced him to a condition worse than that of the meanest malefactor. He was even produced before the diet of the empire at Worms, and accused by Henry of many crimes and misdemeanors; of making an alliance with Tancred, the usurper of Sicily; of turning the arms of the crusade against a Christian prince, and subduing Cyprus; of affronting the duke of Austria before Acre; of obstructing the progress of the Christian arms by his quarrels with the King of France; of assassinating Conrade, marquis of Montferrat; and of concluding a truce with Saladin, and leaving Jerusalem in the hands of the Saracen Emperor*. Richard, whose spirit was not broke by all his misfortunes, and whose genius was rather roused by these frivolous or scandalous imputations; after premising, that his royal dignity exempted him from answering before any jurisdiction, except that of heaven; yet condescended, for the sake of his reputation, to justify his conduct before that great assembly. He observed, that he had no hand in Tancred's elevation, and only concluded a treaty with a prince, whom he found in possession of the throne: That the King, or rather tyrant of Cyprus, had provoked his indignation by the most ungenerous and unjust proceedings; and tho' he chastised this aggressor, he had not retarded a moment the progress of his chief enterprise: That if he had been at any time wanting in civility to the duke of Austria, he had already been punished sufficiently for that fall of passion; and it better became men, embarked together in so holy a cause, to forgive each other's infirmities, than to pursue a slight offence with such unrelenting vengeance: That it had sufficiently appeared by the event, whether the King of France or he was most zealous for the conquest of the holy land, and was most likely to sacrifice private passions and animosities to that great object: That if the whole tenor of his life had not shown him incapable of a base assassination, and justified him from that imputation in the eyes of his very enemies, it was in vain for him, at present, to make his apology, or plead the many irrefragable arguments, which he could produce in his own favour: And that, however he might regret the necessity, he was so far from being ashamed of his truce with Saladin, that he rather gloried in that event; and thought it extremely honorable, that, tho' abandoned by all the world, supported only by his own courage and by the small remains of his

national troops, he could yet obtain such conditions from the most powerful and
most warlike Emperor that the East had ever yet produced. Richard after thus
designing to apologize for his conduct, burst out into indignation at the cruel treat-
ment which he had met with; that he, the champion of the cross, still wearing
that honourable badge, should, after expending the blood and treasure of his sub-
jects in the common cause of Christendom, be intercepted by Christian princes in
his return to his own country, be thrown into a dungeon, be loaded with irons,
be obliged to plead his cause, as if he were a subject and a malefactor; and what
he still more regretted, be thereby prevented from making his preparations for a
new crusade, which he projected, after the expiration of the truce, and from re-
deeming the sepulchre of Christ, which had so long been profaned by the domi-
nion of the infidels. The spirit and eloquence of Richard made such impression
on the German princes, that they exclaimed loudly against the conduct of the
Emperor; the Pope threatened him with excommunication; and Henry, who
had hearkened to the proposals of the King of France and prince John, found
that it would be impracticable for him to execute his and their base purposes, and
detain the King of England any longer in captivity. He therefore concluded
with him a treaty for his ransom, and agreed to restore him to his freedom for the
sum of 150,000 marks, about 300,000 pounds of our present money; of which
100,000 marks was to be paid before he received his liberty, and sixty-seven ho-
Stages delivered for the remainder*. The Emperor, as if to gloss over the infa-
my of this transaction, made at the same time a present to Richard of the kingdom
of Arles, comprehending Provence, Dauphiny, Narbonne, and other states, over
which the empire had some antiquated claims, that the King very wisely neglected†.

The captivity of the superior lord was one of the cases provided for by the
feudal tenures; and all the vassals were in that event obliged to give an aid for
his ransom. Twenty shillings were therefore levied on each knight's fee in Eng-
tland ‡; but as this money came in slowly, and was not sufficient for the intended
purpose, the voluntary zeal of the people readily supplied the defect §. The
Churches and monasteries melted down their plate, to the amount of 30,000
marks; the bishops, abbots, and nobles, paid a fourth of their yearly rent; the
parochial clergy contributed a tenth of their tythes: And the requisite sum being
thus collected, Queen Eleanor, and Walter archbishop of Rouen, set out with
it for Germany; paid the money to the Emperor and the duke of Austria at
Mentz; delivered them hostages for the remainder; and freed Richard from

his captivity. His escape was very critical. Henry had been detected in the assassination of the bishop of Liege, and in an attempt of a like nature on the duke of Louvaine; and finding himself extremely obnoxious to the German princes on account of these odious practices, he had determined to seek support from an alliance with the French King*; to detain Richard, the enemy of that prince, in perpetual captivity; to keep in his hands the money which he had already received for his ransom; and to extort new sums from Philip and prince John, who were very liberal in their offers to him†. He therefore gave orders that Richard should be pursu ed and arrested; but the King, making all imaginable haste, had already embarked at the mouth of the Schelde, and was out of sight of land when the messengers of the Emperor reached Antwerp.

The joy of the English was extreme on the appearance of their monarch, who had suffered so many calamities, who had acquired so much glory, and who had spread the reputation of their name into the farthest East, whither their fame had never before been able to extend‡. He gave them, soon after his arrival, an opportunity of displaying publicly their exultation, by ordering himself to be crowned anew at Winchester; as if he intended, by that ceremony, to reinstate himself in his throne, and to wipe off the ignominy of his captivity||. Their satisfaction was not even damped, when he declared his purpose of making a general resumption of those exorbitant grants, which he had been necessitated to agree to before his departure for the holy land. The barons also, in a great council, forfeited, on account of his treason, all prince John's possessions in England; and they assisted the King in reducing the fortresses which still remained in the hands of his brother's adherents§: And Richard, having settled everything in England, passed over with an army into Normandy; being impatient to make war on Philip, and to revenge himself for the many injuries which he had received from that monarch¶. So soon as Philip heard of the King's delivery from captivity, he wrote to his confederate, John, in these terms: Take care of yourself: The devil is broke loose*.

When we consider two such powerful and martial monarchs, inflamed with personal animosity to each other, enraged by mutual injuries, excited by rivalry, impelled by opposite interests, and instigated by the pride and violence of their own temper; our curiosity is naturally roused, and we expect an obstinate and furious war, distinguished by the greatest events, and concluded by some remark-

† Hoveden, p. 733.
‡ W. Heming, p. 59.
§ Hoveden, p. 740.
¶ Hoveden, p. 740.
able catastrophe. Yet are the incidents which attended these hostilities so frivolous, that scarce any historian can entertain such a passion for military descriptions as to venture on a detail of them: A certain proof of the extreme weakness of princes in those ages, and of the little authority they possessed over their refractory vassals! The whole amount of the exploits on both sides is, the taking a castle, the surprize of a straggling party, a rencontre of horse, which resembles more a rout than a battle. Richard obliged Philip to raise the siege of Verneuil; he took Loches, a small town in Anjou; he made himself master of Beaumont, and some other places of little consequence; and after these trivial exploits, the two Kings began already to hold conferences for an accommodation. Philip insisted, that, if a general peace was concluded, the barons on each side should be prohibited from carrying on private wars against each other: But Richard replied, that this was a right claimed by his vassals, and he could not deprive them of it. After this fruitless negotiation, there ensued an action between the French and English cavalry at Fretteval, in which the former were routed. And the King of France's cartulary and records, which commonly at that time attended his person, were taken. Philip had his revenge for this defeat, by an advantage which he obtained before Vaudreuil: And a truce for a year was at last, from mutual weakness, concluded between the two monarchs.

During this war, prince John deserted Philip, threw himself at his brother's feet, craved pardon for his offences, and by the intercession of Queen Eleanor, was received into favour. I forgive him, said the King, and hope I shall as easily for his injuries, as he will my pardon. John was incapable even of returning to his duty, without committing a baseness. Before he left Philip's party, he invited to dinner all the officers of the garrison, which that prince had placed in the citadel of Evreux; he treacherously massacred them during the entertainment; fell, with the assistance of the townsfolk, on the garrison, whom he put to the sword; and then delivered up the place to his brother.

The King of France was the great object of Richard's resentment and animosity: The conduct of his brother John, as well as of the Emperor and duke of Austria, had been so base and mean, and was exposed to such general odium and reproach, that the King deemed himself sufficiently revenged for their injuries; and as it is impossible to hate heartily a person whom one despises, he seems never to have entertained any project of vengeance against any of them. The duke of Austria, about this time, having crushed his leg by the fall of his horse at a tournament, was thrown into a fever; and being struck, on the approaches of death,

* Hoveden, p 741.  † Ibid.  ‡ W. Heming p 541.  || M. Paris, p 122.
W. Heming, p 542.  § Phillipid lib. 4, p 143.  Rigord, p 77.
HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

Chap X. 1194. with remorse for his injustice to Richard, he ordered, by will, all the English hostages to be set at liberty, and the remainder of the debt to be remitted*: His son, who seemed inclined to disobey these orders, was constrained by his ecclesiastics to execute them†. The Emperor also made advances for Richard’s friendship, and offered to give him a discharge of all his debt, provided he would enter into an offensive alliance against the King of France; a proposal which was very acceptable to Richard, and was greedily embraced by him. The treaty with the Emperor took no effect; but it served to rekindle the war between France and England before the expiration of the truce. This war was not distinguished by any more remarkable incident than the former. After mutually ravaging the open country, and taking a few insignificant castles, the two Kings concluded a peace at Louviers, and yielded up some territories to each other‡. Their inability to make war occasioned the peace: Their mutual antipathy engaged them again in war before two months expired. Richard imagined that he had now got an opportunity of striking a severe blow on his rival, by forming an alliance with the counts of Flanders, Tholouse, Boulogne, Champagne, and other considerable vassals of the crown of France||. But he soon experienced the insincerity of these princes; and was not able to make any impression on that kingdom, while governed by a prince of so much vigour and activity as Philip. The most remarkable incident of this war was the taking prisoner in battle the bishop of Beauvais, a martial prelate, who was of the family of Dreux, and a near relation of the French King. Richard, who hated that bishop, threw him into prison, and loaded him with irons; and when the Pope demanded his liberty, and claimed him as his son, the King sent his Holiness the coat of mail which the prelate had worn in battle, and which was all besmeared with blood: And he replied to him, in the terms employed by Jacob’s sons to that patriarch, This have we found: Know now whether it be thy son’s coat or no§. This war between England and France, tho’ carried on with such animosity, that both Kings frequently put out the eyes of their prisoners, was soon finished, by a truce of five years; and immediately after signing this treaty, the Kings were ready, on some new offence, to break out again into hostilities; when the mediation of the cardinal of St. Mary, the Pope’s legate, accommodated the difference¶. This prelate even engaged the princes to commence a treaty for a more durable peace; but the death of Richard put an end to the negotiation.

§ Rymer, vol. i. p. 109. 110. ¶ Vidomar,
Vidomar, viscount of Limoges, a vassal of the King, had found a treasure, of which he sent a part to that prince as a present. Richard, as superior lord, claimed the whole; and at the head of some Brabançons, besieged the viscount in the castle of Chalus, near Limoges, in order to make him comply with his demand. The garrison offered to surrender; but the King replied, that, since he had taken the pains to come thither and besiege the place in person, he would take it by force, and would hang every one of them. The same day, Richard, accompanied by Marcadée, leader of his Brabançons, approached the castle in order to survey it; when one Bertrand de Gourdon, an archer, took an aim at him, and pierced his shoulder with an arrow. The King, however, gave orders for the assault, took the place, and hanged all the garrison, except Gourdon, who had wounded him, and whom he reserved for a more deliberate and more cruel execution.

The wound was not in itself dangerous; but the unskillfulness of the surgeon made it mortal: He so rankled Richard's shoulder in pulling out the arrow, that a gangrene commenced; and that prince was now sensible that his life was drawing towards a period. He sent for Gourdon, and asked him, Wretch, what have I ever done to you, to oblige you to seek my life? What have you done to me? replied coolly the prisoner: You killed with your own bands my father, and my two brothers; and you intended to have hanged myself: I am now in your power, and you may take revenge, by inflicting on me the most severe torments: But I shall endure them all with pleasure, provided I can think that with my own hands I have rid the world of such a nuisance. Richard, struck with the reasonableness of this reply, and humbled by the near approach of death, ordered Gourdon to be set at liberty, and a sum of money to be given him; but Marcadée, unknown to him, seized the unhappy man, slew him alive, and then hanged him. Richard died in the tenth year of his reign, and the forty-second of his age; and he left no issue behind him.

The most shining part of this prince's character was his military talents. No man, even in that romantic age, carried personal courage and intrepidity to a greater height; and this quality gained him the appellation of the lion-hearted, cœur de lion. He passionately loved glory, chiefly military glory; and as his conduct in the field was not inferior to his valour, he seems to have possessed every talent necessary for acquiring it. His resentments also were high; his pride unconquerable; and his subjects, as well as his neighbours, had therefore reason to apprehend,
apprehend, from the continuance of his reign, a perpetual scene of blood and violence. Of an impetuous and vehement spirit, he was distinguished by all the good, as well as the bad qualities, which are incident to that character: He was open, frank, generous, sincere, and brave; he was revengeful, domineering, ambitious, haughty, and cruel; and was thus better calculated to dazzle men by the splendor of his enterprises, than either to promote their happiness or his own grandeur, by a found and well regulated policy. As military talents make great impression on the people, he seems to have been much beloved by his English subjects; and he is remarked to have been the first prince of the Norman line who bore a sincere affection and regard to them. He passed however only four months of his reign in that kingdom: The crusade employed him near three years; he was detained about fourteen months in captivity; the rest of his reign was spent either in war, or preparations for war, against France; and he was so pleased with the fame which he had acquired in the East, that he seems to have determined, notwithstanding all his past misfortunes, to have further exhausted his kingdom, and to have exposed himself to new hazards, by conducting another expedition against the infidels.

Tho' the English pleased themselves with the glory which the King's martial talents procured them, his reign was very oppressive, and somewhat arbitrary, by the high taxes which he levied on them, and often without the consent of the states or great council. In the ninth of his reign, he levied five shillings on each hyde of land; and because the clergy refused to contribute their share, he put them out of the protection of law, and ordered the civil courts to give them no sentence for any debts which they might claim*. Twice in his reign he ordered all his charters to be sealed anew, and the parties to pay fees for the renewal †. It is said that Hubert, his justiciary, sent him over to France, in the space of two years, no less a sum than £100,000 marks, besides bearing all the charges of the government in England. But this account is quite incredible, unless we suppose that he made an extreme delapidation of the demesnes of the crown. A King who possessed such a revenue could never have endured fourteen months captivity, for not paying £150,000 marks to the Emperor, and be obliged at last to leave hostages for a third of the sum. The prices of commodities in this reign are also a certain proof, that no such enormous sum could be levied from the people. A hyde of land, or a hundred and twenty acres, was commonly let for twenty shillings a-year, money of that time. The general and stated price of an ox was four shillings; of a labouring horse, the same; of a sow, one shilling;

of a sheep with fine wool, ten-pence; with coarse wool, six-pence*. These commodities seem not to have advanced in their prices since the time of the Conquest.

Richard renewed the severe laws against transgressors in his forests, whom he punished by castration and putting out their eyes, as in the reign of his great-grandfather. He established by law one weight and measure throughout his kingdom†: An useful institution, which the mercenary disposition and necessities of his successor engaged him to dispense with for money.

The disorders in London, derived from its bad police, had risen to a great height during this reign; and in the year 1196, there seemed to be formed a regular conspiracy of the malefactors, which threatened the city with destruction. There was one William Fitz-Olbert, commonly called Longbeard, a lawyer, who had rendered himself extremely popular among the lower rank of citizens; and by defending them on all occasions, had acquired the appellation of the advocate or favour of the poor. He exerted his authority, by injuring and insulting the more substantial inhabitants, with whom he lived in a state of hostility, and who were every moment exposed to the most outrageous violence from him and his licentious emissaries. Murders were daily committed in the streets; houses were broke open and pillaged in day-light; and it is pretended, that no less than fifty-two thousand persons had signed an association, by which they bound themselves to obey all the orders of this dangerous ruffian. Archbishop Hubert, who was then chief judiciary, summoned him before the council to answer for his conduct; but he came so well attended, that no one durst accuse him, or bear evidence against him; and the primate, finding the impotence of laws, contented himself with exacting from the citizens hostages for their good behaviour. He kept, however, a watchful eye on William; and seizing a favourable opportunity, attempted to commit him to custody; but the criminal, murdering one of the public officers, escaped with his concubine to the church of St. Mary le Bow, where he defended himself by force of arms. He was at last forced from his retreat, condemned, and executed, amidst the infinite regrets of the populace, who were so devoted to his memory, that they stole his gibbet, paid it the same veneration as to the cross, and were equally zealous in propagating and attesting reports of the miracles which were wrought by it ‡. But tho’ the sectaries of this superstitition were punished by the jurisdiction ‡, it received so little encouragement from the established clergy, whose property was endangered by such seductive practices, that it suddenly sunk and vanished.


† Gervase, p. 1591.
Chap. XI.

Accession of the King—His marriage—War with France—Murder of Arthur, duke of Brittany—The King expelled from all the French provinces—The King’s quarrel with the court of Rome—Cardinal Langton appointed archbishop of Canterbury—Interdict of the kingdom—Excommunication of the King—The King’s submission to the Pope—Discontents of the barons—Insurrection of the barons—Magna Charta—Renewal of the civil wars—Prince Lewis called over—Death—and Character of the King.

The noble and free genius of the antients, which made the government of a single person be always regarded by them as a species of tyranny and usurpation, and kept them from forming any conception of a legal and regular monarchy, had rendered them entirely ignorant both of the rights of primogeniture and a representation in succession; inventions so necessary to preserve order in the lines of princes, to obviate the evils of civil discord and of usurpation, and to beget moderation in that species of government, by giving security to the ruling sovereign. These innovations arose from the feudal law; which, first introducing the right of primogeniture, made such a distinction between the families of the elder and younger brothers, that the son of the former was thought intitled to succeed to his grandfather, preferably to his uncles, tho’ nearer allied to the deceased monarch. But tho’ this progress of ideas was natural, it was gradual. In the age of which we treat, the practice of representation was indeed introduced, but not thoroughly established; and the minds of men floated between opposite principles. Richard, when he entered on the holy war, declared his nephew, Arthur duke of Brittany, his successor; and by a formal deed, he set aside, in his favour, the title of his brother John, who was younger than Geoffrey, the father of that prince *. But John so little acquiesced in this designation, that when he gained the ascendant in the English ministry, by expelling Longchamp, the chancellor and great judiciary, he engaged all the English barons to swear, that they


would
would maintain his right of succession; and Richard, on his return, took no steps towards restoring or securing the order which he had at first established. He was even careful, by his last will, to declare his brother John heir to all his dominions *; whether, that he now thought Arthur, who was only twelve years of age, incapable of asserting his claim against John's faction, or was influenced by Eleanor, the Queen-mother, who hated Constantia, mother to the young duke, and who dreaded the influence which that prince would naturally acquire during the reign of her son. The authority of a testament was great in that age, even where the succession of a kingdom was concerned; and John had reason to hope, that this title, joined to his plausible right in other respects, would ensure him the succession. But the idea of representation seems to have made, at this time, greater progress in France than in England; and the barons of the transmarine provinces, Anjou, Maine, and Touraine, immediately declared in favour of Arthur's succession †, and applied for the assistance of the French monarch as their superior lord. Philip, who desired only an occasion to embarrass John, and dismember his dominions, embraced the cause of the young duke of Brittany, took him under his protection, and sent him to Paris to be educated, along with his son Lewis ‡. In this emergence, John hastened to establish his authority in the chief members of the monarchy; and after sending Eleanor into Poitou and Guienne, where her right was uncontested, and was readily acknowledged, he hurried to Rouen, and being there invested in the duchy of Normandy, he passed over without loss of time into England. Hubert, archbishop of Canterbury, William Marechal, earl of Strigul, soon after created earl of Pembroke, and Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, the justiciary, the three most favoured ministers of the late King, were already engaged on his side; and the submission or acquiescence of all the other barons put him, without opposition, in possession of the throne.

The King soon returned to France, in order to conduct the war against Philip, and to recover the revolted provinces from his nephew, Arthur. The alliances which Richard had formed with the earl of Flanders §, and other potent French barons, tho' they had not been very effectual, still subsisted, and enabled John to defend himself against all the efforts of his enemy. In an action between the French and Flemings, the elect bishop of Cambrai was taken prisoner by the former; and when the cardinal of Capua claimed his liberty, Philip, instead of complying, reproached him with the weak efforts which he had employed in fa-

Nothing enabled the King to bring this war to a happy issue so much as the selfish, intriguing character of Philip, who acted in the provinces that had declared for Arthur, without any regard to the interests of that prince; and inspired Constantia with a violent jealousy, that he intended to usurp the entire dominion of them *. She therefore found means to carry off her son secretly from Paris; she put him into the hands of his uncle; restored the provinces which had adhered to him; and made him do homage for the duchy of Brittany, which was usually regarded as a royal fief of Normandy. From this incident, Philip saw, that he could not hope to make any progress against John; and being threatened with an interdict on account of his irregular divorce from Ingelburga, the Danish princess whom he had espoused, he became very desirous of concluding a peace with England. After some fruitless conferences, the terms were at last adjusted; and the two monarchs seemed in this treaty to have an intention, besides ending the present quarrel, of preventing all future causes of discord and of obviating every controversy which could hereafter arise between them. They adjusted the limits of all their territories; mutually secured the interests of their vassals; and to render the union more durable, John bestowed his niece, Blanche of Castile, in marriage to prince Lewis, Philip's eldest son, and gave with her the baronies of Iffoudun and Graçai, and other fiefs in Berri. Nine barons of the King of England, and as many of the King of France, were guarantees of this treaty; and all of them swore, that, if their sovereign violated any article of it, they would declare themselves against him, and embrace the cause of the injured monarch †.

The King's marriage.

John, now secure, as he imagined, on the side of France, indulged his passion towards Isabella, the daughter and heir of Aymar Taillefer, count of Angouleme, a lady with whom he had become much enamoured. His Queen, the heiress of the family of Gloucester, was still alive: Isabella was married to the count de la Marche, and was already delivered into the hands of that nobleman; tho', by reason of her tender years, the marriage was not yet consummated. The passion of John made him overlook all these obstacles: He persuaded the

count of Angouleme to carry off his daughter from her husband; and having, on some pretence or other, procured a divorce from his own wife, he espoused Isabella*; regardless both of the menaces of the Pope, who exclaimed against these irregular proceedings, and of the resentment of the injured count, who soon found means to punish his powerful and insolent rival.

* The count de la Marche, and his brother the count d’Eu, taking advantage of the general discontent against him, excited commotions in Poitou and Normandy; and obliged the King to have recourse to arms, in order to suppress the insurrection of his vassals. He summoned together the barons of England, and required them to pass the seas under his standard, and to quell the rebels: He found that he possessed as little authority in that kingdom as in his transmarine provinces. The English barons unanimously replied, that they would not attend him on this expedition, unless he would promise to restore and preserve their privileges: The first symptom of a regular association and plan of liberty among these noblemen! But affairs were not yet fully ripe for the revolution projected. John, by menacing the barons, broke the concert; and both engaged many of them to follow him into Normandy, and obliged the rest, who staid behind, to pay him a scutage of two marks on each knight’s fee, as the price of their exemption from the service.

The force which John carried abroad with him, and that which joined him in Normandy, rendered him much superior to his malecontent barons; and fo much the more, as Philip gave them not publicly any countenance, and seemed as yet determined to persever in the union which he had formed with England. But the King, elated with his superiority, advanced claims, which gave an universal alarm to his vassals, and diffused still wider the general discontent. As the jurisprudence of that time required, that the causes in the lord’s court should chiefly be decided by duel, he carried along with him certain bravos, whom he retained as champions, and whom he destined to fight with his barons, in order to determine any controversy which he might raise against them. The count de la Marche, and the other noblemen, regarded this proceeding as an affront, as well as an injury; and declared, that they would never draw their swords against men of such inferior quality. The King menaced them with ven-

geance; but he had not vigour to employ against them the force in his hands, or to prosecute the injustice, by crushing entirely the nobles who opposed it.

This government, equally feeble and violent, gave courage as well as inclination to the injured barons to carry farther their opposition: They appealed to the King of France; complained of the denial of justice in John's courts; demanded redress from him as their superior lord; and entreated him to employ his authority, and prevent their final ruin and oppression. Philip perceived his advantage, opened his mind to great projects, interposed in behalf of the French barons, and began to talk in a high and menacing style to the King of England. John, who could not disavow Philip's authority, replied, that it belonged to him first to grant them a trial by their peers in his own court; it was not till he failed in this duty, that he was answerable to his peers in the supreme court of the French King *; and he promised, by a fair and equitable judicature, to give satisfaction to his barons. When the nobles, in consequence of this engagement, demanded a safe-conduct, that they might attend his court, he first refused it: Upon the renewal of Philip's menaces, he promised to grant their demand; he violated this promise; fresh menaces extorted from him a promise to surrender to Philip the fortresses of Tillieres and Boutavant, as a security for performance; he violated again this engagement; his enemies, sensible both of his weakness and want of faith, combined still closer in the resolution of pushing him to extremities; and a new and powerful ally soon appeared to encourage them in their invasion of this odious and desppicable government.

The young duke of Brittany, who was now rising to man's estate, sensible of the dangerous character of his uncle, determined to seek both his security and advancement by an union with Philip and the malecontent barons. He joined the French army which had begun hostilities against the King of England: He was received with great marks of distinction by Philip; was knighted by him; espoused his daughter Mary; and was invested not only in the duchy of Brittany, but in the counties of Anjou and Maine, which he had formerly resigned to his uncle †. Every attempt succeeded with the allies. Tillieres and Boutavant were taken by Philip, after making a feeble defence: Mortimar and Lyons fell into his hands almost without resistance. That prince next invested Gournai; and opening the sluices of a lake, which lay in the neighbourhood, poured such a torrent of water into the place, that the garrison deserted it, and the French monarch, without striking a blow, made himself master of that important fortress. The progress of the French arms was rapid, and promised more

* Philipp. lib. 6.  
† Trivet, p. 142.
considerable success than usually in that age attended military enterprises. In answer to every advance which the King of England made towards peace, Philip still infisted, that he should resign all his transmarine dominions to his nephew, and rest contented with the kingdom of England; when an event happened, which seemed to turn the scales in John’s favour, and give him a decisive superiority over his enemies.

Young Arthur, fond of military renown, had broke into Poictou at the head of a small army; and passing near Mirabel, he heard, that his grandmother, Queen Eleanor, who had always opposed his interests, was lodged in that place, and was protected by a weak garrison, and ruinous fortifications*. He immediately determined to lay siege to the fortress, and make himself master of her person: But John, roused from his indolence by so pressing an occasion, collected an army of English and Brabançons, and advanced from Normandy with hasty marches to the relief of the Queen-mother. He fell on Arthur’s camp before that prince was aware of the danger; dispersed his army; took him prisoner, together with the count de la Marche, Geoffrey de Lusignan, and the most considerable of the revolted barons; and returned in triumph to Normandy †. Philip, who was lying before Arques in that duchy, raised the siege, and retired upon his approach ‡. The greater part of the prisoners were sent over to England; but Arthur was shut up in the castle of Falaise.

The King had here a conference with his nephew; represented to him the folly of his pretensions; and required him to renounce the French alliance, which had encouraged him to enter into enmity against all his family: But the brave youth, rendered more haughty from misfortunes, maintained the justice of his cause; asserted his claim, not only to the French provinces, but to the crown of England, and in his turn, required the King to restore the son of his elder brother to the possession of his inheritance¶. John, sensible, from these symptoms of spirit, that the young prince, tho’ now a prisoner, might some time prove a most dangerous enemy, determined to prevent all future peril by dispatching his nephew; and Arthur was never more heard of. The circumstances which attended this deed of darkness, were, no doubt, carefully concealed by the actors, and are variously related by historians: But the most probable account is as follows. The King, it is said, first proposed to William de la Braye, one of his servants, to dispatch Arthur: but William replied, that he was a gentleman, not a hangman; and he positively refused compliance. Another instrument of murder was

† M. Weet. p. 264. ¶ Ibid.
‡ Vid. I. 3 A
found, and was dispatched with proper orders to Falaife; but Hubert de Bourg, chamberlain to the King, and constable to the castle, feigning, that he himself would execute the King's mandate, sent back the assassin, spread the report that the young prince was dead, and publicly performed all the ceremonies of his interment: But finding, that the Bretons vowed vengeance for the murder, and that all the revolted barons persevered more obstinately in their rebellion, he thought it prudent to reveal the secret, and to inform the world that the duke of Brittany was still alive, and in his custody. This discovery proved fatal to the young prince: John first removed him to the castle of Roïen; and coming in a boat, during the night-time, to that place, commanded Arthur to be brought forth to him. The young prince, aware of his danger, and now more subdued by the continuance of his misfortunes, and by the approach of death, threw himself on his knees before his uncle, and begged for mercy: But the barbarous tyrant, making him no reply, stabbed him with his own hands; and fastening a stone to the dead body, threw it into the Seine.

The whole world was struck with horror at this inhuman deed; and from that moment, the King, detested by his subjects, retained a very precarious authority over both the people and the barons in his dominions. The Bretons, enraged at this disappointment in their fond hopes, waged implacable war against him; and fixing the succession of their government, put themselves in a posture to revenge the murder of their sovereign. John had got into his power his niece, Eleanor, sister to Arthur, commonly called the damsel of Brittany; and carrying her over to England, detained her ever after in captivity*: But the Bretons, in despair of recovering this princess, chose Alice for their sovereign; a younger daughter of Constance, by her second marriage with Gui de Thouars; and they entrusted the government of the duchy to that nobleman. Constance, meanwhile, the mother of the murdered prince, seconded by all the states of Brittany, carried their complaints before Philip as their liege-lord, and demanded justice for the inhuman violence committed by John on the person of Arthur, so near a relation, who, notwithstanding the homage which he did to Normandy, was always regarded as one of the chief vassals of the crown. Philip received their application with pleasure; summoned John to stand a trial before him; and on his non-appearance, passed sentence, with the concurrence of the peers, upon that prince; declared him guilty of felony and parricide; and adjudged him to forfeit to his superior lord all his seignories and sefts in France†.

The King of France, whose ambitious and active spirit had been hitherto confined, either by the sound policy of Henry, or the martial genius of Richard, seeing now the opportunity favourable against this base and odious prince, embraced the project of expelling the English, or rather the English King, from France, and of annexing to the crown so many considerable fiefs, which, during several ages, had been dismembered from it. Many of the other great vassals, whose jealousy might have interposed, and have obstructed the execution of this project, were not at present in a situation to oppose it; and the rest either looked on with indifference, or gave their assistance to this dangerous aggrandizement of their superior lord. The earls of Flanders and Blois were engaged in the holy war: The count of Champagne was an infant, and under the guardianship of Philip: The duchy of Brittany, enraged at the murder of their prince, vigorously promoted all his measures: And the general defection of John's vassals made every enterprise easy and successful against him. Philip, after taking several castles and fortresses beyond the Loire, which he either garrisoned or dismanted, received the submissions of the count of Alençon, who deserted John, and delivered up all the places under his command to the French King: Upon which, Philip separated his family, in order to give them some repose after the fatigues of the campaign. John, suddenly collecting some troops, laid siege to Alençon; and Philip, whose dispersed army could not be brought together in time to succour it, saw himself exposed to the disgrace of suffering the oppression of his friend and confederate. But his active and fertile genius found an expedient against this evil. There was held at that very time a tournament at Moret in the Gatinois; whither all the chief nobility of France and the neighbouring countries had resorted, in order to signalize their courage and address. Philip presented himself before them; craved their assistance in his distress; and pointed out the plains of Alençon as the most honourable field, in which they could display their generosity and martial spirit. These valorous knights vowed, that they would take vengeance on the base parricide, the stain of arms and of chivalry; and putting themselves, with all their retinue, under the command of Philip, instantly marched to raise the siege of Alençon. John, hearing of their approach, fled from before the place; and in the hurry abandoned all his tents, machines, and baggage, to the enemy.

This feeble effort was the last exploit of that slothful and cowardly prince for the defence of his dominions. He thenceforth remained in total inactivity at Roiien; and passed all his time, with his young wife, in pastimes and amusements, as if his state had been in the most profound tranquillity, or his affairs in the most prosperous condition. If he ever mentioned war, it was only to give himself
himself vaunting airs, which in the eyes of all men of sense, rendered him still more despicable and ridiculous. *Let the French go on,* said he; *I will retake in a day what has cost them years to acquire*. His stupidity and indolence appeared so extraordinary, that the people endeavoured to account for the infusion by sorcery, and believed, that he was thrown into this lethargy by some magic or witchcraft. The English barons, finding that their time was wasted to no purpose, and that they must suffer the disgrace of seeing, without resistance, the progress of the French arms, withdrew from their colours, and secretly returned to their own country †. No one thought of defending a man, who seemed to have deserted himself; and his subjects looked on his fate with the same indifference, to which, in this pressing exigency, they saw him totally abandoned.

John, while he neglected all domestic resources for his safety, had the mean­ness to betake himself to a foreign power, whose protection he claimed: He applied to the Pope, Innocent III. and entreated him to interpose with his author­ity between him and the French monarch. Innocent, pleased with any occasion of exerting his superiority, sent Philip orders to stop the progress of his arms, and to make peace with the King of England. But the French barons received this message with indignation; disclaimed the temporal authority challenged by the pontiff; and vowed, that they would, to the uttermost, assist their prince against all his enemies: And Philip, seconding their ardour, proceeded, instead of obey­ing the Pope’senvoys, to lay siege to Chateau Gaillard, the most considerable fortress which remained to guard the frontiers of Normandy.

CHATEAU GAILLARD was situated partly on an island in the river Seine, partly on a rock opposite to it; and was secured by every advantage, which either art or nature could bestow upon it. The late King, having cast his eye on this favourable situation, had spared no labour nor expense in fortifying it; and it was defended by Roger de Laci, constable of Chester, a determined officer, at the head of a numerous garrison. Philip, who despaired of taking the place by force, proposed to subdue it by famine; and that he might cut off its communication with the neighbouring country, he threw a bridge across the Seine, while he himself with his army blockaded it by land. The earl of Pembroke, the man of greatest vigour and capacity in the English court, formed a plan for breaking thro’ the French entrenchments, and throwing relief into the place. He carried with him an army of 4000 infantry and 3000 cavalry, and suddenly attacked, with great success, Philip’s camp in the night time; having left orders, that a fleet of seventy flat-bottomed vessels should sail up the Seine, and fall at the same instant.

instant on the bridge. But the wind and the current of the river, by retarding
the vessels, disconcerted this plan of operations; and it was morning before the
fleet appeared; when Pembroke, tho' successful in the beginning of the action,
was already repulsed with considerable loss, and the French King had leisure to
defend himself against these new affailants, who were repulsed in their turn. After
this misfortune, John made no farther efforts for the relief of Chateau Gaillard;
and Philip had all the leisure requisite for conducting and finishing the siege.
Roger de Laci defended himself for a twelvemonth with great obliquity; and
having bravely repulsed every attack, and patiently borne all the hardships of fa-
mine, he was at last overpowered by a sudden assault in the night-time, and made
prisoner of war with his whole garrison *. Philip, who knew how to respect
valour even in an enemy, treated him with the utmost civility; and gave him the
whole city of Paris for the place of his confinement.

When this bulwark of Normandy was once subdued, all the province lay open
to the inroads of Philip; and the King of England despaired of being any longer
able to defend it. He secretly prepared vessels for a scandalous flight; and that
the Normans might no longer doubt of his resolution to abandon them, he or-
dered the fortifications of Pont de l'Arche, Moulineaux, and Montfort l'Ama-
auri to be demolished. Not daring to repose confidence in any of his barons,
whom he believed to be universally engaged in a conspiracy against him, he en-
trusted the government of the province to Archas Martin and Lupicaire, two
mercenary Brabançons, whom he had retained in his service. Philip, now secure
of his prey, pushed his conquests with vigour and success against the dismayed
Normans. Falaise was first besieged; and Lupicaire, who commanded in this
impregnable fortress, after surrendering the place, basely inluced himself with his
troops in the service of Philip, and carried on hostilities against his ancient master.
Caen, Cautance, Seez, Evreux, Baieux soon fell into the hands of the French
monarch, and all the lower Normandy was reduced under his dominion. To for-
ward his enterprizes on the other division of the province, Gui de Thouars, at
at the head of the Bretons, broke into the territory, and took Mount St. Michael,
Avranches, and all the other fortresses in that neighbourhood. The Normans,
who abhorred the French yoke, and who would have defended themselves to the
last extremity, if their prince had appeared to conduct them, found no resource
but in submission; and every city opened its gates, as soon as Philip appeared
before it. Rouen alone, Arques and Verneuil determined to maintain their li-
berties; and formed a confederacy together for mutual defence. Philip began
with the attack of Rouen; and the inhabitants were so inflamed with hatred to

France, that, on the appearance of his army, they fell on all the natives of
that country, whom they found within their walls, and put them to death. But
after the French King had begun his operations with success, and had taken
some of their outworks, the citizens, seeing no resource, offered to capitulate;
and demanded only thirty days to advertize their prince of their danger, and to
require succours against the enemy. Upon the expiration of the term, as no
supply had arrived, they opened their gates to Philip,* and the whole province
soon after imitated their example, and submitted to the victor. Thus was this
important territory reunited to the crown of France, near three centuries after
the cession of it by Charles the Simple to Rollo, the first duke: And the Nor-
mans, sensible that this conquest was probably final, demanded the privilege of
being governed by French laws; which Philip, making a few alterations on the
antient Norman customs, readily granted them. But the French monarch had too
much ambition and genius to stop in his present career of success. He carried his
victorious army into the western provinces; soon reduced Anjou, Maine, Tou-
raine, and part of Poictou under his dominion; and in this manner, the French
crown, during the reign of one able and active prince, received such an accession
of power and grandeur, as, in the ordinary course of things, would have required
it several ages to acquire.

John on his arrival in England, that he might cover the disgrace of his own
conduct, exclaimed loudly against his barons, who, he pretended, had deserted
his standard in Normandy; and he arbitrarily extorted from them a seventh part
of all their moveables, as a punishment for this offence. Soon after he forced
them to grant him a scutage of two marks and a half on each knight's fee for an
expedition into Normandy; but he did not attempt to execute the service, for
which he pretended to exact it. Next year he summoned all the barons of his
realm to attend him on this foreign expedition, and collected the ships from all
the sea-ports; but meeting with opposition from some of his ministers, and re-
penting him of his design, he dismissed both fleet and army, and then renewed
his exclamations against the barons for defering him. He next put to sea with a
small army, and his subjects believed, that he was resolved to expose himself to
the utmost hazards for the defence and recovery of his dominions: But they
were surprized, after a few days, to see him return again into harbour, without
attempting anything. In the subsequent season, he had the courage to carry his
hostile measures a step farther. Gui de Thouars, who governed Brittany, being
jealous of the rapid progress, made by his ally, the French King, promised to

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join the King of England with all his forces; and John ventured abroad with a considerable army, and landed at Rochelle. He marched to Angers; which he took and reduced to ashes. But the approach of Philip with an army threw him into terrors; and he immediately made proposals of peace, and fixed a place of interview with his enemy: But instead of keeping this engagement, he stole off with his army, embarked at Rochelle, and returned, loaded with new shame and disgrace, into England. The mediation of the Pope procured him at last a truce for two years with the French monarch; almost all the transmarine provinces were ravished from him; and his English barons, tho' harassed with arbitrary taxes and fruitless expeditions, saw themselves and their country baffled and affronted in every enterprise.

In an age, when personal valour was regarded as the chief accomplishment, such conduct as that of John, disgraceful at any time, must be exposed to peculiar contempt; and he could thenceforth expect to rule his turbulent vassals with a very doubtful authority. But the government, exercised by the Norman princes, had wound up the royal power to so high a pitch, and so much beyond the usual tenor of the feudal constitutions, that it behoved him to be debased by new affronts and disgraces, ere his barons could entertain the views of conspiring against him, in order to retrench his exorbitant prerogatives. The church, which, at that time, declined not a contest with the most powerful and vigorous monarchs, took first advantage of John's imbecillity; and with the most aggravating circumstances of infolence and scorn, fixed her yoke upon him.

The papal chair was then filled by Innocent III. who, having attained that dignity at the age of thirty-seven years, and being endowed with a lofty and enterprising genius, gave full scope to his ambition, and attempted, perhaps more openly than any of his predecessors, to convert that superiority, which was yielded him by all the European princes, into a real dominion over them. The hierarchy, protected by the Roman pontiff, had already carried to an enormous height its usurpations upon the civil power; but in order to extend them farther, and render them useful to the court of Rome, it was necessary to reduce the ecclesiastics themselves under an absolute monarchy, and to make them entirely dependant on their spiritual leader. For this purpose, Innocent first attempted to impose taxes at pleasure upon the clergy; and in the first year of this century, taking advantage of the popular frenzy for crusades, he sent collectors over all Europe, who levied by his authority the fortieth of all ecclesiastical revenues, for the relief of the holy land, and received the voluntary contributions of the laity to a like amount.

* Rymer, vol. i. p. 141.
amount*. The same year Hubert, archbishop of Canterbury, attempted another innovation, favourable to ecclesiastical and papal power: In the King's absence, he summoned, by his legatine authority, a synod of all the English clergy, contrary to the prohibition of Geoffrey Fitz-Peter, the chief justiciary; and no proper censure was ever passed on this encroachment, the first of the kind, upon the royal power. But a favourable incident soon after happened, which enabled so aspiring a pontiff as Innocent, to extend still farther his usurpations on so contemptible a prince as John.

Hubert, the primate, died in 1205; and as the monks or canons of Christ-church, Canterbury, possessed a right of voting in the election of their archbishop, some of the juniors of the order, who lay in wait for that event, met clandestinely the very night of Hubert's death; and without any congé d'élire from the King, chose Reginald, their sub-prior, for the successor; installed him in the archiepiscopal throne before midnight; and having enjoined him the strictest secrecy, sent him immediately to Rome, in order to solicit the confirmation of his election †. The vanity of Reginald prevailed over his policy; and he no sooner arrived in Flanders, than he revealed to every one the purpose of his journey, which was immediately known in England‡. The King was enraged at the novelty and temerity of the attempt, in filling so important an office without his knowledge or consent: The suffragan bishops of Canterbury, who were accustomed to concur in the choice of their primate, were no less displeased at the exclusion given them in this election: The elder monks of Christ-church were injured by the irregular proceedings of their juniors: The juniors themselves, ashamed of their conduct, and disgusted with the levity of Reginald, who had broke his engagement with them, were willing to set aside his election ‡‡: And all men concurred in the design of remedying the false measures, which had been taken. But as John knew, that this affair would be canvassed before a superior tribunal, where the interposition of royal authority, in bestowing ecclesiastical benefices, was very invidious; where even the cause of suffragan bishops was not so favourable as that of monks; he determined to make the new election entirely unexceptionable: He submitted the affair wholly to the canons of Christ-church; and, departing from the right, claimed by his predecessors, ventured no farther than to inform them privately, that they would do him an acceptable piece of service, if they chose John de Gray, bishop of Norwich, for their primate§. The election of that prelate was accordingly made without a contradictory vote; and

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* Rymer, vol. i. p. 119.
‡ M. Weil. p. 266.
the King, to obviate all contests, endeavoured to persuade the suffragan bishops not to insist on their right of concurring in the election: But these prelates, persevering in their pretensions, sent an agent to maintain their cause before Innocent; while the King, and the convent of Christ-church, dispatched twelve monks of that order to support, before the same tribunal, the election of the bishop of Norwich.

Thus, there lay three different claims before the Pope, whom all parties allowed to be the supreme arbiter of the contest. The claim of the suffragans, being so opposite to the usual maxims of the papal court, was soon set aside: The election of Reginald was so obviously fraudulent and irregular, that there was no possibility of defending it: But Innocent maintained, that, tho' this election was null and invalid, it ought previously to have been declared such by the sovereign pontiff, before the monks could proceed to a new election; and that the choice of the bishop of Norwich was of course as uncanonical as that of his competitor*. Advantage was, therefore, taken of this subtility for introducing a precedent, by which the see of Canterbury, the most important dignity in the church after the papal throne, should be ever after at the disposal of the court of Rome.

While the Pope maintained so many fierce contests, in order to wrest from princes the right of granting investitures, and to exclude laymen from all authority of conferring ecclesiastical benefices, he was supported by the united influence of the clergy, who, aspiring to independance, fought, with all the ardour of ambition, and all the zeal of superstition, under his sacred banners. But no sooner was this point, after a great effusion of blood and the convulsions of many states, established in some tolerable degree, than the victorious leader, as is usual, turned his arms against his own community, and aspired to center all power in his person. By the invention of reserves, provisions, commendams, and other devices, the Pope gradually assumed the right of filling vacant benefices; and the plenitude of his apostolic power, which was not subject to any limitations, supplied all defects of title in the person on whom he bestowed preferment. The canons which regulated elections were purposely rendered intricate and involved: Frequent disputes arose among candidates: Appeals were every day carried to Rome: The apostolic see, besides reaping pecuniary advantages from these contests, often exercised the power of setting aside both the litigants, and on pretence of appeasing faction, nominated a third person, who might be more acceptable to the contending parties.

The present controversy about the election to the see of Canterbury afforded Innocent an opportunity of claiming this right; and he failed not to perceive and avail himself of his advantage. He sent for the twelve monks deputed by the convent to maintain the cause of the bishop of Norwich; and commanded them, under the penalty of excommunication, to chuse for their primate, cardinal Langton, an Englishman by birth, but educated in France, and connected, by his interests and attachments, with the see of Rome*. In vain did the monks represent, that they had received from their convent no authority for this purpose; that an election, without a previous writ from the King, would be deemed highly irregular; and that they were merely agents for another person, whose right they had no power nor pretence to abandon. None of them had the courage to persevere in this opposition, except one, Elias de Brantefield: All the rest, overcome by the menaces and authority of the Pope, complied with his orders, and made the election required of them.

Innocent, sensible that this flagrant usurpation would be highly resented by the court of England, wrote John a mollifying letter; sent him four golden rings set with precious stones; and endeavoured to enhance the value of his present, by informing him of the many mysteries which were implied in it. He begged him to consider seriously the form of the rings, their number, their matter, and their colour. Their form, he said, being round, shadowed out Eternity, which had neither beginning nor end; and he ought thence to learn his duty of aspiring from earthly objects to heavenly, from things temporal to things eternal. The number four, being a square, denoted steadiness of mind, not to be subverted either by adversity or prosperity, fixed for ever on the firm basis of the four cardinal virtues. Gold, which is the matter, being the most precious of metals, signified wisdom, which is the most precious of all accomplishments, and justly preferred by Solomon to riches, power, and all exterior attainments. The blue colour of the emerald represented Faith; the verdure of the saphire, Hope; the redness of the ruby, Charity; and the splendor of the topaz, Good Works†. By these conceits, Innocent endeavoured to repay John for one of the most important prerogatives of his crown, which he had ravished from him; conceits probably admired by Innocent himself. For it is easily possible for a man, especially in a barbarous age, to unite strong talents for business with an absurd taste in science and the arts.

John was enflamed with the utmost rage, when he heard of this attempt of the court of Rome ‡; and he immediately vented his passion on the monks of

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‡ Rymer, vol. i. p. 143.
John.

Christ-church, whom he found inclined to support the election made by their brethren at Rome. He sent Fulk de Cantelupe, and Henry de Cornhulle, two knights of his train, men of violent tempers and rude manners, to expel them from the convent, and to take possession of their revenues. These knights entered the monastery with drawn swords, commanded the prior and the monks to depart the kingdom, and menaced them, that, in case of disobedience, they would instantly burn them with the convent. Innocent, prognosticating, from the violence and imprudence of these measures, that John would finally sink in the contest, persevered the more vigorously in his pretensions, and exhorted the King not to oppose God and the church any longer, nor to persecute that cause for which the holy martyr, St. Thomas, had sacrificed his life, and which had exalted him equal to the highest saints in heaven: A sufficient hint to John to profit by the example of his father, and to remember the prejudices and established principles of his subjects, who bore a profound veneration to that martyr, and regarded his merits as the subject of their chief glory and exultation.

The pontiff, finding that John was not yet sufficiently tamed to submission, sent three prelates, the bishops of London, Ely, and Worcester, to intimate to him, that, if he persevered in his disobedience, Innocent would be obliged to put the kingdom under the sentence of interdict. All the other prelates threw themselves on their knees before him, and entreated him, with tears in their eyes, to prevent the scandal of this sentence, by making a speedy submission to his spiritual Father, by receiving from his hands the new elected primate, and by restoring the monks of Christ-church to all their rights and possessions. He burst out into the most indecent invectives against the prelates; swore by God's teeth, his usual oath, that if the Pope presumed to put his kingdom under an interdict, he would send to him all the bishops and clergy of England, and would confiscate all their estates; and threatened, that, if thenceforth he caught any Romans in his dominions, he would put out their eyes, and cut off their noses, in order to set a mark upon them, which might distinguish them from all other nations.

Amidst all this idle violence, John stood on such bad terms with his nobility, that he never dared to assemble the states of the kingdom, who, in so just a cause, would probably have adhered to any other monarch, and have defended with vigour the liberties of the nation against these palpable usurpations of the court of Rome. Innocent, therefore, perceiving the King's weaknesses, issued at last the sentence of interdict, which he had for some time held suspended over him.

M. Wasl. p. 268.
The sentence of interdict was at that time the great instrument of vengeance
and policy employed by the court of Rome; was pronounced against sovereigns
for the lightest offences; and made the guilt of one person involve the ruin of
millions, even in their spiritual and eternal welfare. The execution of it was
artificially calculated to strike the senses in the highest degree, and to operate with
irresistible force on the superstitious minds of the people. The nation was of a
sudden deprived of all exterior exercise of its religion: The altars were despoiled
of their ornaments: The crosses, the relics, the images, the statues of the
saints were laid on the ground; and as if the air itself were profaned, and might
pollute them by its contact, the priests carefully covered them up, even from
their own approach and veneration. The use of bells entirely ceased in all the
churches: The bells themselves were removed from the steeples, and laid on the
ground with the other sacred utensils. Mass was celebrated with shut doors; and
none but the priests were admitted to that holy institution. The laity partook
of no religious rite, except baptism to new-born infants, and the communion to
the dying: The dead were not interred in consecrated ground: They were thrown
into ditches, or buried in common fields; and their obsequies were not attended
with prayers or any hallowed ceremony. Marriage was celebrated in the church-
yards; and that every action in life might bear the marks of this dreadful situation,
the people were prohibited the use of meat, as in Lent, or times of the
highest penance; were debarred from all pleasures and entertainments; and were
forbid even to salute each other, or so much as to shave their beards, and give
any decent attention to their persons and apparel. Every circumstance carried the
symptoms of the deepest distress, and of the most immediate apprehensions of
divine vengeance and indignation.

The King, that he might oppose his temporal to their spiritual terrors, im-
mediately, from his own authority, confiscated the estates of all the clergy who
obeyed the interdict; banished the prelates, confined the monks to their con-
vent, and gave them only such a small allowance from their own estates, as would
sufficiently provide them in food and raiment. He treated with the utmost rigour
all Langton's adherents, and every one who showed any disposition to obey the
orders of Rome: And that he might distress the clergy in the tenderest point,
and at the same time expose them to reproach and ridicule, he threw into prison
all their concubines, and required high fines and confiscations as the price of their
liberty.

After the canons, which established the celibacy of the clergy, were, by the
zealous endeavours of archbishop Anselm, more rigorously executed in England,
the ecclesiastics gave, almost universally and avowedly, into the use of concubinage; and the court of Rome, which had no interest in prohibiting this practice, made a very slight opposition to it. The custom was become so prevalent, that in some cantons of Switzerland, before the reformation, the laws not only permitted, but, to avoid scandal, enjoined the use of concubines to the younger clergy *; and it was usual everywhere for priests to apply to their ordinary, and obtain from him a formal liberty for this indulgence. The bishop commonly took care to prevent this practice from degenerating into licentiousness: He confined the priest to the use of one woman, required him to be constant to her bed, obliged him to provide for her subsistence and that of her children; and, tho' the offspring was, in the eye of the law, deemed illegitimate this commerce was really a kind of inferior marriage, such as is still practised in Germany among the nobles; and may be regarded by the candid as an appeal from the tyranny of civil and ecclesiastical institutions, to the more virtuous and more unerring laws of nature.

The quarrel between the King and the see of Rome continued for some years; and tho' many of the clergy, from the fear of punishment, obeyed the orders of John, and celebrated divine service, they complied with the utmost reluctance, and were regarded, both by themselves and the people, as men who betrayed their principles, and sacrificed their conscience to temporal regards and interests. During this violent situation, the King, in order to give lustre to his government, attempted military expeditions, against Scotland, against Ireland, against the Welth †; and he commonly prevailed, more from the weakness of his enemies than from his own vigour or abilities. Meanwhile, the danger to which his government stood continually exposed from the discontents of the ecclesiastics, increased his natural propensity to tyranny; and he seems even wantonly to have disgusted all orders of men, especially his nobles, from whom alone he could reasonably expect support and assistance. He dishonoured their families by his licentious amours; he published edicts, prohibiting them from hunting feathered game, and thereby restrained them from their favourite occupation and amusement ‡; he ordered all the hedges and fences near his forests to be levelled, that his deer might have more ready access into the fields for pasture; and he continually loaded the nation with arbitrary taxes and impositions. Conscious of the general hatred which he had incurred, he required his nobility to give him hostages for security of their allegiance; and they were obliged to put into his hands their sons, or nephews, or near relations. When his messengers came with like orders to the castle of William de Braoufe, a baron of great note, the lady of that

nobleman replied, that she would never entrust her son into the hands of one who had murdered his own nephew, while in his custody. Her husband reproved her for the severity of this speech; but, sensible of his danger, he immediately fled with his wife and son into Ireland, where he endeavoured to conceal himself. The King discovered the unhappy family in their retreat; seized the wife and son, whom he starved to death in prison; and the baron himself narrowly escaped, by flying into France.

The church of Rome had artificially contrived a gradation of sentences, by which she kept offenders in awe, still afforded them an opportunity of preventing the next anathema by submission; and in case of their obstinacy, was able to refresh the horror of the people against them, by new denunciations of the wrath and vengeance of heaven. As the sentence of interdict had not operated the desired effect on John, and as his people, the extremely discontented, had hitherto been restrained from rising into open rebellion against him, he was soon to look for the sentence of excommunication: And he had reason to apprehend, that, notwithstanding all his precautions, the most dangerous consequences might ensue from it. He was witness of the other scenes, which, at that very time, were acting in Europe, and which displayed the unbounded and uncontrouled power of the papacy. Innocent, far from being dismayed at his contests with the King of England, had excommunicated the Emperor Otho, John's nephew; and soon brought that powerful and haughty prince to submit to his authority. He published a crusade against the Albigeneses, a species of enthusiasts in the south of France, whom he denominated heretics, because, like other enthusiasts, they neglected the rites of the church, and opposed the power and influence of the clergy. The people from all parts of Europe, moved by their superstition and their passion for wars and adventures, flocked to his standard: Simon de Montfort, the general of the crusade, acquired to himself a sovereignty in these provinces: The count de Tholouse, who protected the Albigeneses, was despoiled of his dominions: And these sectaries themselves, tho' the most innocent and inoffensive of mankind, were exterminated with all the circumstances of the most extreme violence and barbarity. Here was therefore both an army and a general, dangerous from their zeal and valour, ready to act against John; and Innocent, after keeping the thunder long suspended gave at last authority to the bishops of London, Ely, and Worcester, to denounce the sentence of excommunication against him. These prelates obeyed; tho' their brethren were deterred from


publishing,
publishing, as the Pope required of them, the sentence in the several churches of their dioceses.

No sooner was the excommunication known, than the effects of it appeared. Geoffrey, archdeacon of Norwich, who was entrusted with a considerable office in the court of exchequer, being informed of it while sitting on the bench, observed to his brethren the danger of serving under an excommunicated King; and he immediately left his chair, and departed the court. John gave orders to seize him, to throw him into prison, to cover his head with a great leaden cope; and by this and other severe usage, he soon put an end to his life*: Nor was there anything wanting to Geoffrey, except the dignity and rank of Becket, to exalt him to an equal station in heaven with that great and celebrated martyr. Hugh de Wells, the King's chancellor, being elected, by his appointment, bishop of Lincoln, upon a vacancy in that see, desired leave to go abroad, in order to receive consecration from the archbishop of Rouen; but he no sooner reached France, than he hastened to Pontigny, where Langton then resided, and paid submission to him as his primate. The bishops, finding themselves exposed equally to the jealousy of the King and hatred of the people, gradually stole out of the kingdom; and at last there remained only three prelates to perform the functions of the episcopal office†. Many of the nobility, terrified with John's tyranny, and obnoxious to him on one account or other, imitated the example of the bishops; and most of the others, who remained, were with reason suspected of having secretly entered into a confederacy against him‡. John was alarmed at his dangerous situation; a situation, which prudence, vigour, and popularity, might formerly have prevented, but which no virtues nor abilities were now sufficient to remedy. He desired a conference with Langton at Dover; offered to acknowledge him as primate, to submit to the Pope, to restore the exiled clergy, even to pay them a limited sum of money as a compensation for the rents of their confiscated estates. But Langton, perceiving his advantage, was not satisfied with these concessions: He demanded, that full restitution and reparation should be made to all the clergy; a condition so exorbitant, that the King, who probably had not the power of fulfilling it, and who foresaw that this estimation of damages might amount to an infinite sum, finally broke off the conference||.

The next gradation of papal sentences was to absolve John's subjects from their oaths of fidelity and allegiance, and to declare every one excommunicated

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who had any commerce with him, in public or in private; at his table, in his
council, or even in private conversation*: And this sentence was accordingly,
with all imaginable solemnity, denounced against him. But as John still perpe-
tuated in his contumacy, there remained nothing but the sentence of deposition;
which, tho' intimately connected with the former, had been distinguished from
it by the artifice of the Romish church; and Innocent determined to dart this
last thunder-bolt against the refractory monarch. But as a sentence of this kind
required an armed force to execute it, the pontiff, casting his eyes around, pitched
at last on Philip, King of France, as the person, into whose powerful hand he
could most properly entrust that weapon, the ultimate resource of his ghastly
authority. And he proffered that monarch, besides the remission of all his sins
and endless spiritual benefits, the property and possession of the kingdom of Eng-
land, as the reward of his labour†.

It was the common concern of all princes to oppose these exorbitant pretensions
of the Roman pontiff, by which they themselves were rendered vassals, and vassals
totally dependant, of the papal crown: Yet even Philip, the most able monarch
of the age, was seduced, by present interest, and by the prospect of so tempting a
prize, to accept this liberal offer of the pontiff, and thereby to ratify that author-
ity, which, if he ever opposed its boundless usurpations, might, next day, tumble
him from the throne. He levied a great army; summoned all the vassals of his
crown to attend him at Roüen; collected a fleet of 1700 vessels, great and small,
in the sea-ports of Normandy and Picardy; and partly from the zeal of the age,
partly from the personal regard, universally paid him, prepared a force, which
seemed equal to the greatness of his enterprise. The King, on the other hand,
issued out writs, requiring the attendance of all his military vassals at Dover, and
even of all able-bodied men, to defend the kingdom in this dangerous extremity.
An infinite number appeared; of whom he selected an army of 60,000 men; a
power invincible, had they been united in affections to their prince, and animated
with a becoming zeal for the defence of their native country‡. But the people
were swayed by superstition, and regarded their King with horror, as anathematized
by papal censures: The barons, besides lying under the same prejudices, were all
disgusted with his tyranny, and were, many of them, suspected of holding a
secret correspondence with the enemy: And the incapacity and cowardice of
the king himself, ill fitted to struggle with those mighty difficulties, made men
prognosticate the most fatal effects from the French invasion.


Pandolf,
Pandolf, whom the Pope had chosen for his legate, and appointed to head this important expedition, had, before he left Rome, applied for a secret conference with his master, and had asked him, whether, if the King of England, in this desperate situation, were willing to submit to the apostolic see, he should grant him any terms of accommodation? Innocent, who expected more advantages from his agreement with a prince so obdurate both in character and fortune, than from his alliance with a great and victorious monarch, who, after such mighty acquisitions, might become too haughty to be bound by spiritual chains, explained to Pandolf the conditions on which he was willing to be reconciled to the King of England. The legate, therefore, as soon as he arrived in the north of France, sent over two knights templars to desire an interview with John at Dover, which was readily granted; and he there represented to him, in such strong, and probably in such true colours, his lost condition, the disaffection of his subjects, the secret combination of his vassals against him, the mighty armament of France, that John yielded at discretion, and subscribed to all the conditions which Pandolf was pleased to impose upon him. He promised, among other articles, that he would submit himself entirely to the judgment of the Pope; that he would acknowledge Langton for primate; that he would restore all the exiled clergy and laity, who had been banished on account of the contest; that he would make them full restitution of their goods, and compensation for all damages, and instantly confign eight thousand pounds, in part of payment; and that every one outlawed or imprisoned for their adherence to the Pope, should immediately be received into grace and favour.

But the ignominy of the King was not yet carried to its full height. Pandolf, as the first specimen of his deference to the Pope's orders, required him to resign his kingdom to the church, and he persuaded him, that he could no way so effectually disappoint the French invasion, as by thus putting himself under the immediate protection of the apostolic see. John, lying under the agonies of present terror, made no scruple of submitting to this condition. He passed a charter, in which he said, that, not constrained by fear, but of his own free-will, and by the common advice and consent of his barons, he had, for the remission of his own sins and those of his family, resigned England and Ireland to God, to St. Peter and St. Paul, and to Pope Innocent and his successors in the apostolic chair: He agreed to hold these dominions as feudatory of the church of Rome, by the

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* M. Paris, p. 162.  
† M. West. p. 271.  
‡ Rymer, vol. i. p. 466.  
annual
annual payment of a thousand marks; seven hundred for England, three hundred for Ireland: And he stipulated, that if he or his successors should ever presume to revoke or infringe this charter, they should instantly, except upon admonition they repented them of their offence, forfeit all right to their dominions.

In consequence of this agreement, John did homage to Pandolf as the Pope's legate, with all the humiliating rites which the feudal law required of vassals before their liege-lord and superior. He came disarmed into the legate's presence, who was seated on a throne; he flung himself on his knees before him; he lifted up his joined hands, and put them within those of Pandolf; he swore fealty to the Pope; and he paid part of the tribute, which he owed for his kingdom as the patrimony of St. Peter. The legate, elated by this supreme triumph of sacerdotal power, could not forbear discovering extravagant symptoms of joy and exultation: He trampled on the money, which was laid at his feet as an earnest of the subjection of the kingdom: An insolence, which, however offensive to all the English, no one present, except the archbishop of Dublin, dared take any notice of. But tho' Pandolf had brought the King to submit to these base conditions, he still refused to take off the excommunication and interdict, till an restitution should be taken of the losses of the ecclesiastics, and full compensation and restitution should be made them.

John, reduced to this abject situation under a foreign power, still showed the same disposition to tyranny over his subjects, which had been the chief cause of all his misfortunes. One Peter of Pomfret, a hermit, had foretold, that the King, this very year, should lose his crown; and for that rash prophecy, he had been thrown into prison in Corfe-castle. John now determined to bring him to punishment as an impostor: and tho' the man pleaded, that this prophecy was fulfilled, and that the King had lost the royal and independant crown which he formerly wore, the defence was supposed to augment his guilt: He was dragged at horses tails to the town of Warham, and there hanged on a gibbet with his son.

When Pandolf, after receiving the homage of John, returned to the court of France, he congratulated Philip on the success of his pious enterprise; and informed him, that John, moved by the terror of the French arms, had now come to a just sense of his guilt; had returned to obedience under the apostolic see; had even consented to do homage to the Pope for his dominions; and having

thus made his kingdom a part of St. Peter's patrimony, had rendered it impos-
possible for any Christian prince, without the most manifest and most flagrant im-
piety, to attack him *. Philip was in a rage on receiving this intelligence: He ex-
claimed, that having, at the Pope's insigitation, undertaken an expedition, which had cost him above 60,000 pounds sterling, he was frustrated of his pur-
pose, at the time when its success was become infallible: He complained, that all the expence had fallen upon him; all the advantage had accrued to Innocent:
He threatened to be no longer the dupe of these hypocritical pretences: And af-
sembling his vaillants, he laid before them the ill treatment which he had received, exposed the interested and fraudulent conduct of the Pope, and required their af-
sistance to execute his enterprise against England, in which, he told them, that,
notwithstanding the inhibitions and menaces of the legate, he was determined to per-
severe. The French barons were in that age little less ignorant and superstiti-
ous than the English: Yet, so much does the influence of these religious prin-
ciples depend on the present disposition of men's minds! they all vowed to follow
their prince on his intended expedition, and were resolute not to be disappointed
of that glory and those riches, which they had long expected from this enter-
prise. The earl of Flanders alone, who had previously formed a secret treaty
with John, declaring against the injustice and impiety of the undertaking, with-
drew with his forces †; and Philip, that he might not leave so dangerous an
enemy behind him, first turned his arms against the dominions of that prince.
Meanwhile, the English fleet was assembled under the earl of Salisbury, the King's
natural brother, and tho' inferior in number, received orders to attack the French
in their harbours: Salisbury performed this service with so much success, that he
took three hundred ships; destroyed a hundred more ‡: And Philip, finding it
impossible to prevent the rest from falling into the hands of the enemy, set fire to
them himself, and thereby rendered it impossible for him to proceed any farther
in his enterprise.

John, exulting in his present security, insensible to his past disgrace, was so
elated with this success, that he thought of no less than invading France in his
turn, and of recovering all those provinces which the prosperous arms of Philip had
formerly ravished from him. He proposed this expedition to the barons, who
were already assembled for the defence of the kingdom. But the English barons
both hated and despised their prince: They prognosticated no success to any en-
terprise conducted by such a leader: And pretending, that their time of service
was elapsed, and all their provisions exhausted, they refused to second his under-

* Trivet, p. 160. † M. Paris, p. 166. ‡ M. Paris, p. 166. Chron. Dunst,
The King, however, resolute in his purpose, embarked with a few followers, and failed to Jersey, in the foolish notion, that the barons would at last be ashamed to stay behind. But finding himself disappointed, he returned to England; and raising some troops, threatened to take vengeance on all his nobles for their desertion and disobedience. The archbishop of Canterbury, who was in a confederacy with the nobles, here interposed; strictly inhibited the King from thinking of such an attempt; and threatened him with a renewal of the sentence of excommunication, if he pretended to levy war upon any of his subjects, before the kingdom was freed from the sentence of interdict.

The church had dissolved the several anathemas pronounced against John, by the same gradual progress with which she had at first issued them. By receiving his homage, and admitting him to the rank of vassal, his deposition was annulled, and his subjects were again bound by their oaths of allegiance. The exiled prelates then returned in great triumph, with Langton at their head; and the King, hearing of their approach, went forth to meet them, and throwing himself on the ground before them, he entreated them with tears to have compassion on him and the kingdom of England. The primate, seeing these marks of sincere penitence, led him to the chapter-house of Winchester, and there administered an oath to him, by which he again swore fealty and obedience to Pope Innocent and his successors; promised to love, maintain, and defend holy church and the clergy; engaged, that he would re-establish the good laws of his ancestors, particularly those of St. Edward, and would abolish the wicked ones; and expressed his resolution of maintaining justice and right in all his dominions. The primate next gave him absolution in the requisite forms, and admitted him to dine with him, to the great joy of all the people. The sentence, however, of interdict was still upheld against the kingdom. A new legate, Nicholas, bishop of Frescati, came into England, in the place of Pandolf; and he declared it to be the Pope's intentions never to loosen that sentence, till full restitution was made to the clergy of every thing taken from them, and ample reparation for all damages which they had sustained. He only permitted mass to be said with a low voice in the churches, till these losses and damages could be estimated to the satisfaction of the parties. Certain barons were appointed to take an account of the claims; and John was astonished at the greatness of the sums, to which the clergy made their losses to amount. No less than twenty thousand marks were demanded by the monks of Canterbury alone; twenty-three thousand for the see


Brady's Append. No. 103, 104.
of Lincoln*; and the King, finding these pretensions to be infinite and endless, proffered the clergy the sum of an hundred thousand marks for a final acquittal. The clergy rejected the offer with disdain; but the Pope, willing to favour his new vassal, whom he found zealous in his declarations of fealty, and regular in paying the stipulated tribute to Rome, directed his legate to accept of forty thousand †. The issue of the whole was, that the bishops and considerable abbots got reparation beyond what they had any title to demand: The inferior clergy were obliged to sit down contented with their losses‡: And the King, after the sentence of interdict was taken off, renewed, in the most solemn manner, and by a new charter, sealed with gold, his professions of homage and obedience to the see of Rome.||

When this vexatious affair was at last brought to a conclusion, the King, as if he had nothing farther to attend to but triumphs and victories, went over to Poitou, which still acknowledged his authority§; and he carried war into Philip's dominions. He besieged a castle near Angiers; but the approach of prince Lewis, Philip's son, obliged him to raise the siege with such precipitation, that he left his tents, machines, and baggage behind him; and he returned to England with disgrace. About the same time, he heard of the great and decisive victory gained by the King of France at Bovines over the Emperor Otto, who had entered France at the head of 150,000 Germans; a victory which established for ever the glory of Philip, and gave full security to all his dominions. John could therefore think henceforth of nothing farther, than of ruling peaceably his own kingdom; and his close conjunction with the Pope, which he was determined at any price to maintain, ensured him, as he imagined, the certain attainment of this object. But the last and most grievous scene of this prince's misfortunes still awaited him; and he was destined to pass thro' a series of more humiliating circumstances than had ever yet fallen to the lot of any other monarch.

The introduction of the feudal law into England by William the Conqueror had much infringed the liberties, however imperfect, enjoyed by the Anglo-Saxons in their ancient government, and had reduced the whole people to a state of vassalage under the King or barons, and even the greatest part of them to a real state of slavery. The necessity also of devolving great power into the hands of a prince, who was to maintain a military dominion over a vanquished nation, had engaged the Norman barons to submit to a more rigorous and absolute authority, than that to which men of their rank, in other feudal governments, were

commonly subjected. The prerogatives of the crown, once raised to a high pitch, were not easily reduced; and the nation, during the course of an hundred and fifty years, had groaned under a tyranny, unknown to all the kingdoms founded by the northern conquerors. 

Henry I., that he might allure the people to give an exclusion to his elder brother Robert, had granted them a charter, favourable in many particulars to their liberties; Stephen had renewed this grant; Henry II. had confirmed it: But the concessions of all these princes had still remained without effect; and the same unlimited, at least irregular authority, continued to be exercised both by them and their successors. The only happiness was, that arms were never yet ravished from the hands of the barons and people: The nation, by a great confederacy, might still vindicate its liberties: And nothing was more likely, than the character, conduct, and fortunes of the present sovereign, to produce such a general union and combination against him. 

Equally odious and contemptible, both in public and private life, he affronted the barons by his insolence, disdained their families by his gallantries, enraged them by his tyranny, and gave discontent to all ranks of men by his endless exactions and impositions. The effect of these lawless practices had already appeared in the general demand made by the barons of a restoration of their privileges; and after he had reconciled himself to the Pope, by abandoning the independance of the kingdom, he appeared to all the world in so mean a light, that they universally thought they might with safety and honour insist upon their pretensions.

But nothing forwarded this confederacy so much as the concurrence of Langdon, archbishop of Canterbury; a man, whose memory, tho' he was obtruded on the nation by a palpable incroachment of the see of Rome, ought always to be respected by the English. This prelate, whether he was moved by the generosily of his nature and his affection to public good; or had entertained an animosity against John, on account of the long opposition made by that prince to his election; or thought, that an acquisition of liberty to the people would serve to increase and secure the privileges of the church; had formed the plan of reforming the government, and had prepared the way for that great innovation, by inserting those singular clauses above-mentioned in the oath, which he administered to the King, before he would absolve him from the sentence of excommunication. Soon after, in a private meeting of some principal barons at London, he showed them a copy of Henry I.'s charter, which, he said, he had happily found in a monastery; and he exhorted them to insist on the renewal and observance of it: The barons swore, that they would sooner lose their lives than

depart from so reasonable a demand*. The confederacy began now to spread wider, and to comprehend almost all the barons of England; and a new and more numerous meeting was summoned by Langton at St. Edmundsbury, under colour of devotion. He again produced to the assembly the old charter of Henry; renewed his exhortations of unanimity and vigour in the prosecution of their purpose; and represented in the strongest colours the tyranny to which they had so long been subjected, and from which it now behoved them to free themselves and their posterity †. The barons, inflamed by his eloquence, incited by the sense of their wrongs, and encouraged by the appearance of their power and numbers, solemnly took an oath before the high altar, to adhere to each other, to insist on their demands, and to make endless war on the King, till he should submit to grant them ‡. They agreed, that, after the festival of Christmas, they would prefer in a body their common petition; and in the mean time, they separated, after mutually promising, that they would put themselves in a posture of defence, would inlist men and purchase arms, and would supply their castles with the necessary provisions.

The barons appeared in London on the day appointed; and demanded of the King, that, in consequence of his own oath before the primate, as well as in deference to their just rights, he would grant them a renewal of Henry’s charter, and a confirmation of the laws of St. Edward. The King, alarmed with their zeal and unanimity, as well as with their power, required a delay; promised, that at the festival of Easter, he would give them a positive answer to their petition; and offered them the archbishop of Canterbury, the bishop of Ely, and the earl of Pembroke, the Mareschal, as sureties for his fulfilling this engagement¶. The barons accepted of the terms, and peaceably returned to their castles.

During this interval, John, in order to break or subdue the league of his barons, endeavoured to avail himself of the ecclesiastical power, of whose influence he had, from his own recent misfortunes, had such fatal experience. He granted to the clergy a charter, abandoning for ever that important prerogative, for which his father and all his ancestors had zealously contended; yielding to them the free election on all vacancies; referring only the power to issue a congé d’élire, and to subjoin a confirmation of the election; and declaring, that, if either of these were with-held, the choice should nevertheless be deemed just and:

valid *. He made a vow to lead an army into Paleflme against the infidels, and
he took on him the crofs; in hopes, that he would receive from the church that
protection, which she tendered to every one that had entered into this sacred and
meritorious engagement †. And he sent to Rome his agent, William de Mau­
clerc, in order to appeal to the Pope against the tyranny of his barons, and pro­
cure him a favourable sentence from that powerful tribunal ‡. The barons also
were not negligent on their part in endeavouring to engage the Pope in their in­
terests: They dispatched Euftace de Vefcie to Rome; laid their case before In­
nocent as their feudal lord; and petitioned him to interpose his authority with
the King, and oblige him to restore and confirm all their just and undoubted
privileges §.

Innocent beheld with regret the disturbances which had arisen in England,
and was much inclined to favour John in his pretensions. He had no other hopes
of retaining and extending his newly acquired superiority over that kingdom, but
by supporting so base and degenerate a prince, who was willing to sacrifice every
consideration to his present safety; and he foresaw, that, if the administration
fell into the hands of these gallant and high-spirited barons, they would vindi­
cate the honour, liberty, and independance of the nation, with the same ardour
which they now exerted in defence of their own. He wrote letters therefore to
the prelates, to the nobility, and to the King himself. He exhorted the first to
employ their good offices in conciliating peace between the contending parties,
and putting an end to civil discord: To the second, he expressed his disapproba­
tion of their conduct in employing force to extort concessions from their reluctant
sovereign: The last, he advised to treat his nobles with grace and indulgence,
and to grant them such of their demands as should appear just and reasonable §.

The barons easily saw, from the tenor of these letters, that they must lay their
account with having the Pope, as well as the King, for their adversary; but
they had already advanced too far to recede from their pretensions, and their pas­
sions were so deeply engaged, that it exceeded even the power of superstition itself
any longer to controul them. They also foresaw, that the thunders of Rome,
when not seconded by the efforts of the English ecclesiastics, would be of small
avail against them; and they perceived, that the most considerable of the pre­
lates, as well as all the inferior clergy, professed the highest approbation of their
caufe. Besides, that these men were seized with the national passion for laws and
liberty; blessings, of which they themselves expected to partake; there concur­

* Rymer, vol. i. p. 197.
† Rymer, vol. i. p. 200. Trivet, p. 162. T. Wykes,
‡ Rymer, vol. i. p. 184.
§ Ibid.

red
red very powerful caufes to loosen their devoted attachment to the apostolic see.

It appeared from all the late ufurpations of the Roman pontiff, that he pretended to reap alone all the advantages accruing from that victory, which, under his banners, tho' at their own hazard, they had everywhere obtained over the civil magistrate. The Pope assumed a despotic power over all the churches: Their particular customs, privileges, and immunities, were treated with disdain: Even the canons of general councils were set aside by his dispensing power: The whole administration of the church was centered in the court of Rome: All preferments ran of course in the same channel: And the provincial clergy, at least felt, that there was a necessity of limiting these exorbitant pretensions. The legate, Nicholas, in filling those numerous vacancies which had fallen in England during an interdict of six years, had proceeded in the most arbitrary manner; and had paid no regard, in conferring dignities, to personal merit, to rank, to the inclination of the electors, or to the customs of the country. The English church was universally disgusted; and Langton himself, tho' he owed his elevation to an incroachment of the Romish see, was no sooner established in his high office, than he became jealous of the privileges annexed to it, and formed attachments with the country subjected to his jurisdiction. These caufes, tho' they opened slowly the eyes of men, failed not to produce their effect: They set bounds to the usurpations of the papacy: The tide first stopped, and then turned against the sovereign pontiff: And it is otherwise inconceivable, how that age, so prone to superstition, and so sunk in ignorance, or rather so devoted to a spurious erudition, could have escaped falling into an absolute and total slavery under the court of Rome.

About the time that the Pope's letters arrived in England, the malecontent barons, on the approach of the festival of Easter, when they were to expect the King's answer to their petitions, met by agreement at Stamford; and they assembled a force, consisting of above 2000 knights, besides their retainers and inferior persons without number. Elated with their power, they advanced in a body to Brackley, within fifteen miles of Oxford, the place where the court then resided; and they there received a message from the King, by the archbishop of Canterbury and the earl of Pembroke, desiring to know what those liberties were which they so zealously challenged from their sovereign. They delivered to these messengers a schedule, containing the chief articles of their demands; which was no sooner shown to the King, than he burst into a furious passion, and asked, why the barons did not also demand of him his kingdom? swearing, that he would never grant them such liberties as must reduce himself to slavery *.

* M. Paris, p. 176.
No sooner were the confederated nobles informed of John's refusal, than they chose Robert Fitz-Walter for general, whom they called the Marshal of the army of God and of holy Church; and they proceeded without further ceremony to make war upon the King. They besieged the castle of Northampton during fifteen days, tho' without success*: The gates of Bedford castle were willingly opened to them by William Beauchamp, its owner: They advanced to Ware in their way to London, where they held a correspondence with the principal citizens: They were received without opposition into that capital: And finding now the great superiority of their force, they issued out proclamations, requiring the other barons to join them, and menacing them, in case of refusal or delay, with committing devastation on their houses and estates †. In order to show them what they might expect from their prosperous arms, they made incursions from London, and laid waste the King's parks and palaces; and all the barons, who had hitherto carried the semblance of supporting the royal party, were glad of this pretence to join openly a cause, which they always had secretly favoured. The King was left at Odiham in Surrey with a poor retinue of only seven knights: and after trying several expedients to elude the blow, after offering to refer all differences to the Pope alone, or to eight barons, four to be chosen by himself, and four by the confederates ‡, he found himself at last obliged to submit at discretion.

A conference between the King and the barons was appointed at Runnymede, between Windsor and Staines; a place which has ever since been extremely celebrated, on account of this great event. The two parties encamped apart, like open enemies; and after a debate of a few days, the King, with a facility which was somewhat suspicous, signed and sealed the charter which was required of him. This famous deed, commonly called the Great Charter, either granted or secured very important liberties and privileges to every order of men in the kingdom, to the clergy, to the barons, and to the people.

The freedom of elections was secured to the clergy: The former charter of the King was confirmed, by which the necessity of a royal congé d'élire and confirmation was superfluous: All check upon appeals to Rome was removed, by the allowance granted every man to depart the kingdom at pleasure: And the fines upon the clergy, for any offence, were ordained to be proportional to their lay estates, not to their ecclesiastical benefices.

The privileges granted to the barons were either abatements in the rigors of the feudal law, or determinations in points which had been left by that law, or

had become by practice, arbitrary and ambiguous. The reliefs of heirs succeeding to a military fee were ascertained; an earl's and baron's at an hundred marks, a knight's at an hundred shillings. It was ordained by the charter, that, if the heir be a minor, he shall, immediately upon his majority, enter upon his estate, without paying any relief: The King shall not sell his wardship: He shall only reasonably profit upon the estate, without committing waste or hurting the property: He shall uphold the castles, houses, mills, parks and ponds: And if he commit the guardianship of the estate to the sheriff or any other, he shall previously oblige them to find surety to the same purpose. During the minority of a baron, while his lands are in wardship, and are not in his own possession, no debt which he owes to the Jews shall bear any interest. Heirs shall be married without disparagement; and before the marriage be contracted, the nearest relations of the persons shall be informed of it. A widow, without paying any relief, shall enter upon her dower, the third part of her husband's rents: She shall not be compelled to marry, so long as she chooses to continue single; she shall only give security never to marry without her lord's consent. The King shall not claim the wardship of any minor, who holds lands by military tenure of a baron, on pretence that he also holds lands of the crown, by soccage or any other tenure. Scutages shall be estimated at the same rate as in the time of Henry I.; and no scutage or aid, except in the three general feudal cases, the King's captivity, the knighting his eldest son, and the marrying his eldest daughter, shall be imposed but by the great council of the kingdom; the prelates, earls, and great barons, shall be called to this great council, each by a particular writ; the lesser barons by a general summons of the sheriff. The King shall not seize any baron's land for a debt to the crown, if the baron possesses as many goods and chattels as are sufficient to discharge that debt. No man shall be obliged to perform more service for his fee than he is bound to by his tenure. No governor or constable of a castle shall oblige any knight to give money for castle-guard, if he is willing to perform the service in person, or by another able-bodied man; and if the knight be in the field himself, by the King's command, he shall be exempt from all other service of this nature. No vassal shall be allowed to sell so much of his land as to incapacitate himself from performing his service to his lord.

These were the principal articles, which were calculated for the interests of the barons; and had the charter contained nothing farther, national happiness and liberty had been very little promoted by it, as it would only have tended to increase the power and independance of an order of men, who were already too powerful, and whose yoke might have become more heavy on the people...
than even that of an absolute monarch. But the barons, who alone drew and imposed on the prince this memorable charter, were necessitated to insert in it other clauses of a more extensive and more beneficent nature: They could not expect the concurrence of the people, without comprehending, together with their own, the interests of inferior ranks of men; and all provisions, which the barons, for their own sakes, were obliged to make, in order to ensure the free and equitable administration of justice, tended directly to the benefit of the whole community. The following were the principal clauses of this nature.

It was ordained, that all the privileges and immunities above mentioned, granted to the barons against the King, should be extended by the barons to their inferior vassals. The King bound himself not to grant any writ, empowering a baron to levy aids from his vassals, except in the three feudal cases. One weight and one measure shall be observed throughout the whole kingdom. Merchants shall be allowed to transact all business, without being exposed to any arbitrary tolls and impositions: They and all free men shall be allowed to go out of the kingdom and return to it at pleasure. London, and all cities and burghs, shall preserve their ancient liberties, immunities and free customs: Aids shall not be required of them but by the consent of the great council. No towns nor individuals shall be obliged to make or support bridges but by ancient custom. The goods of every free man shall be disposed of according to his will: If he die intestate, his heirs shall succeed to them. No officer of the crown shall take any horses, carts, or wood, without the consent of the owner. The King's courts of justice shall be stationary, and shall no longer follow his person: They shall be open to every one; and justice shall no longer be bought, refused, or delayed by them. The sheriffs shall be incapacitated to hold pleas of the crown; and shall not put any person upon his trial, from rumor or suspicion alone, but upon the evidence of lawful witnesses. No freeman shall be taken or imprisoned, or disfranchised of his free tenement and liberties, or outlawed, or banished, or any wise hurt or injured, unless by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land; and all who suffered otherwise in this or the two former reigns, shall be restored to their rights and possessions. Every freeman shall be fined in proportion to his fault; and no fine shall be levied on him to his utter ruin: Even a villain or rustic shall not by any fine be bereaved of his carts, ploughs, and implements of husbandry. This was the only article calculated for the interests of this body of men, probably at that time the most numerous in the kingdom.

It must be confessed, that the former articles of the Great Charter contain such mitigations and explanations of the feudal law as are very reasonable and equitable.
J O H N.

Chap. XI. 1215.

... and that the latter involve all the chief outlines of a legal government, and provide for the equal distribution of justice, and free enjoyment of property; the great objects for which political society was at first founded by men, which the people have a perpetual and unalienable right to recall, and which no time, nor precedent, nor statute, nor positive institution, ought to deter them from keeping ever uppermost in their thoughts and attention. Tho' the provisions made by this charter might, conformable to the genius of the age, be esteemed too concise, and too bare of circumstances, to maintain the execution of its articles, in opposition to the chicanery of lawyers, supported by the violence of power; time gradually ascertained the sense of all the ambiguous expressions, and those generous barons, who first extorted this concession, still held their swords in their hands, and could turn them against those who dared, on any pretence, to depart from the original spirit and meaning of the grant. It is now easy, from the tenor of this charter, to determine what those laws were of King Edward, which the English nation, during so many generations, still desired, with such an obstinate perseverance, to have recalled and established. They were these latter articles of Magna Charta; and the barons, who, at the beginning of these commotions, required the revival of the Saxon laws, undoubtedly thought, that they had sufficiently satisfied the people by procuring them this concession, which comprehended the chief objects to which they had so long aspired. But what we are most to admire, is the prudence and moderation of these haughty nobles themselves, who were enraged by injuries, inflamed by opposition, and elated by a total victory over their sovereign. They were contented, even in this plentitude of power, to depart from some articles of Henry I.'s charter, which they made the foundation of their demands, particularly from the abolition of wardships, so important a point; and they seem to have been sufficiently careful not to diminish too far the power and revenue of the crown. If they appear, therefore, to have carried other demands to too great a height, it can be ascribed only to the faithless and tyrannical character of the King himself, of which they had long had experience, and which, they forefaw, would, if they provided no farther security, lead him soon to infringe their liberties, and recall his own concessions. This alone gave birth to those other articles, seemingly exorbitant, which were added as a rampart for the safeguard of the Great Charter.

The barons obliged the King to agree, that London should remain in their hands, and the Tower be configned to the custody of the primate, till the 15th of August next, or till the execution of the several articles of the great charter.

The better to insure the same end, he allowed them to choose five and twenty members from their own body, as conservators of the public liberties; and no bounds were set to the authority of these men either in extent or duration. If any complaint was made of a violation of the charter, whether by the King, justiciaries, sheriffs, or foresters, any four of these barons might admonish the King to redress the grievance; and if satisfaction was not obtained, they could assemble the whole council of twenty-five; who, in conjunction with the great council, were empowered to compel him to observe the charter, and, in case of resistance, might levy war against him, attack his castles, and employ every kind of violence, except against his royal person, and that of his Queen and children. All men, throughout the kingdom, were bound, under the penalty of confiscation, to swear obedience to the five and twenty barons; and the freeholders of each county were to choose twelve knights, who were to make report of such evil customs as required redress, conformable to the tenor of the Great Charter*. The names of these conservators were the earls of Clare, Albemarle, Gloucester, Winchester, Hereford, Roger Bigod, earl of Norfolk, Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, William Mareschal the younger, Robert Fitz-Walter, Gilbert de Clare, Euflace de Vefcey, the mayor of London, William de Moubray, Geoffrey de Say, Roger de Mombezun, William de Huntingfield, Robert de Ros, the constable of Chester, William de Aubenie, Richard de Percy, William Malet, John Fitz-Robert, William de Lanvalay, Hugh de Bigod, and Roger de Mountfichett. Those men were, by this convention, really invested with the sovereignty of the kingdom: They were rendered co ordinate with the King, or rather superior to him, in the exercise of the executive power: And as there was no circumstance of government, which, either directly or indirectly, might not bear a relation to the security or observance of the great charter; there could scarce occur any incident, in which they might not lawfully interpose their authority.

John seemed to submit passively to all these regulations, however injurious to majesty: He sent writs to all the sheriffs, ordering them to constrain every one to swear obedience to the twenty-five barons‡: He dismissed all his foreign forces: He pretended, that his government was henceforth to run in a new tenor, and to be more indulgent to the liberty and independence of his people. But he only dissimulated, ’till he should find a favourable opportunity of annulling all his concessions. The injuries and indignities, which he had heretofore suffered from

* This seems a certain proof that the house of commons was not then in being; otherwise the knights and burgesses from the several counties could have given in to the lords a list of the grievances, without any new election.
the Pope and the king of France, as they came from equals or superiors, seemed to make but small impression on him: but the sense of this perpetual and total subjection under his own rebellious vassals sunk deep in his mind, and he was determined, at all hazards, to throw off so ignominious a slavery. He grew sullen, silent, and reserved: He shunned the society of his courtiers and nobles: He retired into the Isle of Wight, as if desirous to hide his shame and confusion; but in this retreat he meditated the most fatal vengeance against all his enemies. He secretly sent abroad his emissaries to enlist foreign soldiers, and to invite the rapacious Brabançons into his service, by the prospect of sharing the spoils of England, and reaping the forfeitures of so many opulent barons, who had incurred the guilt of rebellion, by rising in arms against him. And he dispatched a messenger to Rome, in order to lay before the Pope the great charter, which he had been compelled to sign, and to complain, before that tribunal, of the violence, which had been imposed upon him.

INNOCENT, considering himself as feudal lord of the kingdom, was incensed at the temerity of the barons, who, tho' they pretended to appeal to his authority, had dared, without waiting for his consent, to impose such terms on a prince, who, by resigning to the Roman pontiff his crown and independence, had placed himself immediately under the papal protection. He issued, therefore, a bull, in which, from the plenitude of his apostolic power, and from the authority, which God had committed to him, to build and destroy kingdoms, to plant and overthrow, he annulled and vacated the whole charter, as unjust in itself, as obtained by compulsion, and as derogatory to the dignity of the apostolic see. He prohibited the barons to exact the observance of it: He even prohibited the King himself to pay any regard to it: He absolved him and his subjects from all oaths, which they had been constrained to take to that purpose: And he denounced a general sentence of excommunication against every one, who should persevere in maintaining such treasonable and iniquitous pretensions.

The King, as his foreign forces arrived along with this bull, now ventured to take off the mask; and, under sanction of the Pope's decree, recalled all the liberties, which he had granted to his subjects, and which he had solemnly sworn to observe. But the spiritual weapon was found upon trial to carry less force with it, than he had reason from his own experience to apprehend. The primate refused to obey the Pope in publishing the sentence of excommunication against the barons; and tho' he was cited to Rome, that he might attend a general council.

there assembled, and was suspended, on account of his disobedience to the Pope,
and his secret correspondence with the king's enemies*: Tho' a new and particular sentence of excommunication was denounced by name against the principal barons †; John still found, that his nobility and people, and even his clergy, adhered to the defence of their liberties, and to their combination against him: The sword of his foreign mercenaries was all he had to trust to for the restoration of his authority.

The barons, after obtaining the great charter, seem to have been lulled into a fatal security, and to have taken no rational measures, in case of the introduction of a foreign force, for re-assembling their armies. The King was from the first master of the field; and immediately laid siege to the castle of Rochester, which was obstinately defended by William de Albiney, at the head of an hundred and forty knights with their retainers, and was at last reduced by famine. John, irritated with the resistance, intended to have hanged the governor and all the garrison; but on the representation of William de Mauleon, who suggested to him the danger of reprisals, he was contented to sacrifice, in this barbarous manner, the inferior prisoners only ‡. The captivity of William de Albiney, the best officer among the confederated barons, was an irreparable loss to their cause; and no regular opposition was thenceforth made to the progress of the royal arms. The ravenous and barbarous mercenaries, incited by a cruel and enraged prince, were let loose against the estates, tenants, manors, houses, parks of the barons, and spread devastation over the face of the kingdom. Nothing was seen but the flames of villages and castles reduced to ashes, the consternation and misery of the inhabitants, tortures exercised by the soldiery to make them reveal their concealed treasures, and reprisals no less barbarous, committed by the barons and their partizans on the royal demesnes, and on the estates of such as still adhered to the crown §. The King marching thro' the whole extent of England, from Dover to Berwick, laid the provinces waste on each side of him; and considered every estate, which was not his immediate property, as entirely hostile and the object of military execution. The nobility of the north in particular, who had shown greatest violence in the recovery of their liberties, and who, acting in a separate body, had expressed their discontent even at the concessions made by the great charter, as they could expect no mercy, fled before him with their wives and families, and purchased the friendship of Alexander, the young King of Scots, by doing homage to him †‡.

The barons, reduced to this desperate extremity, and menaced with the total loss of their liberties, their properties, and their lives, employed a remedy no less desperate; and making applications to the court of France, offered to acknowledge Lewis, the eldest son of Philip, for their sovereign; on condition, that he afforded them protection from the violence of their enraged prince*. Though the sense of the common rights of mankind, the only rights which are entirely indefeasible, might have justified them in their deposition of the King; they declined insisting before Philip, on a pretension, which is commonly so unfavourable among sovereigns, and which founds harshly in their royal ears. They affirmed, that John was incapable of succeeding to the crown, by reason of the attainder, passed upon him during his brother's reign; tho' that attainder had been reversed, and Richard had even, by his last will, declared him his successor. They pretended, that he was already legally deposed by sentence of the peers of France, on account of the murder of his nephew; tho' that sentence could not possibly regard any thing but his transmarine dominions, which alone he held in homage to that crown. On more plausible grounds, they affirmed, that he had already deposed himself by doing homage to the Pope, changing the nature of his sovereignty, and resigning an independent crown for a fee or vassalage under a foreign power. And as Blanche of Castille, the wife of Lewis, was descended by her mother from Henry II. they maintained, tho' many other princes stood before her in the order of succession, that they had not shaken off the royal family in choosing her husband for their sovereign.

Philip was extremely tempted to lay hold of the rich prize which was offered to him. The Pope's legate menaced him with interdicts and excommunications, if he invaded the patrimony of St. Peter, or attacked a prince, who was under the immediate protection of the holy see; but as Philip was assured of the obedience of his own vassals, his principles were changed with the conjunctures of the times, and he now undervalued as much all papal censures, as he formerly pretended to pay respect to them. His chief scruple was with regard to the fidelity, which he might expect of the English barons in their new engagements, and the danger of entrusting his son and heir into the hands of men, who might, on any caprice or necessity, make peace with their native sovereign, by sacrificing a pledge of so much value. He therefore exacted from the barons twenty-five hostages of the most noble birth in the kingdom; and having obtained this security, he first sent over a small army to the relief of the confederates, and then more numerous forces, who arrived with Lewis himself at their head.

The first effect of the young prince's appearance in England was the defection of John's foreign troops, who, being mostly levied in Flanders, and other provinces of France, refused to serve against the heir of their monarchy. The Gascons and Poitivins alone, who were still John's subjects, adhered to his cause; but they were too weak to maintain that superiority in the field, which they had hitherto supported against the confederated barons. Many considerable noblemen deferted John's party, the earls of Salisbury, Arundel, Warrene, Oxford, Albemarle, and William Marshal the younger: His castles fell daily into the hands of the enemy: Dover was the only place, which, from the valor and fidelity of Hubert de Burgh, the governor, made resistance to the progress of Lewis's arms: And the barons had the melancholy prospect of finally succeeding in their purpose, and of escaping the tyranny of their own King, by imposing on themselves and the nation a foreign yoke. But this union was of very short duration between the French and English nobles; and the imprudence of Lewis, who on every occasion showed too visible a preference to the former, encreased that jealousy, which it was so natural for the latter to entertain in their present situation. The viscount of Melun, too, it is said, one of his courtiers, fell sick at London, and finding the approaches of death, he sent for some of his friends among the English barons, and warning them of their danger, revealed Lewis's secret intentions of exterminating them and their families as traitors to their prince, and bestowing their estates and dignities on his native subjects, in whose fidelity he could more reasonably place confidence. This story, whether true or false, was universally reported and believed; and concurring with other circumstances, which rendered it credible, did an infinite prejudice to Lewis's cause. The Earl of Salisbury and other noblemen deferted again to John's party; and as men easily change sides in a civil war, especially where their power is founded on an hereditary and independant authority, and is not derived from the opinion and favour of the people, the French prince had reason to dread a sudden reverse of fortune. The King was assembling a considerable army, with a view of fighting one great battle for his crown; but passing from Lynn to Lincolnshire, his road lay along the sea-shore, which was overflowed at high water; and not choosing the proper time for his journey, he lost in the inundation all his carriages, treasure, baggage, and regalia. The affliction of this disaster, and the vexation from the distracted state of his affairs, encreased the sickness, under which he then laboured; and tho' he reached the castle of Newark, he was obliged to halt.

§ Chron. Dunl. vol. i. p. 75.
there, and his distemper soon after put an end to his life, in the forty-ninth year of his age, and seventeenth of his reign; and freed the nation from the dangers, to which it was equally exposed, by his success or his misfortunes.

The character of this prince is nothing but a complication of vices, equally mean and odious; ruinous to himself, and destructive to his people. Cowardice, inactivity, folly, levity, licentiousness, ingratitude, treachery, tyranny, and cruelty; all these qualities appear too evidently in the several incidents of his life to give us room to suspect, that the disagreeable picture has been any-wise overcharged by the prejudice of the antient historians. It is hard to say, whether his conduct to his father, his brother, his nephew, or his subjects was most culpable; or whether his crimes in these respects were not even exceeded by the baseness, which appeared in his transactions with the King of France, the Pope, and the barons. His dominions, when they devolved to him by the death of his brother, were more extensive than have, ever since his time, been ruled by any English monarch: But he first lost by his misconduct the flourishing provinces in France, the antient patrimony of his family: He subjected his kingdom to a shameful vassalage under the fee of Rome: He saw the prerogatives of his crown diminished by law, and still more reduced by faction: And he died at last, when in danger of being totally expelled by a foreign power, and of either ending his life miserably in prison, or seeking shelter as a fugitive from the pursuit of his enemies.

The prejudices against this prince were so violent, that he was believed to have sent an embassy to the Miramoulin or Emperor of Morocco, and to have offered to change his religion and become Mahometan, in order to purchase the protection of that monarch. But tho' that story is told us, on plausible authority, by Matthew Paris *, it is in itself utterly improbable; except, that there is nothing so incredible as may not become likely from the folly and wickedness of John.

The monks throw great reproaches on this prince for his impiety and even infidelity; and as an instance of it, they tell us, that having, one day, caught a very fat stag, he exclaimed, "How plump and well fed is this animal; and yet I dare swear he never heard mass" †. This sally of wit, upon the usual corpulency of the priests, more than all his enormous crimes and iniquities, made him pass with them for an atheist.

* P. 169.  † M. Paris, p. 170.
Chap. XI. 1216. John left two legitimate sons behind him, Henry, born on the first of October, 1207, and now nine years of age; and Richard, born on the sixth of January, 1209; and three daughters, Jane married to Alexander King of Scots; Eleanor married first to William Mareschal younger, earl of Pembroke, and then to Simon Mountfort, earl of Leicester; and Isabella married to the Emperor, Frederic II. All these children were born to him by Isabella of Angouleme, his second wife. His illegitimate children were numerous; but none of them were any wife distinguished.
APPENDIX II.

The FEUDAL and ANGLO-NORMAN GOVERNMENT and MANNERS.


THE feudal law is the chief foundation, both of the political government and Appendix II of the jurisprudence, established by the Normans in England. Our subject therefore requires, that we should form a just idea of this law, in order to explain the state, as well of that kingdom, as of all the other kingdoms of Europe, which, during those ages, were governed by similar institutions. And tho' I am sensible, that I must here repeat many observations and reflections, which have been communicated by others; yet, as every book, agreeable to the observation of a great historian *, should be as complete as possible within itself, and should never refer, for any thing material, to other books, it will be necessary, in this place, to deliver a short plan of that prodigious fabric, which, for several centuries, preserved such a mixture of liberty and oppression, order and anarchy, stability and revolution, as was never experienced in any other age or any other part of the world.

After the northern nations subdued the provinces of the Roman empire, they were obliged to establish a system of government, which might secure their conquests, as well against the revolt of their numerous subjects, who remained in the provinces, as from the inroads of other tribes, who might be tempted to ravish from them their new acquisitions. The great change of circumstances made them here depart from those institutions, which prevailed among them, while

* L'Esprit des loix. Dr. Robertson's history of Scotland. Dalrymple of Feudal Tenures.
* Padre de Paolo Hist. Conc. Triad.
they remained in the forests of Germany; yet was it still natural for them to retain, in their present settlement, as much of their antient customs as was compatible with their new situation.

The German governments, being more a confederacy of independant warriors, than a civil subjection, derived their principal force from many inferior and voluntary associations, which individuals formed under a particular head or chieftain, and which became the highest point of honour to maintain with inviolable fidelity. The glory of the chieftain consisted in the number, the bravery, and the zealous attachment of his retainers: The duty of the retainers required that they should accompany their chieftain in all wars and dangers, that they should fight and perish by his side, and that they should esteem his renown or his favour a sufficient recompence for all their services. The prince himself was nothing but a great chieftain, who was chosen from among the rest, on account of his superior valour or nobility; and who derived his power from the voluntary association or attachment of the other chieftains.

When a tribe, governed by those ideas, and actuated by those principles, subdued a large territory, they found, that tho' it was necessary to keep themselves in a military posture, they could neither remain united in a body, nor take up their quarters in several garrisons, and that their manners and institutions debarred them from using those expedients; the obvious ones, which, in a like situation, would have been employed by a civilized nation. Their ignorance in the art of finances, and perhaps the devastations inseparable from such violent conquests, rendered it impracticable for them to levy taxes sufficient for the pay of numerous armies; and their repugnance to a servile subordination, with their attachment to rural pleasures, made the life of the camp or garrison, if perpetuated during peaceful times, extremely odious and disgusting to them. They seized, therefore, such a proportion of the conquered lands as appeared necessary; they assigned a share for supporting the dignity of their prince and government; they distributed other parts, under the title of fiefs, to the chieftains; these made a new partition among their retainers; the express condition of all these grants was, that they might be resumed at pleasure, and that the possessor, so long as he enjoyed them, should still remain in readiness to take the field for the defence of the nation. And tho' the conquerors immediately separated, in order to enjoy their new acquisitions, their martial disposition made them readily fulfil the terms of their engagement: They assembled on the first alarm; their habitual attachment to the chieftain made them willingly submit to his command; and thus a regular military force, tho' concealed, lay always ready.

* Tacit. de Mor. Germ.
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ready, to defend, on any emergence, the interest and honour of the com-

munity.

We are not to imagine, that all or even the greatest part of the conquered lands
was seized by the northern conquerors; or that the whole of the land thus seized
was subjected to these military services. This supposition is confuted by the history
of all the nations on the continent. Even the idea given us of the German manners
by the Roman historian, may convince us, that that bold people would never have
been contented with so precarious a subsistence, or have fought to procure esta-

blishments, which were only to continue during the good pleasure of their so-
vereign. The northern chieftains accepted of lands, which, being con-

idered as a kind of military pay, might be resumed at the will of the King or ga-

neral; they also took possession of estates, which, being hereditary and indepen-
dant, enabled them to maintain their native liberty, and support, without court

favour; the honour of their rank and family.

But there is a great difference, in the consequences, between the distribution of a pecuniary subsistence, and the assignment of lands burdened with the condi-
tion of military service. The delivery of the former at the weekly, monthly, or
annual terms of payment, still recalls the idea of a voluntary gratuity from the
prince, and reminds the soldier of the precarious tenure by which he holds his
commiffion. But the attachment naturally formed with a fixed portion of
land, gradually begets the idea of something like property, and makes the po-

fessor forget his dependant situation, and the condition which was at first an-
nexed to the grant. It seemed equitable, that one who had cultivated and sowed
a field, should reap the harvest: Hence fiefs, which were at first entirely preca-
rious, were soon made annual. A man, who had employed his money in build-
ing, planting, or other improvements, expected to reap the fruits of his labour
or expense: Hence they were next granted during a term of years. It would
be thought hard to expel a man from his possessions, who had always done his
duty, and performed the conditions on which he originally received them! Hence the chieftains, in a subsequent period, thought themselves entitled to de-
mand the enjoyment of their feudal lands during life. It was found, that a man
would, in battle, hazard his life more willingly, if assured, that his family should
inherit his possessions, and should not be exposed by his death to want and po-
verty: Hence fiefs were made hereditary in families, and descended, during one
age, to the son; then to the grandson, next to the brothers, and afterwards to
more distant relations *. The idea of property ftole in gradually upon that of

Appendix II. military pay; and each century made some sensible addition to the stability of fefts and tenures.

In all these successive acquisitions, the chieftain was supported by his vassals; who, having originally a strong connexion with him, augmented by the constant intercourse of good offices, and by the friendships arising from neighbourhood and dependance, were inclined to follow their leader against all his enemies, and voluntarily, in his private quarrels, pay him the same obedience, to which by their tenure they were bound in foreign wars. While he daily advanced new pretensions to secure the possession of his superior feft, they expected to find the same advantage in acquiring stability to their subordinate ones; and they zealously opposed the intrusion of a new lord, who would be inclined, as he was fully intitled, to belittle the possession of their lands on his own favourites and retainers. The authority of the sovereign gradually decayed; and the nobles, fortified each in his own territory by the attachment of his vassals, became too powerful to be expelled by an order from the throne; and he secured by law what he had at first acquired by usurpation.

During this precarious state of the supreme power, a difference would immediately be experienced between those portions of territory which were subjected to the feudal tenures, and those which were possessed by an allodial or free title. Tho' the latter possessions had at first been esteemed infinitely preferable, they were soon found, by the progressive changes introduced into public and private law, to be of a much inferior condition to the former. The possessors of a feudal territory, united by a regular subordination under one chieftain, and by the mutual attachments of the vassals, had the same advantages over the proprietors of the other, which a disciplined army enjoys over a dispersed multitude; and were enabled to commit with impunity all injuries on their defenceless neighbours. Every one, therefore, hastened to seek that protection which he found so necessary; and each allodial proprietor, resigning his possessions into the hands of the King, or of some nobleman respected for power or valour, received them back with the condition of feudal services †, which, tho' a burden somewhat grievous, brought him ample compensation, by connecting him with the neighbouring proprietors, and placing him under the guardianship of a potent chieftain. The decay of the political government thus necessarily occasioned the extension of the feudal: The kingdoms of Europe were universally divided into baronies, and these into inferior fefts: And the attachment of vassals to their chieftain, which was at first an essential part of the German manners, was still supported by the

† Marculf. Form. 47. apud Lindenbr. p. 1238.
same causes from which it at first arose; the necessity of mutual protection, and the continued intercourse, between the head and the members, of benefits and services.

But there was another circumstance, which corroborated these feudal dependancies, and tended to connect the vassals with their superior lord by an indissoluble bond of union. The northern conquerors, as well as the more early Greeks and Romans, embraced a policy, which is unavoidable to all nations that have made slender advances in refinement; and they everywhere united the civil jurisdiction with the military power. Law, in its commencement, was not an intricate science, and was more governed by maxims of equity, which seem obvious to common sense, than by numerous and subtle principles, applied to a variety of cases by profound reasonings from analogy. An officer, tho' he had passed his life in the field, was able to determine all legal controversies which could occur within the district committed to his charge; and his decisions were the most likely to meet with a prompt and ready obedience, from men who respected his person, and were accustomed to act under his command. The profit arising from punishments, which were then chiefly pecuniary, was another reason for his desiring to retain the judicial power; and when his fief became hereditary, this authority, which was essential to it, was also transmitted to his posterity. The counts and other magistrates, whose power was merely official, were tempted, in imitation of the feudal lords, whom they resembled in so many particulars, to render their dignity perpetual and hereditary; and in the decline of the regal power, they found no difficulty to make good their pretensions. After this manner, the vast fabric of feudal subordination became quite solid and comprehensive; it formed everywhere an essential part of the political constitution; and the Norman and other barons, who followed the fortunes of William, were so accustomed to it, that they could scarce form an idea of any other species of civil government.

The Saxons, who conquered England, as they exterminated the antient inhabitants, and were securred by the sea against new invaders, found it less requisite to maintain themselves in a military posture; and the quantity of land which they annexed to offices, seems to have been of small value; and for that reason continued the longer in its original situation, and was always possessed during pleasure by those entrusted with the command. These conditions were too precarious to satisfy the Norman chieftains, who enjoyed more independant possessions and juri* The ideas of the feudal government were so rooted, that even lawyers, in those ages, could not form a notion of any other constitution. Regnum, (says Bradton, lib. 2. cap. 34.) quod ex comitibus & baronibus dicitur effe constitution.
Appendix II. Rigidifications in their own country; and William was obliged, in the new distribution of land, to copy the tenures, which were now become universal on the continent. England of a sudden became a feudal kingdom *; and received all the advantages, and was exposed to all the inconvenience, incident to that species of civil polity.

According to the principles of the feudal law, the King was the supreme lord of the landed property; and all possessors, who enjoyed the fruits or revenue of any part of it, held these privileges, either mediatly or immediately, of him; and their property was conceived to be, in some degree, conditional. The land was still apprehended to be a species of benefice, which was the original conception of a feudal property; and the vassal owed, in return for it, stated services to his baron, as the baron himself did for his land to the crown. The vassal was obliged to defend his baron in war; and the baron, at the head of his vassals, was bound to fight in defence of the King and kingdom. But besides these military services, which were casual, there were others imposed of a civil nature, which were more constant and perpetual.

The northern nations had no idea, that any man, trained up to honour, or enured to arms, was ever to be governed, without his own consent, by the absolute will of another; or that the administration of justice was ever to be exercised by the private opinion of any one magistrate, without the concurrence of some other persons, whose interest might induce them to check his arbitrary and iniquitous decisions. The King, therefore, when he found it necessary to demand any services of his barons or chief tenants, beyond what was due by their tenures, was obliged to assemble them, in order to procure their consent: And when it was necessary to determine any controversy among the barons themselves, the question must be discussed in their presence, and be decided according to their opinion or advice. In these two circumstances of consent and advice, consisted chiefly the civil services of the antient barons; and these implied all the considerable incidents of governments. In one view, the barons regarded this attendance as their principal privilege; in another, as a grievous burden. That no momentous affairs could be transacted without their consent and advice, was in general esteemed the great security of their possessions and dignities; but as they reaped no immediate profit from their attendance at court, and were exposed to great inconvenience and charge by an absence from their own estates, every one was glad to exempt himself from each particular exertion of this power; and was pleased both that the call for that duty should seldom return upon him, and that

APPENDIX II

others should undergo the burden in his stead. The King, on the other hand, Append'x II. was usually anxious, for several reasons, that the assembly of the barons should be full at every stated or casual time of meeting: This attendance was the chief badge of their subordination to his crown, and drew them from that independance which they were apt to affect in their own castles and manors; and where the meeting was thin or ill attended, its determinations had less authority, and were not followed by so ready an obedience from the whole community.

The case was the same with the barons in their courts as with the King in the supreme council of the nation. It was requisite to assemble the vassals, in order to determine by their vote any question which regarded the barony; and they sat along with the chieftain in all trials, whether civil or criminal, which occurred within the limits of their jurisdiction. They were bound to pay suit and service at the court of their baron; and as their tenure was military, and consequently honourable, they were admitted into his society, and partook of his friendship. Thus, a kingdom was only considered as a great barony, and a barony as a small kingdom. The barons were peers to each other in the national council, and, in some degree, companions to the King: The vassals were peers to each other in the court of barony, and companions to their baron #.

But tho' this resemblance so far took place, the vassals, by the natural course of things, universally, in the feudal constitutions, fell into a greater subordination under the baron, than the baron himself under his sovereign; and these governments had a necessary and infallible tendency to augment the power of the nobles. The great chieftain, residing in his country-seat or castle, which he was commonly allowed to fortify, loft, in a great measure, his connexion or acquaintance with the prince; and added every day new force to his authority over the vassals of the barony. They received from him education in all military exercises: His hospitality invited them to live and enjoy society in his hall: Their leisure, which was great, made them perpetual retainers on his person, and partakers of his country sports and amusements: They had no means of gratifying their ambition but by making a figure in his train: His favour and countenance was their greatest honour: His displeasure exposed them to contempt and ignominy: And they felt every moment the necessity of his protection, both in the controversies which occurred with other vassals, and what was more material, in the daily inroads and injuries which were committed by the neighbouring barons. During the time of general war, the sovereign, who marched at the head of his armies, and was the great protector of the state, acquired always some accession

Appendix II, to his authority, which he lost during the intervals of peace and tranquillity:—

But the loose police incident to the feudal constitutions, maintained a perpetual, tho' secret hostility, between the several members of the state; and the vassals found no other means of security against the injuries to which they were continually exposed, but by closely adhering to their chieftain, and falling into a submissive dependance upon him.

If the feudal government was so little favourable to the true liberty even of the military vassal, it was still more destructive of the independance and security of the other members of the state, or what in a proper sense we call the people. A great part of them were serfs, and lived in a state of absolute slavery or villainage: The other inhabitants of the country paid their rent in services which were in a great measure arbitrary, and they could expect no redress of injuries in a court of barony: from men who thought they had a right to oppress and tyrannize over them: The towns were situated either within the demesnes of the King, or the lands of the great barons, and were almost entirely subjected to the absolute will of their master. The languishing state of commerce kept the inhabitants poor and contemptible; and the political institutions were calculated to render that poverty perpetual. The barons and gentry, living in rustic plenty and hospitality, gave no encouragement to the arts, and had no demand for any of the more elaborate produce of manufactures: Every profession was held in contempt but that of arms: And if any merchant or manufacturer rose by industry and frugality to a degree of opulence, he found himself but the more exposed to injuries, from the envy and avidity of the military nobles.

These concurring causes gave the feudal governments so strong a bias towards aristocracy, that the royal authority was extremely eclipsed in all the European states; and, instead of dreading the growth of monarchical power, we might rather expect, that the community would every where crumble into so many independant baronies, and lose the political union by which they were cemented. In elective monarchies, the event was commonly answerable to this expectation; and the barons, gaining ground on every vacancy of the throne, raised themselves almost to a state of sovereignty, and sacrificed to their power both the rights of the crown and the liberties of the people. But hereditary monarchies had a principle of authority, which was not so easily subdued; and there were several causes, which still maintained a degree of influence in the hands of the sovereign.

The greatest baron could never lose view entirely of those principles of the feudal constitution, which bound him, as a vassal, to submission and fidelity towards his prince; because he was every moment obliged to have recourse to those principles, in exacting fidelity and submission from his own vassals. The lesser bar-
rons, finding that the annihilation of royal authority left them exposed without protection to the insults and injuries of more potent neighbours, naturally adhered to the crown, and promoted the execution of general and equal laws. The people had still a stronger interest to desire the grandeur of the sovereign; and the King, being the legal magistrate, who suffered by every internal convulsion or oppression, and who regarded the great nobles as his immediate rivals, assumed the salutary office of general guardian or protector of the commons. Besides the prerogatives with which the law endowed him; his large demesnes and numerous retainers rendered him, in one sense, the greatest baron of his kingdom; and where he was possessed of personal vigour and ability (for his situation required these advantages) he was commonly able to preserve his authority, and maintain his station as head of the community, and the chief fountain of law and justice.

The first Kings of the Norman race were favoured by another circumstance, which preserved them from the encroachments of their barons. They were generals of a conquering army, which was obliged to continue in a military posture, and to maintain great subordination under their leader, in order to secure themselves from the revolt of the numerous natives, whom they had bereaved of all their properties and privileges. But tho’ this circumstance supported the authority of William and his immediate successors, and rendered them extremely absolute, it was lost as soon as the Norman barons began to coalesce with the nation, to acquire a security in their possessions, and to fix their influence over their vassals, tenants, and slaves. And the immense fortunes, which the Conqueror had bestowed on his chief captains, served to support their independency, and make them formidable to the sovereign.

He gave, for instance, to Hugh de Abrincis, his sister’s son, the whole county of Chester, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almost independant of the crown *. Robert earl of Mortaigne had 973 manors and lordships: Allan earl of Brittany and Richmond, 442; Odo, bishop of Bayeux, 439 †: Geoffrey, bishop of Coutance, 280 §: Walter Giffard, earl of Buckingham, 107 ‖: William, earl Warenne, 298, besides 28 towns or hamlets in Yorkshire §: Todenei, 81 ‖: Roger Bigod, 123 *: Robert, earl of Ewe, 119 †: Roger Mortimer, 132, besides several hamlets ‖: Robert de Stafford, 130 ‖: Walter de Eurus, earl of Salisbury, 46 §: Geoffey de Mandeville.

§ Id. p. 74. ‡ Id. p. 111, 112. * Id. p. 132. † Id. p. 136.
‡ Id. p. 158. § Id. p. 156. ‖ Id. p. 174.
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Append'x II. 118 *: Richard de Clare, 171 †: Hugh de Beauchamp, 47 ‡: Baldwin de Ridvers, 164 §: Henry de Ferrers, 222 $: William de Percy, 119 ¶: Norman d'Arcy, 33 *.

Sir Henry Spelman computes, that in the large county of Norfolk, there were not, in the Conqueror's time, above sixty-six proprietors of land †. Men, possessed of such princely revenues and jurisdictions, could not long be retained in the rank of subjects. The great earl Warenne, in a subsequent reign, when he was questioned, concerning his right to the lands which he possessed, drew his sword, which he produced as his title; adding that William the Bastard did not conquer the kingdom himself; but that the barons, and his ancestor among the rest, were joint adventurers in the enterprise ¶.

The feudal parliament.

The supreme legislative power of England was lodged in the King and great council, or what was afterwards called the parliament. It is not doubted but the archbishops, bishops, and most considerable abbots were constituent members of this council. They sat by a double title: By prescription, as having always possessed that privilege, thro' the whole Saxon period, from the first establishment of Christianity; and by their right of baronage, as holding of the King in capite by military service. These two titles of the prelates were never accurately distinguished. When the usurpations of the church had risen to such a height, as to make the bishops affect a separate dominion, and regard their seat in parliament as a degradation of their episcopal dignity; the King insisted, that they were barons, and on that account, obliged, by the general principles of the feudal law, to attend on him in his great councils ¶. Yet there still remained some practices, which supposed their title to be derived merely from antient possession: When a bishop was elected, he sat in parliament before the King had made him restitution of his temporalities; and during the vacancy of a see, the guardian of the spiritualities was summoned to attend along with the bishops.

The barons, were another constituent part of the great council of the nation. These held immediately of the crown by a military tenure: They were the most honourable members of the state, and had a right to be consulted in all public deliberations: They were the immediate vassals of the crown, and owed as a service their attendance in the court of their supreme lord. A resolution, taken without their consent, was likely to be but ill executed: And no determination

† Id. p. 207.
‡ Id. p. 223.
¶ Id. p. 254.
§ Id. p. 257.
$ Id. p. 269.
* Id. p. 369. It is remarkable that this family of d'Arcy, with that of Windsor, seems to be the only male descendants of any of the Conqueror's barons now remaining among the peers.
† Spel. Gloss. in verb. Domesday.
‡ Dugdale, Bar. vol. i. p. 79. Id. Origines Juridiciales, p. 13.
¶ Spel. Gloss. in verb. Bare.
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of any cause or controversy among them had any validity, where the vote and Appendix II. advice of the whole body did not concur. The dignity of earl or count was official and territorial, as well as hereditary, and as all the earls were also barons, they were considered as military vassals of the crown, were admitted in that capacity into the general council, and formed the most honourable and powerful branch of it.

But there was another class of the immediate military tenants of the crown, equally numerous with the barons, the tenants in capite by knights service; and these, however inferior in power or property, held by a tenure, which was equally honourable as that of the others. A barony was commonly composed of several knights fees; and tho' the number seems not to have been exactly defined, seldom consisted of less than forty hydes of land *: But where a man held of the King only one or two knights fees, he was still an immediate vassal of the King, and as such had a title to have a seat in the general councils. But as this attendance was usually esteemed a burden, and one too great for a man of slender fortune to bear constantly; it is probable, that tho' he had a title, if he pleased, to be admitted, he was not obliged by any penalty, like the barons, to pay a regular attendance. All the immediate military tenants of the crown amounted not fully to 700, when Doomeby book was framed; and as the members were well pleased, on any pretext, to excuse themselves from attendance, the assembly was never likely on any occasion to become too numerous for the dispatch of public business.

So far the nature of a general council or antient parliament is determined without any doubt or controversy. The only question seems to be with regard to the commons, or the representatives of counties and boroughs; whether they were also, in more early times, constituent parts of parliament? This question was once disputed in England with great acrimony; but such is the force of time and evidence, that they can sometimes prevail even over faction, and the question seems, by general consent, and even by their own, to be at last determined against the ruling party. It is agreed that the commons were no part of the great council, till some ages after the conquest; and that the military tenants alone of the crown composed that supreme and legislative assembly.

The vassals of a baron were by their tenure immediately dependent on him, owed attendance at his court, and paid all their duty to the King, through that dependance which their lord was obliged by his tenure to acknowledge to his.

* Four hydes made one knight's fee: The relief of a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's fee; whence we may conjecture its value. Spelm. Gloss, in verb, Edum. sovereign.
appendix II sovereign and superior. Their land, comprehended in the barony, was represented in parliament by the baron himself, who was supposed, according to the fictions of the feudal law, to possess the direct property of it; and it would have been deemed incongruous to give it any other representation. They stood in the same capacity to him, that he and the other barons did to the King: The former were peers of the barony; the latter were peers of the realm: The vassals possessed a subordinate rank within their district; the baron enjoyed a supreme dignity in the great assembly: They were in some degree his companions at home; he the King's companion in the court: And nothing can be more evidently repugnant to all feudal ideas, and to that gradual subordination, which was essential to those antient institutions, than to imagine that the King would apply either for the advice or consent of men, who were of a rank or order so much inferior, and whose duty was immediately paid to the mesne lord, that was interpolated between them and the throne *.

If it be unreasonable to think, that the vassals of a barony, tho' their tenure was military and noble and honourable, were ever summoned to give their opinion in national councils; much less can it be supposed, that the tradesmen or inhabitants of boroughs, whose condition was still so much inferior, would be admitted to that privilege. It appears from Domesday, that the boroughs were, at the time of the conquest, scarce more than country villages; and that the inhabitants lived in entire dependence on the King or great lords, and were of a station little better than servile †. They were not then so much as incorporated; they formed no community; were not regarded as a body politic; and being really nothing but a number of low dependant tradesmen, living, without any particular civil tie, in neighbourhood together, were incapable of being represented in the states of the kingdom. Even in France, a country, which made more early advances in arts and civility than England, the first corporation is sixty years posterior to the conquest under the duke of Normandy; and the erecting these communities was an invention of Lewis the Great to free the people from slavery under the lords, and to give them protection, by means of certain privileges and a separate juridiction ‡. An antient French author calls them a new and wicked device, to procure liberty to slaves, and encourage them in shaking off the dominion of their masters ‡. The famous charter, as it is called, of the Conqueror to the city of London, tho' granted at a time when he assumed the appearance of gentleness and lenity, is nothing but a letter of protection, and a

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* Spelm. Gloss. in verb. Baro. † Liber homo antiently signified a gentleman: For scarce any one beside was entirely free. Spelm. Gloss. in verbo. ‡ Da Cange's Gloss. in verb. commune, communitas. ‡ Guibertus de vita sua, lib. 3. cap. 7. declaration
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declaration that the citizens should not be treated as slaves*. By the English Appendix II.
feudal law, the superior lord was prohibited to marry his female ward to a burgess or a villain †; so near were these two ranks esteemed to each other, and so much inferior to the nobility and gentry. Besides possessing the advantages of birth, riches, civil powers and privileges; the nobles and gentlemen alone were armed; a circumstance, which gave them a mighty superiority, in an age when nothing but the military profession was honourable, and when the loose execution of laws gave so much encouragement to open violence, and rendered it so decisive in all disputes and controversies‡.

The great similarity among all the feudal governments of Europe is well known to every man, that has any acquaintance with ancient history; and the antiquarians of all foreign countries, where the question was never embarrassed by party disputes, have allowed, that the commons were very late in being admitted to a share in the legislative power. In Normandy particularly, whose constitution was most likely to be William's model in raising his new fabric of the English government, the states were entirely composed of the clergy and nobility; and the first incorporated boroughs or communities of that duchy were Rouen and Falaife, which enjoyed their privileges by a grant of Philip Augustus in the year 1207. All the ancient English historians, when they mention the great council of the nation, call it an assembly of the baronage, nobility or great men; and none of their expressions, tho' several hundred passages might be produced, can, without the utmost violence, be tortured to a meaning, which will admit the commons to be constituent members of that body§. The magna charta of King John provides, that no tax or scutage should be imposed but by the consent of the great council; and for more security, it enumerates the persons entitled to a seat in that council, the prelates and immediate tenants of the crown, without any mention of the commons: An authority so full, certain and explicit, that nothing but the zeal of party could ever have procured credit to any contrary system.

It was probably the example of the French barons which first emboldened the English to require greater independance from their sovereign: It is also probable, that the boroughs and corporations of England were established in imitation of

* Stat. of Merton, 1235, cap. 6.
‡ Holingshed, vol. iii. p. 15.
§ Sometimes the historians mention the people, populus, as a part of the parliament: But they always mean the laity, in opposition to the clergy. Sometimes, the word, communitas, is found; but it always means communitas baronum: These points are clearly proved by Dr. Brady.

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Appendix II. those of France. It may, therefore, be proposed, as no unlikely conjecture, that both the privileges of the peers and the liberty of the commons were originally the growth of that country.

In antient times, men were very little solicitous to obtain a place in the legislative assemblies; and rather regarded their attendance as a burden, which was not compensated by any return of profit or honour, proportioned to the trouble and expense. The only reason of instituting those public councils, was; on the part of the subject, that they desired some security from the attempts of arbitrary power; and on the part of the sovereign, that he despaired of governing men of such independant spirits without their own consent and concurrence. But the commons, or the inhabitants of boroughs, had not as yet reached such a degree of consideration, as to desire security against their prince, or to imagine, that, even if they were assembled in a representative body, they had power or rank sufficient to enforce it. The only protection, which they aspired to, was against the immediate violence and injustice of their fellow-citizens; and this advantage each of them looked for, from the courts of justice, or from the authority of some great lord, to whom, by law or his own choice, he was attached. On the other hand, the sovereign was sufficiently assured of obedience in the whole community, if he procured the concurrence of the nobles; nor had he reason to apprehend, that any order of the state could resist his and their united authority. The military sub-vassals could entertain no idea of opposing both their prince and their superiors: The burgesses and tradesmen could much less aspire to such a thought: And thus, even if history were silent on that head, we have reason to conclude, from the known situation of mankind during those ages, that the commons were never admitted as members of the legislative body.

The executive power of the Anglo-Norman government was lodged in the King; and besides the stated meetings of the national council at the three great festivals of Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide*, he was accustomed, on any sudden exigence, to summon them together. He could at his pleasure command the attendance of his barons and their vassals, in which consisted the military force of the kingdom; and could employ them, during forty days, either in resisting a foreign enemy, or reducing his rebellious subjects. And what was of great importance, the whole judicial power was ultimately in his hands, and was exercised by officers and ministers of his appointment.

The general plan of the Anglo-Norman government was, that the court of barony was appointed to decide such controversies as arose between the several

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vassals or subjects of the same barony; the hundred-court and county-court, Appendix II., which were still continued as during the Saxon times*, to judge between the subjects of different baronies †; and the curia Regis or King's court, to give sentence among the barons themselves ‡. But this plan, tho' simple, was attended with some circumstances, which, being derived from a very extensive authority, assumed by the Conqueror, contributed to the encreafe of the royal prerogative; and while the state was not disturbed by arms, reduced every order of the community to some degree of dependance and subordination.

The King himself often sat in his court, which always attended his person §§: He there heard caufes and pronounced sentence ¶, and tho' he was affifted by the advice of the other members, it is not to be imagined that a decision could easily be obtained contrary to his inclination or opinion. In his abfence the chief judiciaries prefided, who was the first magistrate in the state, and a kind of vice-roy, on whom depended all the civil affairs of the kingdom †. The other chief officers of the crown, the constable, mareschal, seneschal, chamberlain, treasurer, and chancellor*, were members, together with such feudal barons as thought proper to attend, and the barons of the Exchequer, who at firft were also feudal barons, appointed by the King ‡. This court, which was sometimes called the King's court, sometimes the court of Exchequer, judged in all caufes, civil and criminal, and comprehended the whole business, which is now fhared out among four courts, the Chancery, the King's Bench, the Common Pleas, and the Exchequer ‡.


† None of the feudal governments in Europe had fuch institutions as the county courts, which the great authority of the Conqueror still retained from the Saxon customs. All the freeholders of the county, even the greateft barons, were obliged to attend the sheriffs in these courts, and to affift him in the administration of justice. By this means, they received frequent and fensible admonitions of their dependance on the King or supreme magistrate: They formed a kind of community with their fellow-barons and freeholders; and were often drawn from their individual and independant state, peculiar to the feudal fystem; and were made members of a political body: And perhaps, this infitution of county-courts in England has had greater effects on the government, than has yet been distinctly pointed out by historians or traced by antiquaries. The barons were never able to free themselves from this attendance on the sheriffs and itinerant justices till the reign of Henry III.

‡ Brady Pref. 143. || Madox Hist. of Exch. p. 103.
§ Braâon, lib. 3. cap. 9. § 1. cap. 10. § 1. ¶ Spel. Gloss. in verbo judiciarius.
* Madox. Hist. Exch. p. 27. 29. 33. 38. 41. 54. The Normans introduced the practice of sealing charters; and the chancellor's office was to keep the Great Seal. Ingbilph Dugd. p. 33. 34.

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Such
Appendix II. Such an accumulation of powers was itself a great source of authority, and rendered the jurisdiction of the court terrible to all the subjects; but the turn, which judicial trials took soon after the Conquest, served still more to increase its authority, and to augment the royal prerogatives. William, among the other violent changes, which he attempted and affected, had introduced the Norman law into England, had ordered all pleadings to be in that tongue, and had interwoven with the English jurisprudence, all the maxims and principles, which the Normans, more advanced in cultivation, and naturally litigious, were accustomed to observe in the distribution of justice. Law now became a science, which at first fell entirely into the hands of the Normans; and which, even after it was communicated to the English, required so much study and application, that the laity, in those ignorant ages, were incapable of attaining it, and it was a mystery almost solely confined to the clergy, and chiefly to the monks. The great officers of the crown and the feudal barons, who were military men, found themselves unfit to penetrate into those obscurities; and tho' they were intitled to a seat in the supreme judicature, the business of the court was wholly managed by the chief judiciary and the law barons, who were men appointed by the King, and entirely at his disposal. This natural course of things was forwarded by the multiplicity of business, which flowed into that court, and which daily augmented by the appeals from all the subordinate judicatures of the kingdom.

In the Saxon times, no appeal was received in the King's court, except upon the denial or delay of justice by the inferior courts; and the same practice was still observed in most of the feudal kingdoms of Europe. But the great power of the Conqueror established at first in England an authority, which the monarchs in France were not able to attain till the reign of St. Lewis, who lived near two centuries after: He empowered his court to receive appeals both from the courts of barony and the county-courts, and by that means brought the administration of justice ultimately into the hands of the sovereign. And lest the expense or trouble of a journey to court should discourage suitors, and make them acquiesce in the decision of the inferior judicatures, itinerant judges were afterwards established, who made their circuits through the kingdom, and tried all causes, that were brought before them. By this expedient, the courts of barony

|| Dial. de Sac. p. 30. apud Madox, Hist. of the Exchequer.  
|| Malmes. lib. 4. p. 123.  
‡ Gerv. Dorob. p. 100.  
§ Fitz-Stephens, p. 36.  
§ Madox, Hist. of the Exch. p. 83, 84.  
‡ Gerv. Dorob. p. 100.  
§ Fitz-Stephens, p. 36.  
§ Madox, Hist. of the Exch. p. 83, 84.  
‡ Madox, Hist. of the Exch. p. 65.  
‡ Gerv. Dorob. p. 100.  
§ What made the Anglo-Norman barons more readily submit to appeals from their court to the King's court of Exchequer, was, their
rony were kept in awe, and if they still preferred some influence, it was only from Appendix II.
the apprehensions which the vassals might entertain of disobligeing their superior,
by appealing from his court. But the county-courts were much discredited; and
as the freeholders were found ignorant of the intricate principles and forms of
the new law, the lawyers gradually brought all business before the King's judges, and
abandoned the ancient simple and popular judicature. After this manner, the
formalities of justice, which, tho' they appear tedious and cumbrous, are
found requisite to the support of liberty in all monarchical governments, proved
at first, by a combination of causes, very advantageous to the royal authority in
England.

The power of the Norman kings was also much supported by a great revenue; and by a revenue, that was fixed, perpetual, and independant of the subject. The people, without betaking themselves to arms, had no check upon the King, and no regular security for the due distribution of justice. In those days of violence, many instances of oppression passed unheeded; and were soon after openly pleaded as precedents, which it was unlawful to dispute or control. Princes and ministers were too ignorant to be themselves sensible of the advantages attending an equitable administration; and there was no established council or assembly which could protect the people, and by withdrawing supplies, regularly and peaceably admonish the King of his duty, and ensure the execution of the laws.

The first branch of the King's stated revenue was the royal demesnes or crown-lands, which were very extensive, and comprehended, beside a great number of manors, most of the chief cities of the kingdom. It was established by law, that the King could alienate no part of his demesne, and that he himself, or his successor, could, at any time, resume such donations: But this law was never regularly observed; which happily rendered in time the crown somewhat more dependant. The rent of the crown-lands,considered merely as so much riches, was a source of power: The influence of the King over his tenants and the inhabitants of his towns, increased this power: But the other numerous branches of his revenue, besides supplying his treasury, gave, by their very nature, a great latitude to arbitrary authority, and were a support of the prerogative; as will appear from an enumeration of them.

The King was never content with the stated rents, but levied heavy tailliages at pleasure on the inhabitants both of town and country, who lived within his

their being accustomed to like appeals in Normandy to the ducal court of exchequer. See Gilbert's History of the Exchequer, p. 1. 2.; tho' the author thinks it doubtful, whether the Norman court was not rather copied from the English, p. 6.

* Fleta, lib. 1. cap. 8. 17. lib. 3. cap. 6. § 3. Bracton, lib. 2. cap. 5.
Appendix II. demesne. All bargains of sale, in order to prevent theft, being prohibited, except in boroughs and public markets *, he pretended to exact tolls on all goods which were there sold †. He seized two hogsheds, one before and one behind the mast, from every vessel that imported wine. All goods paid to his customs a proportional part of their value ‡: Passage over bridges and on rivers was loaded with tolls at pleasure §: And tho’ the boroughs by degrees bought the liberty of farming these impositions, yet the revenue profited by these bargains, new sums were often exacted for the renewal and confirmation of the privileges $, and the people were thus held in perpetual dependance.

Such was the situation of the inhabitants within the royal demesnes. But the possessors of land, or the military tenants, tho’ they were better protected, both by law, and by the great privilege of carrying arms, were, from the nature of their tenures, much exposed to the inroads of power, and possessed not what we should esteem in our age a very durable security. The Conqueror granted by his laws, that the barons should be obliged to pay nothing beyond their stated services †, except a reasonable aid to ransom his person if he were taken in war, to make his eldest son a knight, and to marry his eldest daughter. What should, on these occasions be deemed a reasonable aid, was not determined; and the demands of the crown were so far discretionary.

The King could require in war the personal attendance of his vassals, that is, of all the landed proprietors; and if they declined the service, they were obliged to pay him a composition in money, which was called a scutage. The sum was, during some reigns, very precarious and uncertain; it was sometimes levied without allowing the vassal the liberty of personal service *; and it was an usual artifice of the King to pretend an expedition, that he might be intitled to levy the scutage from his military tenants. Danegelt was another species of land-tax levied by the early Norman kings, arbitrarily and contrary to the laws of the Conqueror †. Moneyage was also a general land-tax of the same nature, levied by the two first Norman kings, and abolished by the charter of Henry I. §. It was a shilling paid every three years by each hearth, to induce the King not to use his prerogative of debasing the coin. Indeed, it appears from that charter, that, tho’ the Conqueror had granted his military tenants an immunity from all taxes and tailliages, he and his son William had never thought themselves bound to observe that rule, but had levied impositions at pleasure on all the landed estates.

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* LL. Will. i. cap. 61. † Madox, p. 530. ‡ Madox, p. 529. This author says a fifteenth. But it is not easy to reconcile this account to other authorities. § Madox’s Hist. of the Exch. p. 275, 276, 277, &c. † LL. Will. Conq. § 55. $ Madox’s Hist. of the Exch. p. 475. ‡ Matth. Paris, p. 38.
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of the kingdom. The utmost that Henry grants, is, that the land cultivated by Appendix II. the military tenant himself shall not be so burdened; but he reserves the power of taxing the farmers: And as it is known, that Henry's charter was never observed in any one article, we may be assured, that this prince and his successors retracted even this small indulgence, and levied arbitrary impositions on all the lands of all their subjects. These taxes were sometimes very heavy; since Malmesbury tells us, that, in the reign of William Rufus, the farmers, on account of them, abandoned tillage, and a famine ensued.

The escheats were a great branch both of power and of revenue to the King, especially during the first reigns after the conquest. In default of descendents from the first baron, his land reverted to the crown, and continually augmented the King's possessions. The prince had indeed by law a power of alienating these escheats; but by this means he enjoyed an opportunity of establishing the fortunes of his friends and servants, and thereby enlarging his authority. Sometimes he retained them in his own hands, and they were gradually confounded with his royal demesnes, and became difficult to be distinguished from them. This confusion is probably the reason why the King acquired the right of alienating his demesnes.

But besides escheats from default of heirs, those which ensued from crimes or breach of duty towards the superior lord, were very frequent in ancient times. If the vassal, being thrice summoned to attend his superior's court, and do fealty, neglected or refused obedience, he forfeited all title to his lands. If he denied his tenure, or refused his service, he was exposed to the same penalty. Where he sold his estate without licence from his lord, or if he sold it upon any other tenure or title than that by which he himself held it, he lost all right to it. The adhering to his lord's enemies, deserting him in war, betraying his secrets, debauching his wife or his nearer relations, or even using indecent liberties with them, might be punished by forfeiture. The higher crimes, rapes, robbery, murder, burning houses, &c. were called felony; and being interpreted want of fidelity to his lord, made him lose his fief. Even where the felon was vassal to a baron, tho' his immediate lord enjoyed the forfeiture, the King might retain possession of his estate during a year, and had the right of spoiling and destroying it, unless the baron paid him a reasonable composition.

Appendix II. We have not here enumerated all the species of felonies, or of crimes by which forfeiture was incurred: We have said enough to prove, that the possession of feudal property was antiently somewhat precarious, and that the primary idea was never entirely lost, of its being a kind of fee or benefice.

When a baron died, the King immediately took possession of the estate; and the heir, before he recovered his right, was obliged to make application to the crown, to desire that he might be admitted to do homage for his land, and to pay a composition to the King. This composition was not at first fixed by law, at least by practice: The King was often very exorbitant in his demands, and kept possession of the land till they were complied with.

If the heir was a minor, the King retained the whole profit of the estate till his majority; and might grant what sum he thought proper for the education and maintenance of the young baron. This practice was also founded on the notion, that a sief was a benefice, and that, while the heir could not perform his military services, the revenue devolved to the superior, who employed another in his place. It is obvious, that a great proportion of the landed property must, by means of this device, be continually in the hands of the prince, and that all the noble families were thereby held in continual dependance. When the King granted the wardship of a rich heir to any one, he had the opportunity of enriching a favourite or minister: If he sold it, he was thereby able to levy a considerable sum of money. Simon de Mountfort paid Henry III. 10,000 marks, an immense sum in those days, for the wardship of Gilbert de Umfreville.*

If the heir was a female, the King was entitled to offer her any husband of her rank he thought proper; and if she refused him, the forfeited her land. Even a male heir could not marry without the royal consent, and it was usual for men to pay large sums for the liberty of making their own choice in marriage †. No man could dispose of his land, either by sale or will, without the consent of his superior. The possession was never considered as full proprietor: He was still a kind of beneficiary; and could not oblige his superior to accept of any vassal, who was not agreeable to him.

Fines, amerciaments, and oblatas, as they were called, were another considerable branch of the royal power and revenue. The antient records of the Exchequer, which are still preserved, give surprising accounts of the numerous fines and amerciaments levied in those days ‡, and of the strange inventions fallen upon to exact money from the subject. It appears, that the old Kings of England put themselves entirely on the footing of the barbarous eastern princes,

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* Madox's Hist. of the Exch. p. 223. † Id. p. 320. ‡ Id. p. 272.
whom no man must approach without a present, who fell all their good offices, and who intrude themselves into every business, that they may have a pretence of extorting money. Even justice was avowedly bought and sold; the King's court itself, tho' the supreme judicature of the kingdom, was open to none that brought not large presents to the King; the bribes given for the expedition, delay *, suspension, and, doubtless, for the perversion of justice, were entered in the public registers of the royal revenue, and remain as monuments of the perpetual iniquity and tyranny of the times. The barons of the exchequer, for instance, the first nobility of the kingdom, were not ashamed to insert, as an article in their records, that the county of Norfolk paid a sum, that they might be fairly dealt with †; the borough of Yarmouth, that the King's charters, which they have for their liberties, might not be violated ‡; Richard, son of Gilbert, for the King's helping him to recover his debt from the Jews §; Serlo, son of Terlavashton, that he might be permitted to make his defence, in case he was accused of a certain homicide ¶; Walter de Burton for free law, if accused of wounding another ††; Robert de Effart, for having an inquest to find whether Roger, the butcher, and Wace and Humphrey, accused him of robbery and theft out of envy and ill-will, or not *; William Buhufl for having an inquest to find whether he was accused of the death of one Godwin out of ill-will or for just cause †. I have selected these few instances from a great number of a like kind, which Madox had selected from a still greater number, preserved in the antient rolls of the exchequer ‡. Sometimes the party litigant proffered the King a certain portion, a half, a third, a fourth, payable out of the debts, which he, as the executor of justice, should assist him in recovering †. Theophania de Westland agreed to pay the half of 212 marks, that she might recover that sum against James de Fughleston §; Solomon the Jew engaged to pay one mark out of every seven that he should recover against Hugh de la Hoë ¶; Nicholas Morrel promised to pay sixty pound, that the earl of Flanders might be distrained to pay him 343 pound, which the earl had taken from him; and this sixty pound was to be paid out of the first money that Nicholas should recover of the earl *. The King, as he assumed the entire power over trade, was to be paid for a permission to exercise commerce or industry of any kind †. Hugh Oifel paid 400 marks for liberty to trade in England ‡: Nigel de Havene gave fifty marks

* Madox's Hist. of Exch. p. 274, 309. † Id. p. 295. ‡ Id. ibid. ¶ Id. p. 296. He paid 200 marks, a great sum in those days. § Id. p. 296. ¶ Id. ibid. † Id. p. 298. † Id. p. 305. ‡ Chap. xii. † Id. p. 311. ¶ Id. ibid. ¶ Id. p. 79, 312. * Id. p. 313. † Id. p. 323. ‡ Id. ibid.
Appendix II. for the partnership in merchandize which he had with Gervase de Hanton *

The men of Worcester paid 100 shillings, that they might have the liberty of felling and buying dyed cloth, as formerly †: Several other towns paid for a like liberty ‡. The commerce indeed of the kingdom was so much given up to the King, that he erected gilds, corporations, and monopolies, wherever he pleased; and levied sums for these exclusive privileges §.

There were no profits so small as to be below the King's attention. Henry, son of Arthur, gave ten dogs, to have a recognition against the countess of Cop­land for one knight's fee §. Roger, son of Nicholas, gave twenty lampreys and twenty shads for an inquest to find, whether Gilbert, son of Alured, gave to Roger 200 muttons to obtain his confirmation for certain lands, or whether Roger took them from him by violence †: Geoffrey Fitz-Pierre, the chief justiciary, gave two good Norway hawks, that Walter le Madine might have leave to export an hundred weight of cheese out of the King's dominions *.

It is amusing to remark the strange business in which the King sometimes interfered, and never without a present: The wife of Hugh de Neville gave the King 200 hens, that she might lie with her husband one night †; and she brought with her two sureties, who answered each for an hundred hens. It is probable that her husband was a prisoner, which debarred her having access to him. The abbot of Ruteford paid ten marks, for leave to erect houses and place men upon his land near Welhang, in order to secure his wood there from being stolen ‡: Hugh, archdeacon of Wells, gave one tun of wine for leave to carry 600 sums of corn whither he would §: Peter de Perarīs gave twenty marks for leave to fall fish; as Peter Chevalier used to do §.

The King's protection and good offices of every kind were bought and sold. Robert Grislet paid twenty marks of silver, that the King would help him against the earl of Mortaigne in a certain plea †: Robert de Cundet gave thirty marks of silver, that the King would bring him to an accord with the bishop of Lincoln *: Ralph de Breckham gave a hawk, that the King would protect him ‡; and this is a very frequent reason for payments: John, son of Ordgar, gave a Norway hawk, to have the King's request to the King of Norway to let him have his brother Godard's chattels §: Richard de Neville gave twenty palfreys to obtain the King's request to Ifolda Bifet, that she would take him for a husband ‡: Roger Fitz-Walter gave three good palfreys to have the King's letter

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* Madox's Hist. of Exch. p. 323. † Id. p. 324. ‡ Id. ibid. § Id. p. 325. &c. $ Id. p. 298. ¶ Id. p. 305. * Id. p. 325. † Id. p. 326. ‡ Id. ibid. § Id. p. 330. ¶ Id. p. 329. * Id. p. 330. † Id. p. 332. ‡ Id. ibid. § Id. p. 333.
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to Roger Bertram's mother, that she should marry him*: Eling, the dean, paid 100 marks, that his whore and his children might be let out upon bail †: The bishop of Winchester gave one tun of good wine for his not putting the King in mind to give a girdle to the countess of Albermarle ‡: Robert de Vaux gave five of the best palfreys, that the King would hold his tongue about Henry Pinel's wife §. There are in the records of exchequer many other singular instances of a like nature $. It will however be just to remark, that the same ridiculous practices and dangerous abuses prevailed in Normandy, and probably in all the other states of Europe ¶. England was not in this respect more barbarous than its neighbours.

These iniquitous practices of the Norman kings were so well known, that on the death of Hugh Bigod, in the reign of Henry II. the best and most just of these princes, the eldest son and the widow of this nobleman came to court, and strove, by proffering large presents to the King, each of them to acquire possession of that rich inheritance. The King was so equitable as to order the cause to be tried by the great council; but in the mean time, he seized into his own hands all the money and treasures of the deceased *.

Peter of Blois, a judicious, and even an elegant writer for that age, gives a pathetic description of the venality of justice and the oppressions of the poor, under the reign of Henry;

‡ Id. p. 352. § Id. ibid. Ut Rex taceret de uxore Henrici Pinel.
¶ We shall gratify the reader's curiosity by subjoining a few more instances from Madox, p. 332.

Hugh Oifel was to give the King two robes of a good green colour, to have the King's letters-patent to the merchants of Flanders with a request to render him 1000 marks, which he lost in Flanders. The abbot of Hyde paid thirty marks, to have the King's letters of request to the archbishop of Canterbury, to remove certain monks that were against the abbot. Roger de Trihanton paid twenty marks and a palfrey, to have the King's request to Richard de Umfreville to give him his sister to wife, and to the sister, that she would accept of him for a husband: William de Cheveringworth paid five marks, to have the King's letter to the abbot of Perfore, to let him enjoy peaceably his tythes as formerly: Matthew de Hereford, clerk, paid ten marks for a letter of request to the bishop of Landaff, to let him enjoy peaceably his church of Schenfrith: Andrew Neulan gave three Flemifh caps, for the King's request to the prior of Chifefand, for performance of an agreement made between them; Henry de Pontibus gave a Lombardy horse of value, to have the King's request to Henry Fitz-Hervey, that he would give him his daughter to wife: Roger, son of Nicholas, promised all the lampreys he could get, to have the King's request to earl William Marethal, that he would grant him the manor of Langeford at Ferr. The burghers of Gloucester promised 300 lampreys, that they might not be disdained to find the prisoners of Poictou with necessaries, unless they pleased. Id. p. 352. Jordan, son of Reginald, paid twenty marks to have the King's request to Will. Painel, that he would grant him the land of Mill Niereinuit, and the custody of his heirs; and if Jordan obtained the same, he was to pay the twenty marks, otherwise not. Id. p. 333.

Id. p. 359. 3 H 2


and
Appendix II. and he scruples not to complain to the King himself of these abuses *. We may judge what the case would be under the government of worse princes. The articles of enquiry concerning the conduct of sheriffs, which Henry promulgated in 1170, show the great power as well as the licentiousness of these officers †.

Amerciements or fines for crimes and trespasses were another considerable branch of the royal revenue ‡. Most crimes were atoned for by money; the fines imposed were not limited by any rule or statute; and frequently occasioned the total ruin of the person, even for the slightest trespasses. The forest-laws, particularly, were a great source of oppression. The King possessed sixty-eight forests, thirteen chases, and seven hundred and eighty-one parks, in different parts of England ‡; and considering the extreme passion of the English and Normans for hunting, these were so many snares laid for the people, by which they were allured into trespasses, and brought within the reach of arbitrary and rigorous laws, which the King had thought proper by his own authority to enact.

But the most barefaced acts of tyranny and oppression were those practised against the Jews, who were entirely out of the protection of law, were extremely odious to the bigotry of the people, and were abandoned to the immeasurable rapacity of the King and his ministers. Besides many other indignities, to which they were continually exposed, it appears, that they were once all thrown into prison, and the sum of 66,000 marks exacted for their liberty §: At another time, Isaac the Jew paid alone 5100 marks †; Brun, 3000 marks ‡; Jurnet, 2000; Bennet, 500: At another, Licoric, widow of David, the Jew of Oxford, was required to pay 6000 marks; and she was delivered over to fix of the richest and discreetest Jews of England, who were to answer for the sum †. Henry III. borrowed 5000 marks of the earl of Cornwall; and for his repayment assigned him over all the Jews of England ‡. The revenue arising from exactions upon this nation was so considerable, that there was a particular court of exchequer set apart for managing it †.

Commerce. We may judge of the low state of commerce among the English, when the Jews, notwithstanding all these oppressions, could still find their account in trading among them, and lending them money. And as the improvements of agriculture were also much checked, both by the immense possessions of the nobility,
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and by the precarious state of feudal property; it appears, that industry of no kind could then have place in the kingdom.

It is asserted by Sir Harry Spellman,† as an undoubted truth, that, during the reigns of the first Norman princes, every edict of the King, issued with the consent of his privy-council, had the full force of law. But the barons surely were not so passive as to entrust a power, entirely arbitrary and despotic, into the hands of the sovereign. It only appears, that the constitution had not fixed any precise boundaries to the royal power; that the right of issuing proclamations on any emergence and of exacting obedience to them, a right which was always supposed inherent in the crown, is very difficult to be distinguished from a legislative authority; that the extreme imperfection of the antient laws and the sudden exigencies, which often occurred in such turbulent governments, obliged the prince to exert frequently the latent powers of his prerogative; that he naturally proceeded, from the acquiescence of the people, to assume, in many particulars of moment, an authority, from which he had excluded himself by express statutes, charters or concessions, and which was, in the main, repugnant to the general genius of the constitution; and that the lives, the personal liberty, and the properties of all his subjects were less secured by law against the exertion of his arbitrary authority, than by the independant power and private connexions of each individual. It appears from the great charter itself, that not only John, a tyrannical prince, and Richard, a violent one, but their father, Henry, under whose reign the prevalence of gross abuses is the least to be suspected, was accustomed, from his sole authority, without process of law, to imprison, banish and attain the freemen of his kingdom.

A great baron, in ancient times, considered himself as a kind of sovereign within his territory, and was attended with courtiers and dependants more zealously attached to him than the ministers of state, and the great officers were commonly to their sovereign. He often maintained in his court the parade of royalty, by establishing a judiciary, constable, marshal, chamberlain, seneschal, and chancellor, and assigning to each of these officers a separate province and command. He was usually very assiduous in exercising his jurisdiction, and took such delight in that image of sovereignty, that it was found necessary to restrain his activity, and prohibit him by law from holding courts too frequently. It is not to be doubted, that the example, set him by the prince, of a mercenary and sordid extortion, would be faithfully copied; and that all his good and bad offices, his

* We learn from the extracts given us of Domesday by Brady in his Treatise of Boroughs, that almost all the boroughs of England had suffered in the shock of the Conquest, and had decayed extremely between the death of the Confessor, and the time when Domesday was framed.

justice
Appendix II. justice and injustice, were equally put to sale. He had the power, with the
King's consent, to exact talliages even from the free-citizens who lived within his
barony; and as his necessities made him rapacious, his authority was usually found
to be more oppressive and tyrannical than that of the sovereign *. He was ever
engaged in hereditary or personal animosities or confederacies with his neighbours;
and often gave protection to all desperate adventurers and criminals, who could be
useful in serving his violent purposes. He was able alone, in times of tranquillity,
to obstruct the execution of justice within his territories; and by combining with
a few malecontent barons of high rank and power, he could throw the whole state
into convulsions. And on the whole, tho' the royal authority was confined within
bounds, and often within very narrow ones, yet the check was irregular, and
often the source of great disorders; and it was not derived from the liberty of
the people, but from the military power of many petty tyrants, who were equally dan-
gerous to the prince and oppressive to the subject.

The Church. The power of the church was another rampart against royal authority; but
this defence was also the cause of many mischiefs and inconveniences. The digni-
fied clergy, perhaps, were not so prone to immediate violence as the barons;
but as they pretended to a total independance on the state, and could always cover
themselves with the appearances of religion, they proved, in one respect, an ob-
struction to the settlement of the kingdom, and to the regular execution of the
laws. The policy of the Conqueror was in this particular liable to some exception. He augmented the superstitious veneration for Rome, to which that age
was so much inclined; and he broke those bands of connexion, which, in the
Saxon times, had preserved an union between the lay and the clerical orders. He
prohibited the bishops to sit in the county-courts; he allowed ecclesiastical causes
to be tried only in spiritual courts †; and he so much exalted the power of the
clergy, that of 60,215 knights fees, into which he divided England, he placed
no less than 28,015 under the church ‡.

Civil laws. The right of primogeniture came in with the feudal law: A practice, which
is hurtful by producing and maintaining an unequal division of private property;
but is advantageous, in another respect, by accustoming the people to a pre-
ference in favour of the eldest son, and thereby preventing a partition or disputed
succession in the monarchy. The Normans introduced the use of surnames, which
tend to preserve the knowledge of families and pedigrees; as do also, the dif-

‡ Spel. Gloss. in verb. manus mortua. We are not to imagine, as some have done, that the church
possessed lands in this proportion, but only that they and their vassals enjoyed such a proportionable
part of the landed property.
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The concession of coats of arms, which came in vogue about the time of King Richard, Appendix I. They abolished none of the old absurd methods of trial, by the cross or ordeal; and they added a new absurdity, that by single combat*, which became a regular part of jurisprudence, and was conducted with all the order, method, devotion and solemnity imaginable†. The ideas of chivalry also seem to have been imported by the Normans: No traces of these fantastic notions are to be found among the plain and rustic Saxons: The feudal institutions, by raising a set of men to a kind of sovereign dignity, rendering personal strength and valour requisite, and making every knight and baron his own protector and avenger, begot that military pride and sense of honour, which being cultivated and embellished by the poets and romance writers of the age, ended in chivalry. The virtuous knight fought not only in his own quarrel; but in that of the innocent, the helpless, and above all, of the fair, whom he supposed to be forever under the guardianship of his valiant arm. The uncourteous knight, who, from his castle, exercised robbery on travellers, and committed violence on virgins, was the object of his perpetual indignation; and he put him to death, without scruple or trial or appeal, wherever he met with him. The great independence of men made personal honour and fidelity the chief tie among them; and rendered it the capital virtue of every true knight, or genuine professor of chivalry. The solemnities of single combat, as established by law, banished the notion of every thing unfair or unequal in encounters; and maintained an appearance of courtesy between the combatants, till the moment of their engagement. The credulity of the age grafted on this flock the notion of giants, enchanters, dragons, spells‡, and a thousand wonders which still multiplied during the times of the Crusades; when men, returning from so great a distance, used the liberty of imposing every fiction on their believing audience. These ideas of chivalry infected the writings, conversation, and behaviour of men, during some ages; and even after they were, in a great degree, banished by the revival of learning, they left modern gallantry and the point of honour, which still maintain their influence, and are the genuine offspring of those antient affectations.

The concession of the Great Charter, or rather its full establishment (for there was a considerable interval between the one and the other) gave rise, by degrees, to a new species of government, and introduced some order and justice into the administration. The ensuing scenes of our history are therefore somewhat dif-

* LL. Will. cap. 68. † Spel. Gloss. in verb. campus. The last instance of these duels was in the 15th of Eliz. So long did that absurdity remain.
‡ In all legal single combats, it was part of the champions oath, that he carried not about him any herb, spell, or enchantment, by which he might procure victory. Dugd. Orig. Jurid. p. 82.
Yet the Great Charter contained no establishment of new courts, magistrates, or senates, nor abolition of the old. It introduced no new distribution of the powers of the commonwealth, and no innovation in the political or public law of the kingdom. It only guarded, and that merely by verbal clauses, against such tyrannical practices as are incompatible with civilized government, and, if they become very frequent, are incompatible with all government. The barbarous licence of the kings, and perhaps of the nobles, was thenceforth somewhat more restrained: Men acquired some more security for their properties and their liberties: And government approached a little nearer to that end, for which it was originally instituted, the distribution of justice, and the equal protection of the citizens. Acts of violence and iniquity in the crown, which before were only deemed injuries to individuals, and were hazardous chiefly in proportion to the number, power, and dignity of the persons affected by them, were now regarded, in some degree, as public injuries, and as infringements of a charter, calculated for general security. And thus, the establishment of the Great Charter, without seeming any-wise to innovate in the distribution of political power, became a kind of epoch in the constitution.

The END of the FIRST VOLUME.